

## UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA AT loS ANGELES

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## A TEXT-BOOK

OF

## PLANE SURVEYING

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## PREFACE.

This book has been prepared to meet the needs of those beginning the study of surveying. The subject treated is a simple one, and an effort has been made to make its presentation clear. The book is a text-book, not a treatise, and it is hoped that the teachers who use it will find it possible to devote their lecture work to amplification, rather than to explanation, of the matter it embraces.

So far as seemed necessary the plan of giving first the general method and then the details has been adopted, at the risk of some repetition, because I believe this to be the clearest method of presentation. A special effort has been made to render clear and comprehensible those points which an experience of fourteen years of practice and teaching has indicated to be the ones presenting the greatest difficulties to students. Simpler matters have been left to the student to work out from suggestions. The book can be read understandingly by any one who has completed Trigonometry, two formulas only being given whose derivation requires anything beyond. These may be derived by the teacher for such students as are sufficiently advanced.

Particular attention is called to the systematic arrangement of computations in Chapter VI.; to the article on the slide rule; to the discussion of practical surveying methods in Book II. ; to the full treatment of coördinates; to the large number of examples; and to the use of the terms "latitude difference" and "longitude difference" for the old terms "latitude" and "departure."

The whole general scheme of terms is thought to be much more logical than that heretofore in use; and in this I have the support of Professors Merriman and Brooks, who have adopted practically the same nomenclature in their "Handbook for Surveyors," recently issued.

The logarithmic tables are from Professor C. W. Crockett's "Trigonometry," and are particularly suitable for surveyors' use.

I am indebted to many persons and books for valuable assistance. Especial acknowledgment is due to Professor H. I. Randall of the University of California, who drew Plate IV.; to Mr. J. J. Ormsbee, Mining Engineer, who drew Plate V.; to Mr. John H. Myers, Jr., A.B., C.E., for the problems on coördinates and for many suggestions; and to Professors R. S. Woodward of Columbia, and Frank O. Marvin of the University of Kansas, for valuable suggestions. Mr. E. R. Cary, C.E., Instructor in Geodesy, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, has given much help in the preparation of examples.

I also acknowledge my indebtedness to the following instrument makers for the use of cuts : Messrs. Buff \& Berger, Boston, Mass.; W. \& L. E. Gurley, Troy, N. Y.; Keuffel \& Esser Company, New York; G. N. Saegmuller, Washington, D. C.; L. Beckman, Toledo, O.; Mahn \& Co., St. Louis, Mo.; F. E. Brandis, Sons \& Co., Brooklyn, N. Y. The principal instrument cuts, furnished by the Messrs. Gurley, Keuffel \& Esser, and Mahn \& Co., will be known by the firm name on the cut. Those of Buff \& Berger are Figs. 19, 20, 48, 107, 148, 151, and 153. G. N. Saegmuller furnished Fig. 54. All of the cuts used are covered by copyright.

The book is submitted to my fellow teachers and students of surveying in the hope that it may prove useful to them in their work.

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## B00K I.

## PRINCIPAL INSTRUMENTS AND ELEMENTARY OPERATIONS.

## INTRODUCTION.

1. Preliminary conceptions. An ellipse of axes $A B$ and $C D$ (Fig. 1), being revolved around its shorter axis $C D$, will generate the surface of an oblate spheroid of revolution.

If we imagine the sea to extend underneath the surface of the earth so that the visible solid portions of the earth will be, as it were, floating on a ball of water, the shape of that ball will be, approximately, that of an


Fig. 1. oblate spheroid of revolution. The surface of this ball is called the mean surface of the earth.

The shorter axis is that connecting the poles; the longer is the diameter of the circle called the equator. In the case of the earth these two axes do not differ much in length, and hence the earth is usually spoken of as a "sphere slightly flattened at the poles." It may seem strange to the student that a difference of twenty-seven miles should be spoken of as a slight difference. But when it is sajd that this difference is about one third of one per cent of the length of the longer axis, the meaning is clearer.

The lengths of the two axes according to the latest determinations ${ }^{1}$ are:
Shorter or polar axis . . . 41,709,790 feet.
Longer or equatorial axis . . 41,852,404 feet.

[^0]If a plane is passed through an oblate spheroid of revolution, parallel to its shorter axis, it will cut from the spheroid an ellipse. If passed parallel to the longer axis, it will cut a circle. So with the earth : a plane passed parallel to the polar axis cuts from the mean surface of the earth an ellipse, while one passed parallel to the equator cuts a circle. Hence meridians of longitude are ellipses, and parallels of latitude are circles.

The surface of the sea, or that surface extended as before mentioned, forms what is called a level surface, and a line lying in this surface is a level line.

A line perpendicular to this surface at any point is a vertical line for that point. (A plumb line at any point is a vertical line for that point.)

A line perpendicular to a vertical line is a horizontal line.
A tangent to the earth's mean surface at any point is perpendicular to the vertical line at that point, and hence is a horizontal line for that point.

An inclined line is a straight line that is neither vertical nor horizontal.

A vertical plane at any point is a plane including the vertical line at that point.

A horizontal plane at any point is a plane perpendicular to the vertical line at that point.

A vertical angle is an angle formed by lines in a vertical plane.

A horizontal angle is an angle formed by lines in a horizontal plane.

At any point on the earth's surface there can be but one vertical line, but there may be an indefinite number of horizontal lines; there can be but one horizontal plane, but there may be an indefinite number of vertical planes.

If water collects upon the earth's surface in some depression above the mean surface, as in a lake or pond, or even as in a small glass, and if the water is still, its surface will be nearly parallel to that portion of the mean surface of the earth that is vertically below it; hence it will be a level surface, and a line drawn on it will be a level line. Such a line will be longer than the corresponding line drawn on the mean surface of the
earth between the verticals through the extremities of the upper line.

The visible solid parts of the earth above the mean surface and the invisible solid parts below, make up a very irregular body. It is customary to speak of the visible parts of the earth's surface, both fluid and solid, as the "surface of the earth." In the definition in Art. 2, however, this term must be understood to mean not only the visible parts of the earth's crust, but also those parts that must be reached in connection with the operations of mining, bridge building, or other engineering works that extend below the visible surface.
2. Surveying defined. Surveying is the art of finding the contour, dimensions, position, etc., of any part of the earth's surface, and of representing on paper the information found.

The operations involved are the measurement of distances, - level, horizontal, vertical, and inclined, - and of angles, horizontal, vertical, and inclined; and the necessary drawing and computing to represent properly on paper the information obtained by the field work.

The drawn representation is called a map. It may be a map showing by conventional signs the shape of that part of the earth's surface that has been measured; or it may be simply an outline showing the linear dimensions of the bounding lines, together with the angles that they make with the meridian, or with each other, and sometimes the position within the tract of structures, roads, or streams.

A map of the former kind is called a topographical map, and the operations necessary to its production constitute a topographical survey.

A map of the latter kind is a land map, and the operations necessary to produce it constitute a land survey.

Either one of these surveys is a geodetic survey, if the tract is so large that the curvature of the earth's surface must be taken into account. This limit is supposed to be reached when the tract is greater than one hundred square miles, but many surveys of tracts of much greater area than this are made without considering the mean surface to be other than plane.

Such surveys are of course inaccurate, but may be sufficiently correct for the purpose they are to serve.

A plane survey is one made on the assumption that the mean surface of the earth is a plane, above which is the irregular visible surface broken by hills and valleys. Almost all land surveys are plane surveys. Only plane surveys will be considered in this book.

In plane surveying all measurements are referred to a plane.
In geodetic surveying all measurements are referred to a sphere, or spheroid, according to the area covered and the accuracy desired.

It must be borne in mind that no physical measurements are exact. The art of surveying makes it possible to determine that a field of land contains a certain area, more or less, that a mountain is so many feet high, more or less, that a mine is so many feet deep, more or less, etc. That is to say, it is physically impossible to measure exactly either distance or angles. The precision attainable or desirable in any surveying operations will be discussed elsewhere in this book.

## CHAPTER I.

## MEASUREMENT OF LEVEL AND HORIZONTAL LINES.

3. The line to be measured. The distance between two points on the surface of the earth is the length of the level line joining the verticals through the points. If one of these points is much higher than the other (further from the mean surface), there may arise confusion as to which of several lines is meant by the above definition. In geodetic surveying it is customary to reduce the distance, when measured, to the length of the level line lying in the mean surface, and contained between the ver-


Fig. 2. ticals through the points. The distance as measured will always be approximately the length of the level line lying midway as to altitude between the two points; and this length is that used in plane surveying. The length of this line is obtained by measuring a series of short horizontal lines; the sum of these lines approximates to the length of the required level line, just as the regular polygon of an infinite number of sides approximates to the circle.

Fig. 2 will serve to make the above statements clearer.

## INSTRUMENTS USED.

4. Chains. The instruments used are chains, tapes, and wooden or metallic rods. Chains are of two kinds - Gunter's chain and the engineer's chain. These chains are alike in form,
but vary in the length of the links and the length of the entire chain. In Gunter's chain the links are 7.92 inches long, and in the engineer's chain they are 12.00 inches, or one foot, long. With this exception, one description will apply to both.

A chain consists of one hundred "links" made of iron or steel wire. Number 12 steel wire is best. Fig. 3 shows the form of the links. A link includes


Fig. 3. one of the long pieces and two or three rings, according as there are two or three rings used to connect the long pieces. The rings are introduced to enable one to handle the chain more readily. Brass tags with the proper number of points mark the ten-link divisions from each end toward the center, and a round tag marks the center or fifty-link division. The handles are of brass, and are usually made adjustable, so that slight changes in the length of the chain may be corrected. A special form of handle is sometimes used, having a knife edge on which is filed a notch indicating the zero of the chain for the, day, the chain being compared daily with a standard kept for the purpose.

The Gunter's chain, having 100 links of 7.92 inches each, is 66.00 feet long, and the engineer's chain is 100.00 feet long. The former was devised by Mr. Edward Gunter, for the purpose of facilitating the computations of areas that have been measured. Its length was so taken that 10 square chains make one acre. It is the chain referred to in the table of surveyor's square measure, which should be carefully memorized. This table may be found in almost any arithmetic.

In all surveys of the public lands of the United States the Gunter's chain is used, and all descriptions of land, found in deeds or elsewhere, in which the word "chain" is used, are based on this chain. It is not convenient for use in connection with engineering works, such as railroad construction,
canal building, bridge building, etc., where the unit of measure is the foot, and hence in such work the engineer's chain is used.
5. Tapes. Steel tapes are better than any sort of chain for most engineering work and for all fine surveying. These tapes are made in various forms, from thin ribbons half an inch wide to flat wires about one eighth of an inch wide and one fiftieth of an inch thick. The ribbon tapes are graduated on the front to feet, tenths, and hundredths of a foot, or to feet, inches, and eighths, and on the back to links of 7.92 inches. They usually come in box reels and are from twenty-five feet to one hundred feet long. They are suitable for very nice work of limited extent, and particularly for measurements for structures, such as bridges and buildings, both in the shop and in the field. They are not suitable for ordinary field operations of surveying, because they are easily broken. For such work the narrower, thicker tapes are preferable. These may be obtained in any lengths up to a thousand feet or more; but the lengths usually kept in stock are fifty feet and one hundred feet. They are graduated, usually to ten feet and sometimes to fifty' feet only, but may be graduated to suit the purchaser. For surveying work the following graduation is recommended: Graduate to feet, numbering every tenth foot from one end of tape to the other, and not from each end to the middle, as in the chain. Have the tape one foot longer next the zero end than its nominal length and divide the extra foot into tenths. If it is required to make measurements closer than to tenths of a foot, carry a pocket steel tàpe from three to five feet long and graduated in feet, tenths, and hundredths. Hundredths can usually be estimated with sufficient precision.
6. Reels. For the narrow tapes there are a number of patterns of reels, most of them aiming to furnish an open reel, of form convenient to go in the pocket when not in use, and so constructed as to enable the surveyor readily to reel the tape. There is but one reel that has come to the author's attention that combines all three of these requisites. This is shown


Fig. 4.


IIG. 6.


Fig. 8.

Fig. 5.


Fig. 7.
in Fig. 6, and a modified form in Fig. 4. Other forms of reels are shown in Figs. 5, 7, 8, and 9. Fig. 5 is a reel for a tape from 300 feet to 1000 feet in length. Fig. 9 shows a tape fitted with a spring balance for measuring the pull on the tape when in use, a level to show when the tape is held horizontal, and a thermometer to give the temperature. The necessity for these attachments will appear hereafter. Such a tape is used for land surveys in the city of New York.

Tapes should always be kept dry, and if wet by use, should be wiped dry and rubbed with a cloth or leather that has the smallest possible quantity of mineral oil on it.
7. Linen tapes. In addition to the steel tapes, linen and "metallic" tapes are used for rough work. The ordinary linen tape is well known to everyone. The metallic tape is a linen tape with a few strands of fine brass wire woven through it. The linen tape is subject to great change in length with changes of moisture in the atmosphere, is soon stretched, and is easily worn out. The metallic tape is not so subject to change in length with change of atmospheric conditions; it is soon stretched, but is not nearly so soon worn out as is the linen tape. Both these tapes, being easily stretched, soon become quite inaccurate for any but the commonest kinds of work, where the measurements are short and need not be closer than to the nearest tenth of a foot. They are graduated in feet, tenths, and half-tenths, and on the reverse side in links of 7.92 inches. Sometimes they are graduated in inches. They are sold in paper or leather box reels.
8. Rods. While some rough measurements are made with the ordinary ten-foot pole or a similar arrangement, no other surveying measurements are now made with wooden or metallic rods, except measurements of base lines in connection with important geodetic surveys; in these the rods, usually metallic, are arranged with other devices into a very elaborate piece of apparatus. It is believed that the narrow steel and brass tapes will entirely supersede the elaborate base apparatus now in use.
9. Pins. These are used with the chain for the purpose of marking chain lengths. They are about fourteen inches long, made of steel or iron wire somewhat less than a quarter of an inch thick (No. 4 to No. 6 wire gauge) with a ring at one end into which is fastened a strip of cloth to insure ready finding of the pin when stuck in tall grass or brush. The other end is pointed. Eleven of these pins constitute a set. They are usually carried on a ring like a large key ring, or loose in the hand.
10. Range poles. Poles are used to range out the line to be measured. 'They are usually of wood, round or hexagonal, six to eight feet long, tapering from the bottom to the top, shod with a pointed iron shoe, and painted red and white in alternate strips one foot long. Gas pipe is sometimes used, but is not recommended, because, while it does not break, and while from its weight such a pole is easily balanced on its point, it is also very easily bent, and very difficult to straighten, and is too heavy to be handled with ease. A good pole for nice work in cities or on railway surveys is made of hexagonal steel about three eighths to five eighths of an inch thick, painted like the wooden poles, and pointed at one end.

## METHODS.

11. Preliminary statement. The accurate measurement of a line on a comparatively level piece of ground is a task difficult for a beginner and not simple for an expert chainman, however easy it may seem. The method of doing this work on ordinary farm surveys, where the smallest unit of measure is the link ( 7.92 inches), and where an error of one in three hundred to one in five hundred may be tolerated, will be described; and the errors incident to this method with the necessary corrections, as well as the more precise methods applied to city work, will then be discussed.
12. Chaining. It will be noticed when the chain is received from the maker that it is so folded together as to be compact in the center of the bundle and somewhat bulky at the ends, in
shape not unlike an hour glass. This results from doing up the chain as follows: 'Take the two links at the center of the chain in the left hand, with the fifty-link tag on the left. Take the right hand ends of the pair of links next but one to those in the left hand, in the right hand, and lay the right hand pair and the intermediate pair in the left hand diagonally across the pair already there. In like manner proceed to the ends of the chain, being careful always to place the new links diagonally across the links already in the left hand and always diagonally the same way. It is better, however, to do up the chain from one end instead of from the middle. The method is the same except that the two end links are first taken in the left hand, the handle end to the right. A little more time is required, but the chain is more readily loosened for service.

It will be assumed that the ground on which the line is to be measured is comparatively level, and that the ends of the line are visible, one from the other. If there is no visible object to mark the further end of the line, a range pole is placed there, toward which the measurement is to be made. If the rear end of the line is also marked, the head chainman will be able, without difficulty, to put himself in approximate line, thus saving time. The strap with which the chain is fastened is removed, and, if the chain has been done up from the middle, the two handles are taken in the left hand of the forward chainman and the chain bundle in the right hand, allowing a few links next the handles to fall off. The chain bundle is then thrown out in a direction opposite to that in which the measurement is to be made, the chainman retaining the handles in his left hand. The chain should be thrown with sufficient force to straighten it out. The forward man, usually called the "head chainman," then takes the forward end of the chain and the pins, and starts toward the further end of the line, while the rear chainman allows the chain to slip through his hands to see that it is not kinked or bent. If he finds any bends he straightens them. If the chain has been done up from one end, it should be laid down near the starting point with one handle uppermost, the latter to be taken by the head chainman, who moves off toward the further end of the line. The rear chainman allows the chain to slip through his
hands as before. The chain gets enough rough service that can not be avoided, without subjecting it to the additional unnecessary wear arising from throwing it out forcibly, to be kinked or caught in the brush or other obstruction.

One pin is left with the rear chainman. As the head chainman walks out, he places one pin in the hand that carries the chain, the remaining pins being in the other hand. When the chain is almost out, the rear


Fig. 10. chainman calls "Chain." The head chainman then stops, turns, and straightens the chain while being put into approximate line by the rear chainman. The chain being taut and approximately "lined," the head chainman assumes the position shown in Fig. 10, and the rear chainman, by motions or the words "right" and "left," accurately aligns the pin held by the head chainman and cries "Stick." The head chainman then forces the pin into the ground, taking care that it marks exactly the end of the chain, and cries "Stuck."

The rear chainman then, and not till then, draws his pin, keeping hold of the chain, and follows the head chainman, who moves on toward the forward end of the line, and the whole operation is repeated. After one pin has been placed, the head chainman, on being stopped by the call of the rear chainman, can quickly put himself in approximate line by sighting back over the pin last set to the flag left at the starting point. The work thus proceeds till the further end of the line is reached, when the head chainman walks right on past the point till the chain is all drawn out. He then returns to the point and notes the fraction of a chain between the last pin and the point. This added to the number of chains gives the distance required. If the distance is more than ten chains, the head chainman, when he sticks his last or tenth pin, calls "Stuck out." He then waits by the pin till the rear chainman
comes up with the pins he has collected, which should, with the pin he started with, be ten. He counts them, as does the head chainman, as a check, and they note one "tally." At any time the number of tallies plus the number of pins in the rear chainman's hands gives, in tens of chains and chains, the distance that has been measured.
13. Hints. The following hints may be of service to begimners:

The rear chainman should not use the pin to brace himself.
He should hold the outside edge of the handle flush with the rear side of the pin, without moving the pin.

He should not stop the head chainman with a jerk.
He should not sit down on the ground while holding the pin.
Motions and words should be sharp and distinct.
Motions and instructions should be proportionate to the distance that the pin is to be moved; for example, the arms should not be swung wildly when the pin is to be moved an inch.

The head chainman should see that the rear chainman is looking when he tries to straighten the chain.

The chain should not be jerked in straightening it; it should be straightened by an undulatory motion.

In straining the chain, the head chainman should pull steadily.

Attention to these matters will greatly facilitate the work.
14. Chaining on slopes. In chaining up or down hill, one end of the chain is raised till both ends are as nearly as possible in a horizontal line.

If the slope is so steep that one end of a full chain cannot be raised enough to bring both ends in a horizontal line, the chain is "broken," that is, the distance is measured by using a part of the chain at each measurement. To do this, the chain should be carried out as if a full chain were to be used, the head chainman returning to such a point on the chain (preferably a tenlink point) that the portion of chain between himself and the rear chainman may be properly leveled. A measurement is made with this portion, then with the next succeeding portion, and so on till the whole chain has been used. Care must be
taken not to get the pin numbering confused. The rear chainman should have but one pin for the whole chain.

The high end of the chain is transferred to the ground in one of several ways, according to the precision desired. If the work is to be done with care, a plumb line is used. If an error of a tenth of a link in each chain is not important, a pin may be dropped from the high end, and stuck in the ground where it is seen to fall. The pin should be dropped ring down. A small pebble will serve the purpose for rough work. In careful work the plumb bob should not be dropped and the pin placed in the hole made; but it should be noticed where the bob will drop, and the ground should be made smooth with the foot, and the bob swung down till it is still and just clearing the ground; then it should be carefully lowered till it touches. The chainman should then lower his grasp on the string, hand over hand, keeping the bob steadily in its place, and place a pin in the ground at the point of the bob. The pin should be put in the ground in an inclined position across the line, so that the point where it enters the ground is that covered by the bob. The position should then be checked. In place of a pin a small wire brad may be used and left in the ground.

In chaining up hill, the rear chainman must hold the bob directly over the pin which has been set in an inclined position, and must at the same time align the head chainman and see that he sticks at a moment when the bob is directly over the point. It will be at once inferred that it is easier to measure down hill correctly than up hill. 'Therefore, where close work is required on inclined ground, the measurements should always, if possible, be made down hill.

## ERRORS INVOLVED.

15. Classes. The errors involved in the method of chaining just described, whether the work is done with a chain or a tape, are of two classes: (a) constant or cumulative errors, and (b) accidental or compensating errors.
(a) Cumulative errors are such as occur each time in the same direction. They are not necessarily equal, but may be so. Thus a line so long as to require that a chain one inch too short shall be applied to it ten times, will be recorded ten inches too
long, the error of the chain being added each time the chain is applied. In this case the errors are equal.
(b) Compensating errors are such as tend to balance; that is, they are as likely to be in one direction as in another. Thus the error that may be made in setting the pin, if it is attempted to set it just right, will be a compensating error, for it will be set ahead of the true point about as often as it will be set behind it. Error in plumbing is of the same character.
16. Causes. Cumulative errors arise from five causes: (a) erroneous length of chain, (b) errors in judgment in making the chain horizontal in chaining up or down hill, (c) erroneous alignment of the chain, (d) failure to straighten the chain for each measurement, (e) sag of the chain when not supported throughout its length.

Compensating errors arise from accidental inaccuracies in setting the pin, and from irregularities in the pull exerted on the chain or tape. They are remedied by care, and, in fine work, by measuring the pull on the tape by a spring balance.

Erroneous length of chain may arise from any one of six causes.
(1) One or more links may be bent, making the chain too short. The remedy is to see that the links are straight or to use a tape.
(2) Mud or grass may get in the links and rings with the same effect. The remedy is obvious.
(3) A bent link that has been straightened has been permanently lengthened, thus making the chain too long. The remedy is to compare the chain or tape frequently with a standard tape kept for this purpose. If the chain is found to be slightly too long, it may be adjusted by the nuts at the handle, or if such a handle as is described in Art. 4 is used, the standard length of the chain for the day may be marked on the handle.
(4) The links and rings wear, thus making the chain too long. While the wear is slight, it may be adjusted at the handle. When it becomes excessive, it must be known and allowed for as hereafter described.
(5) The chain may be lengthened by too hard pulling, but this does not often occur. The remedy is the same as in (3).
(6) The chain may be too long or too short according as the temperature is higher or lower than that for which the chain is standard. The remedy is to know the temperature at which the chain is standard and that at which the work is done and make the necessary correction to the recorded measurements.

In general it may be said that erroneous length of chain may be corrected by adjusting the handles, or by comparing the tape or chain with a standard and correcting the records taken according to the errors found. It should be carefully noted that, in measuring the distance between two points, a long chain gives the distance too short and a short chain gives the distance too long, while in laying out a line of given length the errors are just reversed. Failure to appreciate this difference often causes confusion and error, and hence the student should thoroughly fix it in mind. Since similar figures are in area as the squares of their homologous sides, the erroneous area of a field determined from measurements with an erroneous chain, will be to the true area as the square of the nominal length of the chain is to the square of its true length.
17. Temperature. The coefficient of expansion of steel is about 0.0000065 . (Tapes and chains being alike subject to this error, this discussion will do for both.) A tape or chain will expand or contract sixty-five ten-millionths of its length for each Fahrenheit degree change of temperature. Thus a line abont ten chains long, if measured in the summer with the chain at a temperature of, say, $80^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$., the chain being standard at a temperature of $62^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$., will be recorded 0.117 links too short; while the same line measured with the same chain in midwinter with the chain at a temperature of $0^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$., will be recorded 0.403 links too long, making a total difference of 0.52 links between the two measurements. This is an error of one in two thousand for the extreme difference in temperature of $80^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$.

It is thus seen that for all ordinary work the temperature correction may be neglected; but in city work where an inch in frontage may be worth several thousand dollars, it is
very necessary that the temperature be determined and the standard temperature of the tape known. The tape shown in Fig. 9 is adjustable for the effect of temperature. A scale numbered to correspond to the thermometer readings indicates the proper setting of the adjusting screw. The spring balance insures a constant pull.
18. Sag. The effect of sag in shortening a tape that is unsupported except at the ends is given by the following formula in which $l$ is the unsupported length of the tape, $w$ the weight of a unit of length, and $P$ the pull in pounds.

$$
x=\frac{l}{24}\left(\frac{w l}{P}\right)^{2}
$$

This formula the student will have to accept until he has studied the elements of Mechanics and Calculus. It assumes that the tape is supported only at the ends, and that it is standard for no pull when supported its entire length. If the tape is standard for a pull of $P_{0}$ pounds, substitute in the formula for $P$ the difference $P-P_{0}$.

If the tape is applied $n$ times in measuring a line and each time is supported only at the ends, and the pull is always the same, the correction for the whole line is $n$ times the above expression.

The formula gives the difference between the length of the curve of the unsupported tape and its chord. The real distance measured is the chord, while the distance read is the length of the curve or of the whole tape. It is evident, therefore, that the distance is read too long, and hence the formula is a negative correction.
19. Pull. If the chain were of constant cross section as is a tape, the amount that the chain would stretch for a pull of $P$ pounds would be given by the following formula in which $l$ is the length of the chain in inches, $S$ is the area of its cross section in square inches, and $E$ is the modulus of elasticity of the metal of which it is made :

$$
y=\frac{P l}{S E} .
$$

[^1]$E$ for steel is variable, but may be taken at $28,000,000$. There is no such thing as a perfectly elastic material. If there were, the amount that a given length of the material would be stretched by varying pulls would be proportional to the pulls, and supposing the piece to be of unit cross section, as one square inch, the pull that would stretch it by its own length is known as $E$, the modulus of elasticity. For any other than a unit cross section the stretch for a given pull will be inversely proportional to the cross-sectional area. Hence the formula. The lengthening effect of a given pull on a tape would be as in the formula. In the case of a chain, the effect would be somewhat greater, owing to the elongation of the rings.
20. Elimination of sag and pull. To find the pull that will just balance the effect of sag, equate the values of $x$ and $y$ and solve for $P$. Since the units are inches in the $y$ formula, they must be inches in the $x$ formula, and $l$ must be the length of the tape in inches, and $w$ the weight of an inch of the tape. The solution gives
whence
\[

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{l}{24}\left(\frac{w l}{P}\right)^{2}=\frac{P l}{S E} \\
P=\sqrt[3]{\frac{w^{2} l^{2} S E}{24}}
\end{gathered}
$$
\]

A good practical way to determine this value is as follows: Mark on a smooth level floor a standard tape or chain length, with the tape supported its entire length, and with only enough pull to straighten it. Raise the tape, and supporting it only at the ends, measure with a spring balance the pull necessary to bring the ends over the marks on the floor. It will be best to have one end fastened in a firm hook in the wall for the test, and afterward to have both ends held by the chainmen, that they may see just the difficulties involved. The test should be made for the whole chain, the half chain, and the quarter chain. The only way in which this work can be done with extreme nicety is by employing mechanical means to pull the chain steadily, and a telescopic line of sight to transfer the floor marks upward to the tape ends. As in all work, except the measurement of base lines for geodetic surveys, or elaborate
triangulation surveys of cities, the chain or tape is to be held in the hands of the chainmen, it will be unnecessary, except for comparisons, to resort to the nicer methods. Experiments of the kind noted above will demonstrate that the whole chain should never be used unsupported, and that the tape is by far the most satisfactory measuring instrument. In rough work, where a precision of one in five hundred, or even one in five thousand, as a maximum limit, is sufficient, the chain may be used. In close work requiring a precision of one in five thousand and upward, the tape should invariably be used.
21. Alignment. Errors due to inaccuracy of alignment of the chain are usually not great. In ordinary work no great pains need be taken to align the chain within an inch or two, except where stakes are to be driven on the line. In close work, of course, the chain should be correctly aligned. ${ }^{1}$
22. Slope. In chaining on slopes, errors of judgment in making the chain horizontal are eliminated by the use of a level tube fastened to one end of the chain, which tube, if properly adjusted, will indicate when the chain is horizontal. This is rarely used with a chain, but frequently with a tape. Much can be done without such a level by having a third man stand on one side of the chain and compare the parallelism of the chain and the horizon, or the horizontal lines of some building. If there is no horizontal line visible, he can still judge better from the side as to the horizontality of the tape, than can the chainmen at the ends. It is almost always true that the lower end of the chain is not raised high enough, because a horizontal line on a hillside extending in the direction of the slope, always appears to dip into the hill. Hand levels (see Art. 52) carried by the chainmen are of great service in hilly country. The effect of neglecting the slope entirely, which is also the correction to be applied if the line has been measured on the slope instead of in horizontal lines, is given in Appendix, Table I., page 361.

[^2]It will be seen that the error caused by neglecting a slope of five in one hundred is about one in one thousand, while a slope of ten in one hundred, which is not unusual in hilly country, causes an error of one in two hundred. Fifty feet in one hundred is about the steepest slope met with in nature, aside from rock cliffs, and the error here is more than one in ten.

On a slope where close work is required, it is considered best to measure along the slope, keeping the tape or chain supported throughout its entire length, and making the necessary reductions when the line has been measured. The reduction can be made exactly by the use of a table of versed sines if the angle of slope is known. It may be approximately obtained from Table I., page 361, by interpolating for the small angles, or it may also be approximately obtained by the use of the following formula when the rise in a tape length or in the entire line, if it is of uniform slope, is known :

The square of the rise divided by twice the known side, be it base or hypotenuse, gives the difference between the base and hypotenuse.

Demonstration : Let $B$ be the base, $H$ the hypotenuse, and $R$ the rise; $C$ being the difference between $B$ and $H$. Then $B=H-C$ and $H=B+C$. Assuming $H$ known, there is written
whence

$$
H^{2}-(H-C)^{2}=R^{2}
$$

$$
C=\frac{R^{2}+C^{2}}{2 H}
$$

Neglecting $C^{2}$ as a very small quantity, there results

$$
C=\frac{R^{2}}{2 H}
$$

Similarly if $B$ is known, there may be written

$$
\begin{gathered}
(B+C)^{2}-B^{2}=R^{2} \\
C=\frac{R^{2}-C^{2}}{2 B}
\end{gathered}
$$

and as before, neglecting $C^{2}$, there results

$$
C=\frac{R^{2}}{2 B}
$$

Hence the rule already given
23. Precision to be obtained. In measuring lines the degree of precision obtainable should be known by the surveyor. The author suggests the degrees of precision mentioned below as those that should be attained ordinarily before the surveyor can say he is doing good work. The figures given do not refer to the absolute lengths of the lines, involving a knowledge of the absolute length of the chain or tape, but merely to the probable error of the mean of two measurements of the same line made with the same tape under different conditions. Not all conditions of work are covered; but only such as usually exist. The surveyor will be able to judge as to how closely the conditions under which he is working at any time correspond to those given.

In good, fairly level ground, good work will be represented by differences between two measurements of one in twenty-five hundred, and excellent work by differences of one in five thousand, assuming the work to be done with a chain. These differences give the probable error of the mean value as one in seventy-five hundred and one in fifteen thousand, and the probable error of a single determination rather better than $\frac{1}{5000}$ and $\frac{1}{10000}$. On hilly ground, rough and covered with brush, one in one thousand might be considered good and one in five hundred passable, where the land is not of great value. These differences give the probable errors of mean and single measurement as $\frac{1}{3000}$ to $\frac{1}{1500}$ and $\frac{1}{2000}$ to $\frac{1}{1000}$ respectively. It should be remembered that the value of the land measured, or the object of the survey, is a better basis for judgment as to passable work than the conditions under which the work is done.

In work in large cities the author thinks that a precision of one in fifty thousand should be obtained. That is, it is thought that the probable error of the mean of two measurements should not be greater than one in fifty thousand. This will require that the same line measured under totally different conditions as to weather should be recorded, after the necessary corrections for pull, grade, and temperature have been made, both times alike, within about one in seventeen thousand, or, in round numbers, three tenths of a foot in a mile.

When but two observations of a quantity have been taken,
the probable error of the mean is $\frac{1}{3} D$, where $D$ is the difference of values determined. The probable error of either of the observations is $0.47 D$ or, roughly, $\frac{1}{2} D$. (See any treatise on Least Squares.) This supposes that all cumulative errors and mistakes have been eliminated by correction and that only accidental errors remain.

The following are the requirements for securing a precision of one in five thousand and one in fifty thousand. For intermediate standards, the requirements will lie between those mentioned:

For a precision of one in five thousand, using a tape, no corrections for sag, grade, pull, or small changes of temperature need be made. The tape may be stretched by hand, the pull and horizontality being estimated by the tapemen. The plumb line will be used on uneven ground as in close chaining. The temperature of the air may be compared with that for which the tape is standard, and a corresponding correction deduced.

For a precision of one in fifty thousand, the temperature of the tape should be known within a degree or two Fahrenheit; the slope should be determined by measuring over stakes whose elevations have been determined by a level, or by measuring on ground whose slope is known. The pull should be known to the nearest pound, and hence should be measured with spring balances. If the tape is held on stakes, the sag correction must be considered. The work may be done in any ordinary weather, but is best done on cloudy days, so that the temperature of the tape may be more constant. In sunny weather the mercurial thermometers attached to the tape may indicate a very different temperature from that of the tape. If the absolute length of the tape is not known, of course the absolute length of the line is not determined.

## CHAPTER II.

## VERNIER AND LEVEL BUBBLE.

24. Before proceeding with a description of surveying instruments, it is necessary to describe two important attachments common to almost all such instruments. These are the vernier and the level bubble.

## VERNIER.

25. Vernier. 'This is a device for reading scales to a greater degree of precision than is possible with the finest convenient division of the scale. Thus a scale graduated to read tenths of an inch, may be read to hundredths of an inch by the aid of a vernier. This is done by making an auxiliary scale called a vernier, with divisions one one-hundredth of an inch smaller or larger than those of the main scale. If the divisions are larger than the main scale, the vernier is called a retrograde vernier ; and if the divisions are smaller, it is called a direct vernier. The reason for this distinction will appear hereafter. In Fig. $11 S$ is a scale divided into inches and tenths. $V$ is the vernier made by dividing a space equal to nine of the small divisions of the main scale into ten equal parts, thus making each division on the vernier one one-hundredth of an inch shorter than a division of the main scale. The first division line of the vernier falls one onehundredth of an inch toward zero from the first division line of the main scale. If then the first division line of the vernier is made to coincide with the first line of the main scale


Fig. 11.
the vernier will have been moved one one-hundredth of an inch. Similarly the second division of the vernier is two one-hundredths of an inch toward zero from the second line of the main scale, and hence if the vernier is moved along till the second line of the vernier coincides with the second division of the scale, the movement has been two one-hundredths of an inch, and so on. If the vernier is moved till the zero is opposite some other division of the scale than the zero division, the first line of the vernier will be one one-hundredth short of the line of the main scale next ahead of the zero of the vernier; the second line of the vernier will be two onehundredths short of the second line of the main scale, and so on. If the vernier is moved along a little further till, say, the fourth line of the vernier has been brought into coincidence with the fourth line of the main scale ahead, the vernier has been moved a further distance of four one-hundredths of an inch. Hence to tell how far the zero of the vernier has moved from the zero of the main scale, note the inches and tenths on the scale from zero to the zero of the vernier, and get the fractional tenth expressed in hundredths by looking along the vernier and finding the division that coincides with a division of the main scale. This vernier is called direct, because in reading it one looks forward along the vernier in the direction in which the vernier has moved.

Let it be required to read the length of the bar $B$. Place one end of it opposite the zero of the main scale and vernier. It will be noticed that the other end is opposite a point on the main scale between one and three tenths inches, and one and four tenths inches. Move the vernier till the zero is opposite this end of the bar. To read the length of the bar, read on the main scale one and three tenths inches and look along the vernier and find that the sixth division coincides with a division of the scale and that therefore the length of the bar is one and thirty-six one-hundredths inches. It will be observed that the divisions of the vernier are one tenth of one tenth of an inch smaller than the divisions of the scale. That is, the value of the smallest division on the main scale divided by the number of divisions of the vernier gives the smallest reading that may be had with the vernier. This is called the least count.

In the retrograde vernier a space equal to a given number of divisions of the main scale is divided into a number one less on the vernier. Thus for a vernier reading to hundredths of an inch with a scale graduated to tenths, eleven divisions of the scale will be divided on the vernier into ten spaces, making each division one tenth of one tenth of an inch longer than those of the scale. The vernier is therefore placed as shown in Fig. 12 , back of the zero of the scale instead of ahead of it, as in the direct vernier. "Back" and "ahead" are used with reference to the direction in which measurements are to be made. From the portion of the scale extended above the zero in the figure, it will be seen that the first line of the vernier is back of the first line of the scale by one one-hundredth of an inch, the second line by two one-hundredths, and so on. The principle of operation is the same as in the direct vernier, except that one must look backward along the vernier to find the coinciding line.

A vernier to read angles is generally used when the angles are to be read to the nearest minute or less. The principle of construction is the same as for linear verniers. A vernier to read minutes will usually occur with a circle graduated to read half degrees. If a space equal to twenty-nine of such divisions is divided on a veruier into thirty


Fig. 12. equal parts, each division of the vernier will be one thirtieth of thirty minutes, or one minute, less than a division of the main scale, and the instrument is said to read to minutes. If a circle is to be read to the nearest twenty seconds, it is usually divided into twenty minute spaces, and a vernier must then have sixty divisions, since

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{20^{\prime}}{n} & =\frac{1^{\prime}}{3} \\
n & =60 \text { divisions } .
\end{aligned}
$$

That is, fifty-nine parts of the scale must be divided on the vernier into sixty parts, making each part of the vernier one
sixtieth of twenty minutes, or one third of a minute, less than a division of the main scale. Figures 13,14 , and 15 show three double verni-


Fig. 13. ers. They are called double, because there are really two verniers in each figure, one on each side of the vernier zero. They are thus arranged so that angles may be read in either direction, the circle graduations being numbered both ways for the same purpose. The student should determine whether the first two are direct or retrograde, the least count of each, and their readings. The third is a peculiar


Fig. 14.
pattern found ordinarily only on compasses. It is a double vernier, direct as to division (though it is sometimes made retrograde), and the lower left-hand and upper right-hand portions form one vernier. It is used where there is lack of space to make the ordinary form. To read an angle measured to the right, read on the scale to the last division before reaching the zero of the vernier, follow to the right along the


Fig. 15. vernier, noting the lower line of figures for a coinciding line, and if noné is found, pass to the extreme left end of the vernier and look along toward the right, noting the upper line of figures till a coinciding line is found. Thus the reading of the vernier in the figure is $355^{\circ} 20^{\prime}$, or $4^{\circ} 40^{\prime}$.

## LEVEL BUBBLE.

26. Description. The spirit level consists of a glass tube almost filled with ether, the remaining space being filled with the vapor of ether. The bubble of vapor will always seek the highest point in the tube. If the tube were perfectly cylindrical, the bubble would occupy the entire length of the tube when the tube is horizontal, and the same thing would be true if the tube were but slightly inclined to the horizon, thus making it impossible to tell when the tube is in a truly horizontal position. The tube is, therefore, ground on the inside so that a longitudinal section will show a circular arc. A line tangent to this circle at its middle point, or a line parallel to this tangent, is called the axis of the bubble tube. This axis will be horizontal when the bubble is in the center of its tube. Should the axis be slightly inclined to the horizon, the bubble will move toward the higher end of the tube, and if the tube is ground to the arc of a circle, the movement of the bubble will be proportional to the angle made by the axis with the horizon. Therefore, if the tube is graduated into divisions, being a portion of the circumference of a very large circle (so large in fact that the are of a few seconds is quite an appreciable length), it will be possible to determine, within the limits of the tube, the angle that the axis may make at any time with the horizon, provided the angular value of one of the divisions of the tube is known. This is done by simply noting how many divisions the center of the bubble has moved from the center of the tube.

It will be evident that divisions of uniform length will cover ares of less angular value as the radius of the tube increases, and also that the bubble with a given bubble space will become more elongated as the radius is increased. Therefore the bubble is said to be sensitive in proportion to the radius of curvature of the tube, and this is also indicated by the length of the bubble. The length of the bubble, however, will change with change of temperature, becoming longer in cold weather and shorter in warm weather. In the best class of tubes there is a partition near one end, with a small hole in it at the bottom, so that the amount of liquid in the main tube may be regulated,
thus regulating the size of the bubble. This is necessary, because independently of the effect of long radius a longer bubble is more sensitive than a shorter one. A bubile should settle quickly, but should also move quickly and easily.
27. Determining the angular value of one division. There are several methods of determining the angular value of one division of the bubble tube, all essentially the same in principle.

The axis is moved through a small angle, and the movement of the bubble is recorded in divisions; then the angular value of one division is at once found by dividing the angle by the number of divisions through which the bubble has moved.


Fig. 16.
It is not easy to measure the small angle exactly but it is not very difficult if closely approximate results are sufficient.

In Fig. 16 is shown a level vial, as it is sometimes called, resting on a level trier. The construction of the level trier is perhaps sufficiently clear from the cut. It consists simply of a board resting on a knife edge at one end, and capable of being raised or lowered at the other by means of a screw so divided as to tell the angle of inclination of the board. The screw is called a micrometer screw, because it will measure a very small movement. Suppose the pitch of the micrometer screw is one sixtieth of an inch. Then the divisions on the vertical scale
attached to the movable board will be one sixtieth of an inch; so that a single revolution of the screw will move the scale past the edge of the screw head by one division. If the circumference of the disk head of the screw is divided into one hundred parts, and the screw is turned only so much as will cause one division on the disk to pass the scale, the board has been moved vertically through one one-hundredth of one sixtieth of an inch. If now the length of the bar from pivot to screw is known, the angular movement of the bar may be computed. Thus, if the length of the bar is eighteen inches, and the bar is raised so that one division of the scale passes the micrometer head, and so that in addition ten divisions of the micrometer head pass the scale, the linear elevation of the end of the bar is

$$
\frac{11}{10} \times \frac{1}{60} \text { inch }=0.018+\text { inch } .
$$

Since there are 206,265 seconds in an are equal in length to radius, there results the proportion, in which $x$ is the angle in seconds,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{x}{206265} & =\frac{0.018+}{18} \\
x & =206.265 \text { seconds. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Whence
If now a bubble tube were resting on the bar, and the run of the bubble were observed, for the above movement, to be ten divisions, the value of one division would be 20.6 seconds.

[^3]28. Principles. The proper adjustment of a bubble on an instrument so that one can determine when the instrument is level, depends on the following principles :
I. If a frame carryiny a bubble tube, and resting on two supports that lie in a level line, is reversed end for end on the supports, the bubble will occupy the same position in the tube for both positions of the frame.

In Fig. 17 it is seen that the axis of the tube makes the same angle with the horizon in both positions, and the same end is higher.

Conversely, if a frame to which a bubble tube is rigidly attached is reversed on two supports, and the bubble occupies the same position in its tube


Fig. 17. for both positions of the frame, the supports lie in a level line, or, as is usually said, are level. It should be noted in the above that the bubble is not necessarily in the center of the tube, but merely retains the same position in the tube for the direct and reversed positions of the frame.

If the axis of the tube in the foregoing cases is parallel to the line joining the supports, the bubble will lie in the center of the tube, and if not parallel, the deviation of the bubble from the center of the tube will be that due to the angle between the line of support and the axis of the tube. If in the latter case the bubble is brought to the center of the tube, the line of supports will make an angle with the horizon (be out of level) equal to that between the axis of the tube and the line of supports. If now the frame carrying the level is reversed, the movement of the bubble will be twice that due to the angle between the axis and the line of supports. ${ }^{1}$ If the tube is now raised at one end, or lowered at the other, till the bubble has moved halfway back to its former position, the axis of the tube is made parallel to the line of support. The line of support may now be made level by raising the lower, or low-

[^4]ering the higher, support till the bubble stands in the center of its tube.

If two levels are attached to a plate at right angles to each other and parallel to the plate, the plate will be level when both bubbles are centered. If the tubes are not parallel to the plate, it will be difficult to determine when the plate is level, as the position of each bubble for level plate must be determined by trial. If the tubes are so fastened to the plate as to permit of being adjusted, their parallelism may be tested and, if necessary, corrected by the method of this article.
II. If a frame carrying a level tube is revolved about a vertical axis, the bubble will maintain a constant position in its tube.

For the axis of the tube maintains a constant angle with the horizon.

Conversely, if a frame carrying a bubble tube is revolved about an axis, and the bubble remains in one position in the tube, the axis of revolution is vertical. If the constant position occupied by the bubble is the center of its tube, the tube is horizontal, and consequently perpendicular to the axis of revolution.

## CHAPTER III.

## MEASURING DIFFERENCES OF ALTITUDE, OR LEVELING.

29. General principle. It will be evident that if by any means a line of sight may be made to revolve about a vertical axis to which it is perpendicular, it will describe a horizontal plane. Omitting consideration of the curvature of the earth, a rod graduated from the bottom up, and held at any point on the ground, will be cut by this horizontal plane at a distance above the ground equal to the height of the line of sight above the ground at the point where the rod is held. The distance above the bottom of the rod, as indicated by the graduations on the rod, is called the reading of the rod. If the elevation of the line of sight above some assumed base or datum, as sea level, is known, the rod reading subtracted from that elevation will give the elevation of the point where the rod is held, referred to the same base. Conversely, if the elevation of the point where the rod is held is known, and it is required to find the elevation of the line of sight, it is done by adding the rod reading to the elevation of the point. While there are many details to be considered, such as the curvature of the earth, the adjustment of instruments, atmospheric conditions, etc., the above contains the essential principle of leveling.

## INSTRUMENTS.

30. General description of level. Any instrument used for the purpose of securing a horizontal line of sight may be called a leveling instrument; or, as is more usual, simply a level. There are three comparatively common forms of levels, shown in Figs. 18-20.


Fig. 18.


Fif. 19.


Fig. 20 is a precise level, or level of precision. Fig. 18 is known as a $Y$ level. Fig. 19 is a dumpy level. The most common of these is the $Y$ level, so called because the telescope rests in $Y$-shaped supports. The instrument consists essentially of a telescopic line of sight and an attached bubble tube, whose axis may, by adjustment, be made parallel to the line of sight, so that when the bubble is in the center of its tube it will be known that the line of sight is horizontal. These are combined with a leveling head which contains the vertical axis, and screws on to a tripod. A sectional view of a $Y$ level is shown in Fig. 21.

The dumpy level is so called because of its short telescope with large aperture.

The precise level is simply a modification of the $Y$ level, so improved as to make it capable of doing work to a greater degree of precision than can be obtained by the use of either the $Y$ or the dumpy level. The dumpy level is sufficiently precise for all work that does not require the precise level, and it is considerably cheaper than a $Y$ level of the same make. From the standpoint of the optician, the $Y$ level is the more perfect instrument, because of its many easy adjustments; but this very feature is to some extent an undesirable one from the standpoint of the engineer, who wants, for all ordinary work, an instrument with few parts to get out of adjustment. The dumpy level can not be so easily and exactly adjusted for collimation as the $Y$ level, but, as has been before stated, it is sufficiently precise for all work not requiring a precise level. It is used almost altogether by English engineers, having been invented by an Englishman named Gravatt, whence the level is frequently called the Gravatt level.
31. Telescope. ${ }^{1}$ The telescope of the level consists of a barrel in which slide two tubes. One of these tubes is the eyepiece tube carrying the eyepiece lenses $L L L L$, Fig. 21, and the other is the objective tube carrying the objective, or object glass $O$. The objective tube is moved in and out by means of a pinion, which works in a rack attached to the sliding tube. The tube is made to move in the axis of the barrel by having

[^5]it pass through the ring at $C$, which is accurately centered in the barrel. The eyepicee tube moves in and out of the barrel at the other end in a similar way, and is centered by the ring shown at $A A$. Instead of a rack and pinion movement, the
 eyepiece should be moved by turning it around a small screw extending through the barrel and into a helical slot in the eyepiece tube. This is a better plan than the rack and pinion arrangement, because the eyepiece is but seldom changed, and when once set should not be easily disturbed. Some instruments, however, have the rack and pinion movement, and it is preferred by some surveyors. In addition to these two tubes there is at $R$ a ring (shown separately in perspective in Fig. 22) which carries two fine wires, one vertical and one horizontal. These wires are either spider lines or fine platinum wires. The spider lines are more common. This ring is centered in the barrel by means of the screws at $B B$. There are four of these screws, called capstan-headed screws, arranged as seen at $W$ in Fig. 18. If the ring is to be moved to the right, the screw on the left is first loosened, and then the serew on the right is tightened, thus drawing the ring over to the right. Similarly for the vertical movement of the ring - if the ring is to be moved up, the lower screw is first loosened and the upper serew is then tightened, and vice versa. The
difference between this telescope and the ordinary or Galilean telescope, is in the introduction of these wires and a difference in eyepiece necessitated by them. In the ordinary telescope, such as is found in field glasses, there are no wires and it is impossible to say to what particular point in an object looked at the axis of the telescope is directed. Moreover, it is useless to put such wires in a field glass, since no image of the object looked at is formed in the tube of the telescope. With an angle-measuring instrument, or any instrument that must be pointed to a definite point, it is indispensable that the exact point to which the axis of the telescope is directed be known. It is perhaps inaccurate to say that the direction of the axis must be known, for any other fixed line in the telescope would do as well, provided the adjustments hereafter to be described could be made with that fixed line. It is more convenient to have the fixed line at least very close to the axis of the telescope, for reasons that will appear.

The imaginary line joining the optical center of the object glass and the intersection of the cross wires is known as the line of collimation, and this is the line that is directed to the precise spot toward which it is desired to point the telescope; or rather, in the level, it is the line that indicates the point towards which the telescope is directed.

The area seen at one time through the telescope, or rather the angle between the rays of light from the extreme edges of this area, measured at the instrument, is known as the field of view. This field of view is larger as the magnifying power of the telescope is smaller, and varies from about one and one half degrees to about fifty minutes. The former is for the commoner kinds of surveyor's transits, and the latter corresponds to a magnifying power of about thirty-five diameters, or about what is found in the better leveling instruments.

An image of an object within the field of view is formed at a point back of the object glass, and the glass is moved in or out till this image falls in the plane of the wires. This is called focusing the objective. The point in the image covered by the intersection of the wires is that toward which the telescope is directed.

It would be practically impossible to tell when the focusing
had been done, were it not for the eyepiece, which is nothing more nor less than a microscope with which to obtain a magnified view of the wires and the image formed by the objective. This is done by first focusing the microscope eyepiece till the wires are plainly seen. Then, any other objects in the same plane with the wires will be seen at the same time, and objects not in that plane can not be distinctly seen, and hence it may be determined when the image formed by the objective is in the plane of the wires, and also what point in the field of view is covered by the intersection of the wires.

The objective will need to be focused anew for each different object looked at, unless, as will rarely occur, all the objects viewed are at the same distance. The eyepiece, on the other hand, since it has to be focused for only one distance, need be changed only for different individuals; and hence, if only one person is to use the instrument for a long time, the eyepiece may be focused once, and not again disturbed during the time it is used by this person.

Telescopes should be corrected for spherical aberration and should be achromatic. ${ }^{1}$

The eyepiece shown in Fig. 21 has four lenses, and is commonly known as an erecting eyepiece. The image formed by


Fig. 23. the objective is inverted, and the eyepiece inverts the image so that the object appears right side up or erect. This eyepiece has been generally used in American surveying instruments because of a supposed difficulty in the use of one that shows the object inverted. Such an eyepiece, shown in Fig. 23, has two lenses less than the erecting eyepiece, and consequently absorbs less light and secures better definition of the object viewed. It is to be preferred for all surveying instruments, and is well-nigh indispensable for some kinds of work; for instance, for stadia measurements, to be hereafter described. The inconvenience

[^6]attending the use of a telescope that shows objects inverted is largely imaginary. A few hours with an inverting glass makes its use as natural as the use of an erecting glass. Dumpy levels and precise levels are almost always inverting instruments; while the $Y$ level, the most commonly used in this country, is almost always erecting. As has already been stated, there now seems to be little reason for the existence of the Y level.
32. Leveling Rods. There are three common patterns of leveling rods and an innumerable number of uncommon ones. The three common patterns are shown in Figs. 24, 25, and 26. Each of these is made in two pieces about seven or less feet long. The New York rod (Fig. 24) and the Philadelphia rod (Fig. 25) differ in that the Philadelphia rod is so graduated as to be easily read at ordinary distances by the leveler, while with the New York rod the target must be set and the reading taken and called out by the rodman. The target of the New York rod is provided with a direct vernier, usually placed below the center of the target. This causes some confusion to the beginner, who has been taught to read the scale at the zero of


Fig. 24.
 the vernier and the fractional reading by looking along the
vernier in the direction of motion for the coinciding line. There need be no confusion if the rodman remembers that it
 is the center of the target that is set by the leveler, and not the zero of the vernier. A little study of the vernier will show him that the main scale is read opposite the ten of the vernier and the fractional reading by noting the number of the vernier line coinciding with a division of the seale. This rod is graduated to hundredths of a foot, and the vernier permits readings to thousandths. When a reading greater than 6.5 feet is required, the target is clamped at 6.5 and the rod extended. There will be found on the side a second vernier, which, when the rod is closed, reads 6.5 feet and which gives the readings when the rod is extended. This vernier is of the usual construction.

The Philadelphia rod target has no vernier, but a tenth of a foot is divided into half-hundredths, permitting a direct reading of 0.005 foot and by estimation to 0.001 foot. The target is set at seven feet for greater readings than seven feet, and, if the rod is to be read by the leveler, it is extended to its full length, the
graduation then being continuous from bottom to top. If the target is to be set, the rod is extended until the target is in the line of sight; it is then clamped, and the rod is read by the rodman by means of a scale on the back.

The target of the Boston rod (Fig. 26) is fixed to the rod. Readings are all obtained by extending the rod. It is held with the target end down, for readings less than 5.5 feet, and is inverted for readings greater than this. It is read altogether by vernier, the scales and vernier being on the sides. It is read to 0.001 foot. It is the lightest, neatest rod of the three, and the least used. The Philadelphia rod, which is the heaviest of the three, is the most used because of the fact that it may be quickly read by the leveler. In the great majority of sights, readings are taken to 0.1 foot only; and, on turning points (hereafter described), it is usual to read to 0.01 foot only. Readings to 0.001 foot are required in but a very small percentage of work done with the level, even on turning points or bench marks. For this reason


Fig. 28. many engineers prefer a "self-reading" rod without target, and made in one piece. Such a rod, the standard of the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railroad, is shown in Fig. 27.

It will be noticed that the figures are so made as to mark the divisions into hundredths.

With a target rod, much better work may be done if the target is painted with diamond-shaped figures instead of with quadrants, as is customary. The target may be set more precisely if the wire has a sharp angle to bisect or sharp point to r'm'd SURV. -4
cover, than if it is to be made coincident with the edge of a dark surface. Professor Baker finds that at 300 feet the error of setting a quadrant target may be about 0.002 of a foot or more while that of setting a diamond-shaped target may be a little over 0.001 of a foot. Such a target is shown in Fig. 28.

## USE OF THE LEVEL.

33. Adjustment. The level has been said to be an instrument for securing a horizontal line of sight. It will be evident from the construction of the ordinary leveling instruments that this may be accomplished with those instruments if the line of collimation and bubble axis are made parallel; because, if this condition exists, and the bubble is brought to the center of the tube, the line of sight will be horizontal.

This introduces the idea of adjustment. and the adjustment of the level consists essentially in making the line of collimation and the bubble axis parallel. There are other adjustments for convenience, but this is the only necessary one. The general discussion of the adjustments will be deferred till the use of the adjusted level in doing simple leveling has been explained.
34. Setting up. To "set up" the level is to place it in position for leveling, including making the line of sight horizontal. The level is an instrument that is rarely set "on line," except in making certain adjustments. It is placed in that position that will command the greatest possible number of points whose elevations are to be determined. To set up, plant the legs firmly in the ground with the leveling plates approximately horizontal. Focus the eyepiece on the wires. Bring the telescope and attached level over one set of diagonally opposite leveling screws and, by the screws, bring the bubble to the center of its tube. Perform the same operation over the other set of screws. This will to some extent disturb the former work. Therefore turn the telescope again over the first set of screws and relevel ; again over the second set, etc., till the instrument is level over both sets. If the instrument is in adjustment, the line of sight will now be horizontal in whatever direction it is pointed.
35. Differential leveling. To determine the difference in elevation between two points, both of which are visible from a possible position of the level, set up the level in a position such that a rod held on either point will be visible. Turn the telescope toward one point and read a rod held there by a rodman. The rodman will then carry the rod to the other point, and the telescope will be directed toward that point and the rod read. The difference in readings will evidently be the difference of elevation required. Care must be taken to see that the bubble is in the center of its tube when each reading is taken.

If the elevation above some base surface of one of the points is known, the difference of elevation applied to the known elevation gives the elevation of the second point. This operation is capable of further analysis, thus : The rod reading on the point of known elevation, added to the known elevation, will give the elevation of the line of sight, and is therefore called a plus sight. The rod reading on the second point subtracted from the elevation of the line of sight will give the elevation of the second point. This reading is, therefore, called a minus sight. From these considerations the following definitions are formulated :

A plus sight, or reading, is any reading taken on a point of known or assumed elevation for the purpose of determining the elevation of the line of sight.

A minus sight, or reading, is any reading taken for the purpose of determining the elevation of the point on which the rod is read.

A very bad custom of calling plus sights, "backsights," and minus sights, "foresights," has prevailed in the past. It has been a source of confusion to the beginner and is illogical. It probably arose from the fact that the work in leveling is considered to proceed from the point of known elevation toward the point of unknown elevation, and that, therefore, plus sights are taken in a backward direction, and minus sights in a forward direction. This is not always true, as will appear later, and hence the nomenclature, "backsight" and "foresight" is ill-chosen. It is, moreover, true that when a minus sight is taken in what may be considered a backward
direction, the beginner becomes confused and applies the wrong sign. Hence the terms should be abandoned.

If consideration of curvature is neglected, the instrument should be set midway between the two points, in order to do correct work. It will be apparent that if this is done, the amount of the curvature of the earth, for half the distance between the two points will be added in the plus sight, and subtracted in the minus sight; that is, each reading will be too great by the curvature. The amount of this curvature is about 8 inches in one mile and varies with the square of the distance. The student may determine the effect on a rod reading when the rod is held 528 feet from the instrument and when held 279 feet away. Three hundred feet is about as great a distance as will permit a definite reading of the rod with the average level; though in work requiring no great exactness, much longer sights may be taken.

If the points whose difference in altitude is required are so located that rod readings can not be had on both from one position of the instrument, an intermediate point is chosen that may be used with the first one, and the readings are taken on the first and on the intermediate point. The difference in altitude between the first and intermediate point is thus obtained. The level is then moved to a position between the intermediate and final point, and their difference of altitude is determined. The two differences added or subtracted, as the case may be, will give the required difference. It may be necessary to introduce several intermediate points. The work is simply a succession of operations like those of the first case.

It is unnecessary to determine the differences of altitude of each set of intermediate points, as the difference between the sum of all the plus sights and the sum of all the minus sights will give the difference of altitude of the first and final point. The student should show this.

The intermediate points that are chosen should, if the work is to be well done, be firm, definite points, as the projecting part of a firm rock, the top of a peg firmly driven in the ground, etc.

When extensive differential leveling operations are to be carried on, requiring close work (as the careful determination
of the altitude of an observatory or other point involving the carrying of levels over many miles and the introduction of many intermediate "turning points"), it is well for the rodman to carry a "point" with him. A very convenient form is shown in Fig. 29. This is made of a triangular piece of boiler plate about three sixteenths of an inch to one quarter of an inch thick and about five or six inches on a side. The three corners are bent down to form, as it were, a threelegged stool, and a round-headed rivet is set in the center. A small hole is drilled in one side, in which to fasten a string or chain. When used, the points are firmly pressed into the ground with the foot, and the rod is held on the rivet. In


Fig. 29. some work, notably railroad leveling, this kind of point is not suitable, because it is well to leave every turning point so that it can be again found.

In leveling down or up a steep hill, the distance from the instrument to the rod, called the length of the sight, may be greater or less for minus sights than for plus sights. This may be avoided by zig-zagging. Distances on each side of the instrument are made nearly enough equal by pacing.

The form of notes that is kept in differential leveling is as simple as the work. There are three vertical columns, one for the name or number of the point observed, one for the plus sights, and one for the minus sights. The readings, both plus and minus, taken on any point, should appear in their proper columns opposite the number of that point.
36. Profile leveling. A profile of a line laid out on the ground is the bounding line of a vertical section that includes the line whose profile is desired. It shows the elevations and depressions along the line. Profile leveling differs from differential leveling in that the elevations of a number of points along the line whose profile is required are obtained from a single setting of the instrument. The principle is the same as that of differential leveling, but the method of keeping the notes and of doing the work is a little different.

The line whose profile is required is first marked out on the
 ground by stakes or other marks placed at such intervals as may be necessary. These intervals are usually regular, and in railroad surveys are generally one hundred feet. In city streets the interval may be fifty feet. In other surveys the interval may be less or more, according to the nature of the survey. The object is usually to reproduce to scale on paper, the profile desired. For this purpose profile paper is generally used, on which the notes are plotted, as will be described later.

Fig. 30 shows a map of a line whose profile is desired, which may be assumed to be the center line of a road. It also shows in exaggerated form, and to no scale, the position of the level along the road, both in plan and elevation.

The process of levling is as follows :

Some convenient point is chosen as a "bench mark," either
because its elevation above some accepted datum is known, or because it is a convenient permanent point whose elevation may be arbitrarily assumed. A bench mark in leveling is a permanent point of known or assumed elevation from which leveling operations may proceed. In the example given, the B. M. is the corner of the water table of a building, and its elevation is assumed to be 1000.000 feet above some arbitrary datum surface. The elevation of the B. M. should be so assumed as to avoid any minus elevations; that is, the datum surface should

| Levels alon | $\begin{aligned} & \text { a Graf } \\ & \text { to Cro } \end{aligned}$ | ton Road opseyville | Quacke | eneill | Leveler . . . . . . . Touceda. <br> Rod. . . . . . . . . . Higging. <br> March 24, 1895. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sta. | +S. | II. I. | -s. | Elev. |  |
| B. M. No. 1. | 0.462 | 1000.462 |  | 1000.000 | On the top of the water table at the |
| 0 |  |  | 0.6 | 999.8 | S.E. cor. of the brick store of P. Gosling. |
| 1 |  |  | 2.2 | 98.3 | Elev. assumed. |
| 2 |  |  | 4.3 | 96.2 |  |
| $+50$ |  |  | 5.5 | 95.0 |  |
| 3 |  |  | 5.2 | 95.3 |  |
| 4 |  |  | 4.5 | 96.0 |  |
| $+60$ |  |  | 3.8 | 96.7 |  |
| 5 |  |  | 4.3 | 96.2 |  |
| 6 |  |  | 6.0 | 94.5 |  |
| 7 |  |  | 7.2 | 93.3 |  |
| T. P. | 3.602 | 994.041 | 10.023 | 9:0.439 | On stone marked + , ten feet right of |
| 8 |  |  | 4.0 | 990.0 | Sta., $7+80$. |
| 9 |  |  | 5.3 | 88.7 |  |
| 10 |  |  | 7.0 | 87.0 |  |
| $+20$ |  |  | 7.2 | 86.8 |  |
| 11 |  |  | 6.6 | 87.4 |  |
| 12 |  |  | 6.2 | 87.8 |  |
| 13 |  |  | 6.0 | 88.0 |  |
| 14 |  |  | 5.8 | 88.2 |  |
| 15 |  |  | 5.2 | 88.8 |  |
| 16 |  |  | 5.7 | 88.3 |  |

Fig. 31.
be assumed so far below the B. M. that it will be below any point reached in the leveling.

Having selected the 13. M., write in the notebook, Fig. 31, under the column marked "Elev.," the elevation assumed, and in the column of stations mark the name of the station whose
elevation is given, in this case B. M. No. 1. On the right-hand page write a description of the B. M. so clear and full that another, coming to the place long after, may determine with certainty the exact spot used.

Set up the level at a point convenient to the B. M. and to as much of the line as possible, remembering that it is better to make sights to turning points approximately equal. Having the level set up, read the rod held on the B. M., and record the reading, in the column marked " +S .," and add it to the elevation of the B. M. to get the height of the line of collimation, which record in the column headed "H. I." (height of instrument). The rod is now held on station 0 , and is read, and the reading is recorded in the column of minus sights, opposite station 0 . It should be noted that it is usually the elevation of the ground that is wanted, and not that of the top of the stake that marks the station. Therefore, the rod is held on the ground, and not on the stake. The rod is usually read at station points only to the nearest tenth, as it would be folly to try to determine the elevation of rough ground to hundredths. Points used as B. M.'s are usually read to hundredths or thousandths. Hundredths are generally close enough.

The rod is now carried to station 1 and read, and the reading is recorded in the column headed "-S.," opposite station 1. The leveler, if he is quick, may make the subtraction of the minus sight on one station while the rodman is passing to the next station, and he should practice doing this. He may check his work at noon or night, or at any other time when the survey is, for any reason, temporarily stopped. The rod is now read on station 2, and recorded as before. Between station 2 and station 3 there is a decided change in slope, and the rod is held at the point of change, the rodman either measuring the distance from station 2 to the point or estimating it by pacing, according to the importance of exactness in the particular survey. He calls out the "plus" as (in this case) "plus fifty," and the leveler records the distance as shown in the notes, and then reads the rod and records the reading opposite the recorded distance in the -S . column.

It will be noticed that a number of minus sights have been taken with the instrument pointing backward with reference
to the direction of progress. It is these sights that are sometimes confused with "backsights" when the terms "backsight" and "foresight" are used.

Thus the work proceeds till the rod is about as far beyond the instrument as it was in the beginning back of it. Not more than three hundred to five hundred feet on either side of the instrument should be used, if fairly good work is to be done. A point is then selected that is tolerably permanent, as a solid stone or a peg driven into the ground. This point need not be on the line that is being leveled, and, indeed, should not be there, if the line is the center of a traveled road.

The rod is held on the peg, which is called a turning point, or simply "peg," and is read to the same unit as on the B. M., and the reading is recorded in the column of -S., opposite the station T. P. The elevation is then worked out at once, and the level is carried beyond the peg a convenient distance and again set up. A reading is then taken on the rod held on the peg, is recorded in the column + S., and is added to the elevation of the peg to get a new height of instrument, which is noted in the proper column opposite the station from which it

- was determined. A description of the peg is written on the right-hand page, so that it may be again found, if wanted within a reasonable length of time. The work then proceeds as before. After an interval of, say, half a mile or a mile, a permanent B. M. is established. It may be used as a turning point, or merely determined as is any station, except that the reading will be taken to the unit used for B. M.'s. All points that are likely to be wanted again should be very fully described. Sketches are valuable helps to words in making descriptions.

There are many hints that could be given to facilitate the work of leveling; but they would occupy too much space, and the beginner will have to learn details from experience. One point may be mentioned : Never clamp the spindle. It is unnecessary to do this except in adjusting.

Other forms of notes are sometimes used by engineers. Some of them have station numbers and elevation in adjacent columns; others have a separate column for minus sights on turning points, and others a separate column for elevations of turning points, etc.
37. Making the profile. The profile is made by plotting to scale the elevations of the points, at the proper horizontal distance apart, and connecting the plotted points by a line. Profile paper is generally used for this purpose. One form of ruling for such paper, known as Plate A, is shown in Fig. 32. There are three common forms, known as Plate A, Plate B, and Plate C. Plate A has four horizontal divisions and twenty vertical divisions to an inch. Plate B has four by thirty divisions per inch; and Plate C five by twenty-five divisions. Profile paper comes in rolls twenty inches wide, or in sheets.

If profile paper is used, a convenient elevation is assumed for the bottom horizontal line, and a value is assigned to the space between successive lines. For railroad profiles it is usual to assume one foot as the value of the smallest interval ; the paper is so ruled that the five-feet and twenty-fivefeet, or fifty-feet lines are accentuated. A smaller value may be assumed for the smallest interval when it is necessary to work to a large scale and to show minute irregularities. It is usual, also, in railroad work to assume the value of the interval between successive vertical lines to be one hundred feet or "one station." Each tenth station is then accentuated by the ruling. This scale may also be increased, if necessary. The scales, both horizontal and vertical, having been assumed, it is only necessary to find the position, horizontally and vertically, that will correctly represent any point whose elevation and distance or station from the beginning are known, and to make a small dot at that place. So with the other points. These dots may then be connected with a smooth line without angles. It may be necessary, occasionally, to make angles, as at the bottom of a steep-sided, narrow ravine; but ordinarily such angles do not occur in nature.

The following method of making the profile, assuming the scale as small as described for railroad work, is rapid. The elevation of the first station is called, and a point is made on the paper; the elevation of the second station is called, the pencil is put down on the paper in the proper place, and a line is drawn back to the first point without making a decided dot at the second station. The line is drawn freehand. The work then proceeds in this way. It seems unnecessary to say that
turning points are not plotted, unless they happen to be critical points on line at the ground level - a rare occurrence. The notes in Fig. 31 are shown plotted in Fig. 32.

If profile paper is not used, a base line of assumed elevation is drawn on a piece of paper, the horizontal distances to the points whose elevations have been determined are laid out to scale, and perpendiculars are erected on which are laid off, to vertical scale, the elevations of the points above that assumed for the base line. The points thus formed are connected by a line.


Fig. 32.

A convenient scale for city streets is:
Horizontal, 1 inch to 100 feet.
Vertical, 1 inch to 10 feet.
Where such a scale is used, it will generally be better to connect the points found by ruled lines.

The vertical scale is usually exaggerated, except in profiles made for detail plans of buildings or other works. This
is necessary to make the irregularities appeal properly to the eye, since the vertical distances are so small, compared with the horizontal ones, that when a long horizontal distance is laid out to small scale, what would be considered appreciable variations in altitude on the ground, will, if drawn to the same scale as the horizontal distances, appear insignificant on the drawing.
38. Leveling over an area. Sometimes it is required to determine the elevations of a number of points in a comparatively small area, as when a city block is to be graded and the quantity of earth to be removed or supplied is required. In this case, it is customary to divide the block into rectangles or squares, of, say, twenty feet on a side. The elevations of all the corners of these squares or rectangles are determined, and after the grading is done, the same squares are reproduced from reference stakes, previously set outside the work, and the elevations of the corners are again determined. The difference of elevation at any corner, before and after grading, shows the depth of material that has been cut away or filled in. Thus there will be a number of truncated prisms, the lengths of whose edges and the area of whose right sections are known, and hence the volume may be computed.

In such a case as this, after determining the elevation of the line of collimation, readings are taken to as many corners as may be seen before the instrument is moved. The work is precisely the same as profile leveling, except that consecutive readings are not necessarily along any one line.
39. Errors. In engineering work the level is more used than any other surveying instrument, and to describe the details of its use in the various surveys in which it finds a place would be beyond our purpose. These properly belong to a description of the methods of laying out and executing such engineering works. Some hints as to errors arising through carelessness will be given. A discussion of minute errors involved is necessary only in a treatment of precise leveling.

To avoid errors of adjustment, the effect of the earth's curvature and refraction, see that plus and minus sights are of
equal length. See that the turning points are firm so that there may be no settlement between sights. They should also be such that the rod may be sure to rest on the same point each time.

The bubble should be in the middle of the tube when the reading is taken; therefore, observe just before and after the


Fig. 33.
reading to see that the bubble has not moved. On unstable ground, throwing the weight of the body from one foot to the other may throw the bubble out. Fine work can not be done on soft ground. A mirror similar to that on the precise level may be attached to a dumpy or Y level, so that the bubble may be observed as the reading is taken. Unequal heating of different parts of the bubble tube will cause the bubble to move toward the warmer part. This may be shown by resting the finger lightly on the tube, to one side of the bubble.

Ordinary work must be done in all kinds of weather, and no great precaution can be taken to avoid the effect of the sun on the instrument.

The rod should be held vertical. To accomplish this on nice work a "rod level" is used. Fig. 33 shows one form of such a level. It is held against one corner of the rod. Waving the rod back and forth, from and toward the instrument, is recommended in the absence of the rod level. When this is done, the lowest reading observed is used. This serves very well when the reading is several feet; but if it is near the bottom of the rod, and the rod is resting on the middle of its base, a considerable error may be introduced. ${ }^{1}$ If the rod is rested only on its front edge, the method is correct.

The resultant error in leveling a long line will be proportional to some function of the distance or the number of set-

[^7]tings of the instrument, or both. It is common to say it is proportional to the square root of the distance. With readings taken carefully to thousandths of a foot, excellent work with ordinary levels would be indicated by a difference of 0.01 foot to twenty-four settings of the instrument ; that is, if a line of levels is run for twelve settings of average length, and rerun in the opposite direction, the difference in elevation of the starting point, as assumed at the start and as found at the finish, should not be greater than 0.01 foot. If it is as much as 0.04 foot, the work, if errors of this amount are important, should be rerun. The object of the leveling is a better guide to a decision as to what is good work than any arbitrary limit.

The author's students ran a line of levels from San José, California, to Mount Hamilton, a distance of twenty-seven miles, and were required to repeat the work if the error of any day's run proved to be more than 0.01 foot for twelve settings of the instrument in advance. The difference in altitude was about 4200 feet ; and at one or two places along the line, differences of as much as 0.1 foot were observed, while the difference between the elevation of the mountain, as determined by the advance work and that determined by the backward work, was 0.023 foot. This indicates the compensating character of the errors of observation. The compensation was probably partly due to the fact that the different stretches were run by different men, since it seemed that one man had a tendency to make errors in one direction and another to make them in the opposite direction. The work was done by running a half day ahead, and then rerunning the same stretch backward.
40. Curvature and refraction. The effect of curvature and refraction is shown as follows: In the exaggerated figure let $A$ be a point in the line of sight of a


Fig. 34. level telescope. Let $F D$ be a normal to the earth's surface, at some distance $K$, - approximately equal to $A B$, $G F$, or $A D$, - from the instrument. The level line through $A$ cuts the normal at $B$, while the horizontal line of sight cuts it at $D . D B$ is
then the correction for curvature for the distance $K$. Radius $C A$ being taken equal to $G C$, we have by geometry and a small approximation that the student may discover,

$$
D B=\frac{K^{2}}{2 R}
$$

The effect of curvature is to make the rod read high and hence to make the point $\boldsymbol{F}$ seem low.

Refraction has the opposite effect, that is, the point $E$ is seen in the line $A D$. The ray of light from any distant object is bent to a curve that is irregular because of the irregularities in the atmosphere, but which is almost always concave toward the earth's surface, and which is considered for average conditions to be the arc of a circle of diameter about seven times that of the earth. Therefore the effect of refraction is to reduce the correction for curvature by about one seventh.

It is not likely that this value is even closely approximate so near the ground as leveling work is done. The combined effect of curvature and refraction is about 0.001 foot in 220 feet, and varies as the square of the distance.
41. Reciprocal leveling. So long as plus and minus sights are at equal distances, no error arises in the work because of curvature and refraction or lack of adjustment of the instrument. It not infrequently happens that sights must be made of unequal lengths, as in crossing a wide river. The following method avoids the errors of curvature, refraction, and adjustment. Establish a peg near each end of the long sight. From a point near one peg read a rod on both pegs. Move the instrument near the other peg and again read on both. The mean of the two differences of elevation obtained will be the correct difference. ${ }^{1}$

## ADJUSTMENTS OF THE LEVEL.

42. Focusing the eyepiece. The first adjustment (so called) in any instrument having a telescopic line of sight is the careful focusing of the eyepiece on the wires. If this is not done, there will appear to be a movement of the wire over the image

[^8]as the eye is moved a little up or down or to the right or left. This is due to the fact that the wire and image are not in the same plane. The eyepiece is best set by turning the telescope toward the sky and moving the eyepiece till the wires appear sharp and black.
43. Adjustments named. In addition to this focusing of the eyepiece, which can hardly be called an adjustment, the adjustments of the level that the surveyor is usually called upon to make are three in number:
(1) The collimation adjustment, which consists in making the line of collimation parallel to the axis of the telescope tube.
(2) The bubble adjustment, which consists in making the bubble axis parallel to the line of collimation.
(3) The $Y$ adjustment, which consists in making the axis of the $Y$ supports that carry the telescope and attached bubble, at right angles to the vertical axis of the instrument, so that the level when leveled in one position may be turned on the spindle $180^{\circ}$ and still be level.

The first two are essential to correct work. The third is merely for convenience.
44. Collimation adjustment. To make the first adjustment, set up the instrument and note whether the vertical wire will coincide with some vertical line, as a plumb line or the edge of a building. If not, loosen all four adjusting screws that hold the wire ring, and turn the ring till the condition described is fulfilled. Set the screws and unfasten the clips that hold the telescope in the Y 's, and, by means of the leveling screws and the horizontal motion of the instrument about its vertical axis, bring the intersection of the wires to cover a minute distant point. Clamp the horizontal motion and make the coincidence of the wires and point more perfect by the slow-motion screw. Carefully turn the telescope over in the $Y$ 's, not end for end, and note whether the intersection of the wires still covers the point. If not, move the ring that carries the wires, by the capstan-headed screws, until the error seems to be one half corrected. This is done by correcting first one wire, then the other. Reset the wires on the point, by the leveling screws
and the slow-motion screw, and carefully turn the telescope in the Y 's to its former position. If the intersection of the wires now remains on the point, the adjustment is correct for the distance at which the point is, and this is all that is usually given for this adjustment.

## 45. Adjustment of objective slide.

 It is also correct for all distances if the object slide is in adjustment; that is, if its ring is so centered that the optical axis of the objective moves in the axis of the telescope tube. To determine whether this is so, test for the collimation error as just described, but on a very near point. If there appears to be an error, it must be corrected by adjusting the object slide. To do this, remove the ring that covers the screws controlling the slide ring, and adjust with these screws so that one half the error appears to be corrected. Test to see whether the adjustment is correct, and again test on the distant point, and, if necessary, adjust the wire, and repeat till the adjustments are both correct. The correctness of this method is shown by Fig. 35. The figure is much distorted.Let $o$ be the optical center of the objective. It is assumed that the maker has so placed it in its ring that it is practically in the axis of the telescope when drawn clear back as shown. This is probably not exactly
 true, but the error is less than can be determined by the surveyor. Let $D$ be the ring that carries

[^9]the object slide. It is adjusted by the screws $S S$. It is shown much out of the center of the tube. Let $w_{1}$ be a wire supposed not to be in the center of its tube, that is, out of adjustment. The outer end of the objective tube slides in the fixed ring $G$. If the instrument is perfectly made, it is evident that, if the objective could be brought to the plane of this ring $G$, the optical center would be in the axis of the telescope tube. When the glass is focused on a very distant object, the objective approximates to the plane of the ring, and hence the optical center is nearly in the axis of the tube, but not necessarily exactly so. In the case presented, it could not be just in the axis.

If the telescope is directed to a distant object, as a rod . $R$, the point $a$ of the rod, that will appear to be covered by the intersection of the wires, will be found in the line joining the intersection of the wires with the optical center of the objective. If the telescope is turned upside down, the wire will move to $w_{2}$, and the point that will seem to be covered will be the point $b$, found as was $a$. If now the optical center is in the axis of the telescope, and the wire is moved to the position $w$ in the prolongation of the line joining the point midway between $a$ and $b$ and the optical center, it will be in the center of the tube and in adjustment. If the optical center is not exactly in the center of the tube, the position of the wire when moved to read halfway between $a$ and $b$ will not be the center of the tube but will be very near it, depending on the error of the objective. It will be off center about the same amount that the optical center is off. Let it be assumed that the optical center is right, and that therefore the wire is now right. Make the telescope again normal.

Let the glass be focused on a near object, as a rod at $R_{1}$. Let it be supposed that in throwing the glass out for this purpose $o$ moves to $o_{1}$. The reading on the rod will be $c$, obtained by producing the line $w o_{1}$. Invert the telescope, and the reading will be $d$. If the ring $D$ is now moved, the object slide will swing about $G G$ as a pivot, and $o_{2}$ will be moved toward $o_{1}$. It is evident that, if this movement is enough to make the wire read halfway between $c$ and $d$, the objective is centered. If it was right for the distant rod, it may now be assumed to be right for all intermediate distances, since it is
supposed that the maker has made the tube true in form. If this is doubted, it may be tested in the same manner for any distance. Since the objective was not exactly centered for the distant rod, the wire was not exactly adjusted, and hence if the test is not made again on the distant rod, a slight error will be discovered which is to be corrected by moving the wire, and the test must again be made on the near rod, which will also probably show some error of objective which must be corrected. By continual approximations the work is completed.

Because the wire is not quite centered the first time, the work may be hastened by adjusting the slide for about or quite the whole. error instead of half the error. Each wire is adjusted separately, and the objective slide first in one direction and then in the other at right angles thereto. It is well to note that this adjustment of the objective is seldom made because it is seldom necessary. It may be considered to be necessary only when the instrument has been taken apart or has had extraordinarily severe usage. When it is not necessary, the adjustment of the line of collimation is a very simple matter. In some makes of instruments the object slide is permanently adjusted, and hence no provision is made for its adjustment by the engineer.
46. Bubble adjustment. The second adjustment is made in either of two ways. The first depends on the equality of diameter of the rings of the telescope tube that rests in the $Y$ 's. Since by the first adjustment the line of collimation has been made to coincide with the axis of the tube, it is parallel to the axis of the $Y$ 's, if the rings mentioned are equal in diameter. If now the attached bubble tube is made parallel to the axis of the $Y$ 's, it will be parallel to the line of collimation. To test it, set up the instrument, and, having leveled over both sets of screws, unfasten the clips and level more carefully over one set. Remove the telescope very carefully from the $Y$ 's and turn it end for end and replace. If the bubble returns to the center of its tube, the tube is parallel to the axis of the $Y$ 's. If it does not, bring it halfway to the center by the adjusting screws at the end of the bubble tube. The adjustment is now complete if the instrument has not been moved in making it.

Test it by releveling and turning end for end in the $Y$ 's, as before. ${ }^{1}$
47. The "peg" method. This method is considered better by almost all engineers, and is as follows: Set the instrument in a fairly level plot of ground midway between two stakes that have been driven firmly into the ground, from two hundred to four hundred feet apart. Read a rod on each stake. (Remember to have the bubble always in the center of its tube when a reading is taken.) Since the rods are at equal distances from the instrument, errors of reading due to errors of adjustment will disappear in subtracting, and hence the difference in readings will give the true difference in elevation of the two stakes. The instrument is now removed to a point in line with the two stakes, but beyond one of them. Some engineers take the instrument beyond one stake a distance equal to one tenth of the distance between the stakes. Others set the instrument at one of the stakes so that the eye end of the instrument in swinging around will just clear a rod held on the stake. The procedure, adopting the first method, will be explained, and the student may work out the process for the second method. It will be supposed that the instrument has been set up beyond one stake a distance equal to one tenth of that between the stakes, and with one diagonally opposite pair of leveling screws in line with the stakes. Any other proportion would do as well.

After leveling, with the telescope pointing in the line of the stakes, a reading is taken on the near stake. If there were no curvature of the earth, the difference in level of the two stakes applied to the reading on the first would give the reading that should be obtained on the second, provided the line of collimation is horizontal, that is, parallel to the axis of the bubble tube. Since there is the earth's curvature to consider, even if the instrument is in adjustment, the rod at the distant stake will read more than above noted, by the amount of the earth's curvature, less the effect of refraction. ${ }^{2}$ Therefore, to obtain the proper reading for the distant rod there must be added

[^10]to the reading on the near rod, the difference of elevation plus the correction for curvature for the given distance.

The target is then set at this reading and the rod is held on the distant stake. If the level, when sighted to the rod, reads above the target, the line of collimation is not parallel to the bubble tube, but points up. If it reads below the target, it points down. The amount of error in reading is the amount that the line of collimation points up or down in the distance between the stakes. In the distance from the level to the distant stake, it points up or down eleven tenths of this apparent error. The proportion will vary with the varying proportions of the distances from stake to stake and stake to instrument. Hence to get a horizontal line from the instrument to the far rod, set the target in the line of collimation and then raise or lower it, as the case may be, by an amount equal to eleven tenths of the apparent error, and point the telescope to it by manipulating the leveling screws.

The line of collimation now being horizontal, the bubble tube will be parallel to it if the tube is adjusted with reference to the telescope so that the bubble comes to the center. This is done, as explained in the first method, by the screws at one end of the tube. The test should be again made to see that no movement has taken place during the operation. It is sometimes stated that the adjustment may be made by moving the bubble or the wire. This is not correct, as will be evident from the preceding discussion of collimation adjustment. If the objective is permanently adjusted by the maker, the second adjustment by reversing in the $Y$ 's may be made first, and the peg method may follow, adjusting the wire.
48. Lateral adjustment. In many old levels, the telescope is free to turn in the Y's. If this is the case, and the axis of the bubble tube is not in the vertical plane through the line of collimation, and the telescope tube becomes turned a little, the line of collimation will not be horizontal when the bubble is in the center of its tube. To test this, level the instrument and turn the telescope slightly in the $Y$ 's. If the bubble remains in the center of its tube, the adjustment is perfect, and nothing need be done. If not, adjust the tube laterally by the
lateral adjusting screws at one end of the tube. Most levels have a little pin in one of the clips that fits in a notch cut in a ring on the telescope and prevents the telescope from turning in the Y's. Nevertheless, it is well to know that the adjustment is not much out.
49. Y Adjustment. The third adjustment depends on Principle II. stated in Art. 28. It is performed as follows: The test consists in carefully leveling the instrument over both sets of screws and more carefully over one set, and thę swinging the telescope around $180^{\circ}$ on the vertical axis and noting whether the bubble remains in the center of the tube. If not, the axis of the instrument is not vertical, and the axis of the $Y$ 's is not perpendicular to it. To correct the error, that is, to make the axis of the Y's perpendicular to the vertical axis of the instrument, move one of the Y's up or down (as may appear necessary by the position assumed by the bubble) by manipulating the large capstan nuts that hold the Y to the bar, till the bubble has moved halfway back to the center of its tube. The axis of the $Y$ 's is then perpendicular to the vertical axis of the instrument, provided no movement has taken place. To test, relevel and reverse the telescope and make any further correction necessary, and test again until the work is complete.

In making any of the adjustments it is practically impossible to manipulate the adjusting screws without to some extent disturbing the instrument. Therefore, an adjustment is rarely made perfectly the first time, and must always be tested and repeated till complete. If an instrument is badly out of adjustment, it will be advisable first to adjust it approximately all round, and then readjust more carefully.
50. To adjust the dumpy level. Reference to the cut of the dumpy level will show that the axis of the telescope is made by the maker perpendicular to the vertical axis of revolution. It is not supposed that this condition will change. It will also be noticed in the cut that there are no adjusting screws for the object slide. It is permanently adjusted. This is true of all the engineering instruments made by the maker of this level. Therefore, since the axis of the telescope is
perpendicular to the axis of revolution and the optical axis of the objective is permanently adjusted, if the axis of the bubble tube is made perpendicular to the axis of revolution, and the line of collimation is made parallel to the bubble axis, the instrument will be correctly adjusted. In this instrument, then, the order of adjustment is reversed.

First, the bubble tube is adjusted to be perpendicular to the axis of revolution. The test for this condition is made as in the test for the $Y$ adjustment of the $Y$ level. If adjustment is needed, it is made with the screws at the end of the bubble tube. One half the apparent error is corrected.

Second, the line of collimation is made parallel to the axis of the bubble tube. The test for this condition is made by the "peg" method, as already described. The adjustment is made by moving the wires instead of the bubble.

The dumpy level, and in fact all levels, should be so made that the vertical wire is


Fig. 36. not adjustable. A form of ring meeting this requirement is shown in Fig. 36, taken from a valuable English work on Engineers' Surveying Instruments. ${ }^{1}$
51. To adjust any level on a metal base. To adjust in this way, say, a carpenter's level, or a striding level for engineering instruments, place the level on a plane surface and mark its position, and note the position of the bubble in its tube. Reverse the level, end for end, and place it in the same position on the plane surface. If the bubble is as far from the center in the reversed position as it was in the first, the axis is parallel to its base, which means that it is in adjustment. If not, correct one half the difference in readings by whatever screws may be provided for the adjustment of the bubble. If convenient, the bubble may be brought to the center in the first position by tilting the plane surface; then when the level is reversed, the movement of the bubble from the center will correspond to twice the error of adjustment, which may then be corrected.

[^11]
## MINOR INSTRUMENTS.

52. Locke hand level. This is a small instrument for quick approximations where no great degree of precision is required. It is shown in Fig. 37.

It consists of a small bubble mounted on a brass tube over a hole in the tube, beneath which, and within the tube, is a prism occupying one half of the tube. Across the hole is stretched a wire.


Fig. 37.

There is usually an eyepiece of low magnifying power. The eye, in looking through the tube, will see the wire and the bubble reflected by the prism ; and when, if the instrument is in adjustment, the bubble appears to be bisected by the wire, the line of vision past the wire is horizontal. In use, the leveler and hand level constitute the leveling instrument, and between plus and minus readings the observer must remain stationary. There are other forms of the Locke level than that shown in the figure. The principle is the same in all.
53. Abney level and clinometer. This is a combination of a hand level and a slope-measuring instrument. Such an instrument is shown in Fig. 38.


Fig. 38.
It is essentially a hand level, in which the bubble is attached to an arm that carries a vernier, and may be moved over a small are. To determine a slope or vertical angle,
bring the line of sight to the slope, and turn the vernier arm till the bubble is seen on the wire. The bubble axis will then be horizontal, and the angle between it and the line of collimation will be indicated by the vernier reading.
54. Gurley's monocular and binocular hand levels. These are telescopic hand levels by which readings are more defiuitely determined on a rod at some distance than is possible

with the ordinary hand level which is not a telescope. The Gurley levels are shown in Fig. 39. The author thinks the monocular hand level the best yet devised.
55. Adjustment of the Locke and Abney levels. For the - Locke level, get by some means a horizontal line, as a sheet of water of limited extent; if the latter is not at hand use a leveling instrument, or indeed the hand level itself, held midway between two rods or trees some distance apart. Having obtained the horizontal line, stand with the hand level at one end of it, and, with the eye and wire in the horizontal line, note whether the bubble appears to be on the wire. If it does not, adjust by moving the frame carrying the wire by means of the little screws at the end of the bubble mounting.

To adjust the Abney level and clinometer, set the vernier to read zero, and test as for the hand level; adjust the bubble by screws provided for that purpose, or adjust the wire by a slide arrangement provided in some instruments.

## LEVELING WITH THE BAROMETER.

56. Barometer described. Very rough leveling work is sometimes done with the aneroid barometer. The barometer is an instrument for measuring the pressure of the atmosphere. The only reliable form is the mercurial barometer. This is not a convenient portable in-


Fig. 40. strument. The aneroid barometer is an attempt at portableness. It is made in various forms, the more common of which is shown in Fig. 40.

It consists essentially of a metallic box, with a thin corrugated top, from which the air is exhausted. With the varying pressure of the atmosphere, the top of the box rises and falls. Its motion is communicated by levers and chains to a pointer moving around a dial, graduated by comparing the movement of the pointer with that of a mercurial barometer. Hence the "inches" on the dial are not true inches nor of uniform length.
57. Theory. The use of the barometer to determine differences of altitude depends on the supposition that the atmosphere is composed of a series of layers of air of uniformly upward decreasing density. If this were true, the pressure indicated by the barometer would grow uniformly less as the barometer were carried to higher altitudes, and it would be easy to establish by experiment a relation between the altitude and the barometric reading. The supposition is not entirely correct. The pressure of the atmosphere at any one place is affected by humidity, and very considerably by temperature. Moreover, owing to the movement of the atmosphere, two distant places of equal altitude, having at a given time equal temperatures, will not have at the same time equal barometer readings.

It is therefore difficult to establish a relation between the altitude and the barometer readings. It has been attempted by many persons, with the result that there are many formulas for determining the differences in altitude from the readings of the barometer. These formulas do not differ so much in method of deduction as in the experimental constants used. Perhaps one of the best is that developed by Mr. William Ferrall. ${ }^{1}$

Modified by omitting the terms for correcting for humidity and latitude, which are small in effect, and one or two other still smaller terms, this formula is

$$
H=60521.5 \log \frac{B}{B_{1}}\left(1+0.001017\left(t+t^{\prime}-64^{\circ}\right)\right)
$$

in which $H$ is the difference in altitude of two points where observations are taken, $B$ and $B_{1}$ are the barometer readings at the lower and higher points respectively, and $t$ and $t^{\prime}$ are the Fahrenheit temperatures at the two points.
58. Barometric tables. It is convenient in tabulating this formula for practical use to consider that $t+t^{\prime}$ is $100^{\circ}$, and that $H$ is the difference in altitude between two points whose altitudes above a given datum are to be directly determined from the tables. Thus if $t+t^{\prime}=100^{\circ}$, and the given datum is such that the barometer reading is 30 inches, the formula is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H=60521.5(1+.001017 \times 36)\left(\log \frac{30}{B_{1}}-\log \frac{30}{B}\right) \\
& =62737 \log \frac{30}{B_{1}}-62737 \log \frac{30}{B}
\end{aligned}
$$

Tables may be constructed for the quantity $62737 \log \frac{30}{B}$, with $B$ as the argument, and such a table would be entered twice, once for each barometer reading, and the difference of the tabular values found would be the value of $H$ if $t+t^{\prime}=100^{\circ}$ and there is no correction for humidity. Table III., page 362, is such a table. For other than a mean temperature of $50^{\circ}$, and for average hygrometric conditions, a correction is to be applied to the result. This correction is a linear function of the value of $H$ already found such that

$$
H=\left(A_{1}-A_{2}\right)\left(1+C^{\prime}\right)
$$

[^12]in which $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ are the values from Table III., and $C$ is the temperature and humidity correction coefficient. Values of $C$ are given in Table II., page 361.
59. Practical suggestions. The aneroid barometer should be frequently compared with a mercurial barometer, and the errors of reading at different parts of the scale should be noted. This can be well done only under the bell of an air pump.

The scale of altitudes on some barometers is useless.
Some barometers are marked "compensated," meaning that no temperature corrections need be applied. This is a mistake. The temperature corrections should always be applied.

Always read the barometer when it is horizontal. Carry it in a strong case, and do not let the warmth of the body affect it. Do not use it for altitudes just before or after, or during a storm.

In determining the difference of altitude of two widely separated points, stop once or twice for a half hour or so on the journey between the points, note the reading of the barometer at the beginning and end of the stop, and thus try to determine whether the atmospheric conditions are changing and, if so, at what rate. A correction can thus be determined for the first reading, on the supposition that the observed change has taken place also at the starting point. Tap the box gently before reading.
60. Accuracy of the method. If barometer readings are taken simultaneously daily at two widely separated stations for from one to six years, the utmost that can be expected is an error of about one half of one per cent, though occasional results are much closer. Single observations taken on the same day with the same or compared barometers and at distances of a few hours' walk will give results with errors of from one per cent to three per cent and more. An error in temperature of five degrees will cause an error in result of one per cent or more. Single observations taken a day or more apart and at stations a day's journey or more apart can not be depended on to give results much closer than the nearest ten per cent, though they will frequently do better than this and sometimes worse.

## CHAPTER IV.

## DETERMINATION OF DIRECTION AND MEASUREMENT OF ANGLES.

61. Instruments mentioned. In almost all surveys it is necessary to measure distances and angles.

Angles are measured by means of one of several instruments, according to the character of the work. The most commonly used are the compass and the transit.

The compass is an instrument for determining directions and, indirectly, angles ; while the transit is an instrument for determining angles and, indirectly, directions.

Almost all of the old land surveys of this country have been made with the compass as the angle-measuring instrument ; and while this instrument has been, to a great extent, supplanted by the transit, there are still a great many compasses sold annually. As a discussion of the compass will make clearer some surveying methods, it will be here described. Mention must be made of the sextant, which is an angle-measuring instrument whose use in surveying is confined to certain particular operations, as in exploratory surveying or in the location of soundings taken off shore. A description of this instrument is given on pages 294-298.

Mention should also be made of the solar compass and transit, instruments for determining the true meridian by an observation on the sun. The solar transit is described on pages 116-126.

## THE COMPASS.

62. Description. The compass consists of a line of sight attached to a graduated circular box, in the center of which is hung, on a pivot, a magnetic needle.

At any place on the earth's surface, the needle, if allowed to swing freely, will assume a position in what is called the magnetic meridian of the place. If, then, the direction of any line is required, the compass may be placed at one end of the line and the line of sight may be made to coincide with the line. The needle lying in the magnetic meridian, and the zero of the graduations of the circular needle box being in the line of sight, the angle that the line on the ground makes with the magnetic meridian is read on the graduated circle. If the $s$ magnetic meridian coincided everywhere with the true meridian, or even if the angle between them were constant, the compass would be a far more valuable instrument than it is. The compass, however, has its field, and in that field is a very valuable tool. A very good form of compass is shown in Fig. 41.

It is sometimes set on a tripod head and sometimes on a jacob staff, which is a single-pointed staff with a

Fig. 41.
head fitted to receive the compass. The sights $S S$ are attached to the main plate of the instrument by the screws seen below the plate. The level vials encased in brass tubes are fastened to the plate by screws passing through the plate from below, by which screws the bubbles may be adjusted parallel to the plate. The needle $N$ rests on a steel pivot that is screwed into the plate, and the needle is lifted from the pivot, when not in use, by the ring $R$ operated by a lever, which is in turn moved by the screw whose head is seen just below the plate directly in front. On the left is a marker $M$ used to keep track of the chaining. Next to this is an arc $A$ and a vernier, moved by the tangent screw $V$. The arc is attached to the plate, and the vernier to
an arm that is fastened to the compass box, which box may be thus turned through a small angle by the tangent screw. This vernier is called a declination vernier. Its use will appear later. The compass box is graduated from the north and south points in each direction $90^{\circ}$. When the zero of the vernier coincides with the zero of the arc $A$, the line of zeros of the compass box is coincident with the line of sight. The spring catch $C$ holds the compass on the tripod head, and the clamp $K$, acting on a concealed spring that encircles the tripod head, serves to clamp the instrument so that it will not revolve about the vertical axis. There is a small coil of wire seen on one end of the needle. This counteracts the magnetic force that would otherwise cause the needle to dip. This means that the direction of magnetic force or magnetic pull is not horizontal, but is inclined, and if the needle is free to dip, it will lie in the direction of magnetic pull. This vertical component of magnetic force that causes the dip, varies in different places, and the little coil of wire may be moved nearer to, or further from, the pivot to allow for this variation.

Since only horizontal angles are measured with the compass and used in land surveying, it is necessary to have the plates horizontal, and the sights vertical when working. This is accomplished by means of a ball and socket joint attached to the tripod head, and the bubbles on the plate. The plate having been leveled, the joint is clamped by simply screwing tight the milled head by which the spindle is attached to the head of the tripod.

## COMPASS ADJUSTMENTS.

63. Requirements mentioned. To determine properly the direction of lines with the compass, it is necessary (1) that the plate be level, the sights vertical with their line passing through the zeros of the graduated box when the zeros of the vernier and arc $A$ coincide ; (2) that the needle be straight ; (3) that the pivot be in the center of the circle.
64. Plate bubbles. The instrument is readily leveled if the bubbles are parallel to the plate and the plate perpendicular to the vertical axis. Test the parallelism of the bubbles and plate
by the method of Art. 28, and correct, if necessary, by the screws already mentioned. In doing this the plate is reversed on the vertical axis. It is assumed that the plate is perpendicular to the vertical axis. If not, it must be made so by the maker.
65. Sights. To test the perpendicularity of the sights, turn the leveled instrument on a suspended plumb line and see whether the line traverses the slits in the standards, turning each end separately to the plumb line. If the sights are found to be out of plumb, they may be adjusted by removing them and filing the bottoms till they are found to be correct. With proper care they should not get out, and this is not a common error. Strips of paper may be inserted under one edge, if the surveyor prefers this to filing.

To determine whether the plane of the sights includes the line of the zeros when the vernier is set to read zero, stretch two fine threads through the slits in the sights and, looking down, see whether the plane of the threads includes the line of zeros of the graduated box. If not, the error should be corrected by the maker. The error may be allowed for, however, by moving the vernier till the zeros are in the plane of the threads, or parallel to it, noting the angle that has been turned, and seeing that thereafter the vernier is set at this angle when working. If the line of sights fails to pass through the center by one tenth of an inch, the error in the direction of a line ten feet long will be about three minutes, and will be less as the line is longer.
66. Needle and pivot. If the needle is straight and the pivot is in the center, the two ends will read $180^{\circ}$ apart. If both of these conditions are not fulfilled, the two ends will read other than $180^{\circ}$ apart. If it is observed that one of these faults exists, the instrument should first be tested to determine which one. This is done by turning the plates on the vertical axis and noting whether the difference in the two end readings remains constant: if so, the needle is bent; if not, the pivot is not in the center, and the needle may or may not be bent. If the needle is found to be bent, remove the glass cover from the box by unscrewing it, take the needle from the
pivot, and carefully bend it till straight. If the pivot is found to be out of center, remove the needle and carefully bend the top of the pivot over until it is in the center. To determine which way to bend it, turn the box till that position of the box is found that gives the greatest error in end readings of the needle, and bend the pivot at right angles to the position of the needle. ${ }^{1}$

If there is reason to think that both errors are involved, turn the instrument as before to get the


Fig. 42. maximum error of end readings, and read the angle greater than $180^{\circ}$ between the ends, calling this $R$. Now revolve the instrument $180^{\circ}$, in the way described below, and read the angle on the same side of the needle, calling this reading $R^{\prime}$. Let $p$ be half of the error due to eccentricity of pivot, and $n$ be half of the error due to bent needle; then, from Fig. 42, it is seen that

$$
\begin{align*}
& 180^{\circ}+(2 p+2 n)=R  \tag{1}\\
& 180^{\circ}-(2 p-2 n)=R^{\prime} \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

Solving for $p$ by subtraction, and for $n$ by addition, there results

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p=\frac{R-R^{\prime}}{4} \\
& n=\frac{R+R^{\prime}-360}{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

Bend the needle so that each end moves over $n$ degrees. Then bend the pivot at right angles to the needle, toward the center, till the needle ends read $180^{\circ}$ apart.

Otherwise, turn the box till the needle ends read $180^{\circ}$ apart. Turn the box $180^{\circ}$, and if the two ends do not read opposite

[^13]divisions, bend the ends through half the difference between the first and second positions. The needle is now straight, and the pivot may be tested and corrected as above described.

The instrument may be revolved $180^{\circ}$ by noting an object to which it points when first set and then revolving till the sights again point to the same object.

If the needle is sluggish in its movement, it may be due to one or both of two causes. The pivot may be blunt, or the needle may have lost some of its magnetic strength. Take the needle off the pivot and examine the pivot. If it is found blunt, unscrew it and carefully grind it down on a fine oilstone. If the pivot seems perfect, the trouble is with the needle. Lay the needle down and rub each end from the center out with that end of a bar magnet which attracts the end of the needle that is being rubbed. In passing the magnet back from end to center, raise it some distance above the needle; otherwise the backward movement will tend to counteract the rubbing. The needle may also be remagnetized by placing it in the magnetic field of a strong electro-magnet, as a dynamo. If placed on the magnet in a wrong direction, the south end will, when replaced, point north. To correct this, replace the needle on the magnet in the opposite direction.

Two needles at the same place may not point in the same direction. This will probably be due to the fact that their magnetic axes do not coincide with their geometric axes. This seems to be unavoidable. For this reason the needle should be narrow and deep rather than flat and wide. There is a difference of opinion about this, based on difference of manufacturing processes.

The angle between the true meridian and the magnetic meridian should be determined by the instrument that is to be used in a given piece of work.

The glass cover of the compass box may become electrified by rubbing, and attract the needle. This is remedied by touching the glass with the moistened finger.

When the compass is being moved, the needle should always be lifted from the pivot. When put away, the needle should be allowed to swing to the magnetic meridian and then lifted. It retains its magnetic strength longer in the meridian.

## USE OF THE COMPASS.

67. Bearing. The use of the compass is to determine the directions, or, technically, the bearings of lines; or to mark out lines whose bearings are given.

The bearing of a line is the horizontal angle between a vertical plane including the line, and the meridian plane through one end of the line, and is measured from the north or south points $90^{\circ}$ each way. Thus the bearing of a line extending in a direction midway between the north and east, would be N. $45^{\circ}$ E. or S. $45^{\circ}$ W., according to the end from which the bearing is read. This gives rise to two terms, forward bearing and back bearing, the forward bearing being the bearing in the direction in which the survey is being run, and the back bearing being that read in the reverse direction. These two bearings (omitting the effect of convergence of the meridians of the two ends of the line, which is an inappreciable amount in an ordinary compass survey) should be numerically equal, but with opposite letters to express the direction. The bearings are never read, east so many degrees south or north, or west so many degrees north or south; but always from the north or south points.
68. To determine the bearing of a line. Set the compass over one end, level the plates, lower the needle, turn the north end of the compass box toward the distant end of the line, and bring the line of sights carefully in the direction of the line. If the declination vernier reads zero, the north end of the needle will show the bearing of the line.
69. To lay out a line of given bearing. Set the compass over a point on the line, level the plates, drop the needle, turn the compass on its vertical axis till the north end of the needle reads the given bearing. The line of the sights is now in the required line, which may be ranged out.
70. To run a traverse. This is to determine the lengths and bearings of a series of connected lines. These may form the sides of a farm, or inclose a pond, or be the center line of a crooked road. If there are no natural objects to mark the angle points, flags are set at those points by a flagman, the
compass is set at each point in succession, and the back bearing of the preceding line and the forward bearing of the line ahead are determined while the lines are being measured by the chainmen. The back bearings are read as a check on the forward bearings and to detect local attraction, as will be hereafter explained. In occasional hasty work the compass will be set only at every second corner, and the back bearing of one line (afterward changed to forward bearing) and the forward bearing of the other line will be determined. This should not ordinarily be done. If the chainmen have no point ahead to chain toward, they may be kept in line by the man at the compass.

It is frequently necessary to produce a line for a considerable distance through woods or over hills, one end not being visible from the other. If the bearing of the line is known, turn the compass, placed on one end of the line, in the direction of the line, and direct the chainmen as far as they can be well seen. Establish a point by driving a stake in the line at the end of the last measurement, or by merely setting the flag in the ground, to be pulled out when the compass is brought up, and set the compass over the estallished point and continue the line.

If a tree or small building obstructs the line, and a few inches on one side or the other are of no consequence, as is the case in most surveys made with the compass, set the compass beyond the obstruction, as nearly on the line as can be estimated, and, turning the sights in the direction of the known bearing, proceed with the line. Other obstacles are discussed on pages 201-204.
71. Notes. The notes that are taken may be kept in the following form, if nothing more than a record of the traverse is required:

| Station. | Bearing. | Dist. Chains. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| etc. | etc. | etc. |
| D | S. $72^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$ E. | 10.40 |
| C | S. $52^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ E. | 7.30 |
| B | N. $23^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$. | 6.74 |
| A | N. $36^{\circ} 15^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. | 4.63 |

The notes read up the page so that the line may appear to be ahead as one walks along with the open notebook. Other notes are usually required, as distances to points passed, fences crossed, roads and streams crossed, distances right or left to objects near the line, as will be hereafter described. In such cases, a sketch of the work with all the necessary measurements marked on it is the best possible form of notes to take in the field. This may afterwards be converted into the form shown on page 229. The name and date of survey should always be recorded on every page of the notebook used and the names of those engaged on the work should be entered at least once.
72. Angles. To determine the angle formed by two lines at their point of intersection, set the compass over the point of intersection and read the bearing of each line. From these bearings determine the angle. There will always be two supplementary angles. If the lines are conceived to be run from the end of one to the point of intersection, to the end of the second, and so on, as in running a traverse, the angle between the prolongation of line one, and line two, measured in the direction in which the line is conceived to bend, is called the deflection angle, or, in a closed survey, the exterior angle. Some examples in converting bearings to angles, and the reverse, will be found in the problems in the Appendix, pages 324, 325.
73. Cautions. It is better to keep the north end of the compass box ahead, and to read the north end of the needle. The north end of the needle is distinguished either by its peculiar shape or by the fact that the coil of wire is on the other end. The north end of the compass box is distinguished by a peculiar figure, usually a conventional fleur de lis. If the south end of the box is ahead, read the south end of the needle. Care should be exercised in the use of the compass, both in directing the sights and in reading the needle; and the beginner should be particularly careful to read from the north or south point according to which is nearer the north end of the needle. Greater differences in results may be expected from different instruments used by the same man, than from the same instrument used by different men, if the men use care in their work.

## MAGNETIC DECLINATION.

74. Declination defined. Thus far all bearings have been assumed to be taken with reference to the magnetic meridian. If the magnetic meridian and the true meridian were coincident at all places on the earth's surface, or if at one place the angle between them were constant, the determination of the true bearing of a line by the compass would be comparatively simple. The needle, however, points to the true north at very few places on the earth's surface, and the angle that the magnetic meridional plane makes at any point with the true meridional plane is called the magnetic declination.
75. Variations of declination. The declination is subject at every place to changes, called variations of the declination. These are: secular variation, annual variation, lunar inequalities, and diurnal variation. There are also irregular variations due to magnetic storms. The annual variation and the lunar variation are both very small and may be neglected entirely. The diurnal variation is nothing at about 10.30 A.m. and 8.00 P.m., and varies between these hours, the north end being furthest east at about 8 o'clock in the morning and furthest west at about 1.30 in the afternoon. The total movement is from five to ten minutes, and the corrections to be applied are as in the Appendix, Table V., page 364. It will be noticed that the variation changes with the seasons. It also varies slightly with the latitude, and the corrections in the table are about a mean for the United States for the latitudes given.

The secular variation is by far the most important. It is supposed to be periodic in its character, requiring from two hundred to four hundred years to make a complete cycle. ${ }^{1}$

The needle in Paris in 1580 pointed about $9^{\circ}$ or $10^{\circ}$ east of north, while in 1800 it pointed a little more than $22^{\circ}$ west of north. The change seems to have been fairly but not absolutely uniform in rate. The rate of change seems to differ with difference of place, and also with time at the same place. It is almost nothing for a few years when the needle is near its extreme position in either direction; and again, while at one

[^14]place the declination may vary from one side of the meridian to the other, at another place the entire movement is on one side.
76. Determination of the declination. Since it is the magnetic meridian that is given by the needle, and since this is not a fixed direction, it should always be required to reduce the magnetic bearings of lines run with the compass to the true bearings. This was not done in the old land surveys made in this country, and the declination was not noted. The result is that it is difficult to rerun the old lines, as will hereafter appear. From what has been said about secular variation, it will readily be seen that the declination must be known for the place of the survey for the time of the survey. In this country it is sufficient to determine the declination each year for a given place. It is done by the surveyor in the manner to be hereafter described. From observations conducted over a number of years in many of the cities of this country, Mr. Charles Schott, of the Coast Survey, has deduced empirical formulas for different places for determining the declination at those places, which formulas will give approximately correct results for a number of years to come. These formulas are given in the Appendix, Table VIII., pages 368-370. The use of such formulas is not advisable except to check, in a general way, the results of the observations of the surveyor, who should always, in going to a new place, determine the declination for himself.

A line connecting points having the same magnetic declination is called an isogonic line, and the line joining points of no declination is an agonic line. In Plate VI., at the end of the book, taken from the report of the Coast Survey for 1888 and 1889, an agonic line is seen extending from near Charleston, S.C., to the upper end of Lake Huron, and passing through or near Huntington, W.Va., Newark and Toledo, O., and Ann Arbor, Mich. All points to the east of this line have west declination, and all points to the west have east declination. Moreover, this line is moving westward, and hence west declinations are increasing and east declinations diminishing. The declination for a given place may be determined approximately

from this chart, though, from the extreme irregularity of the lines in those portions of the country where observations have been most frequent, as, for instance, in Missouri, it will be seen that too much reliance can not be placed on the correctness of the lines. Figure 43 is a chart on a very small scale, showing in a general way the declination at all points on the earth.

The declination is determined by the surveyor by first determining a true meridian and then setting the compass over the southern end of a line in this meridian and reading the bearing of the line. This is, in amount, the declination. The direction is, however, reversed, since there is read the bearing of the true meridian referred to the magnetic meridian, instead of that of the magnetic meridian referred to the true meridian. The zeros of the declination vernier and its are should coincide, or the reading will be erroneous. To read the declination more precisely than can be done on the circle, which is graduated only to half degrees, bring the plane of the sights carefully into the meridian, and then move the vernier by the tangent screw till the needle reads zero, or north. The reading of the vernier will be the declination. If now the vernier is left set at this reading, a survey may be conducted by the compass and referred to the true meridian, without mental reduction, as the compass will give the true bearing of the lines at once.
77. Determination of the true meridian. The only real difficulty in finding the declination lies in determining the true meridian. This is done in several ways, one of which, very old and only roughly approximate, is to mark on the ground or on a flat surface, the extremities of the shadows cast by a vertical rod or other object when the sun is at equal altitudes above the eastern and western horizons. This is done by noting the shadow at about 9 or 10 o'clock in the morning and drawing a circle through the extremity of the shadow, taking the foot of the rod as a center, and then marking the point on this circle that is just touched by the shadow in the afternoon. The point midway between the two positions of the extremity of the shadow and the center of the circle lies in the meridian.

The better way to determine the meridian is by an observa-
tion on the star Polaris, or, as it is usually called, the North Star. This star is not directly at the north pole, but is at present about one and one quarter degrees from the pole, about which it seems to revolve in 23 hours and 56 minutes, thus bringing it to the meridian twice every day. It is approximately on the meridian when a plumb line traverses the pole star and the star next the end of the handle of the dipper, or Zeta Ursæ Majoris, that is, the star Zeta in the constellation of the Great Bear, which is the name of the constellation including the dipper. The stars in every constellation are lettered or numbered. Polaris is known as Alpha Urse Minoris, or Alpha of the constellation of the Lesser Bear.
'Two thirds of a minute, 1895, after both of these stars are covered by the plumb line, Polaris is on the meridian. For each year after 1895 add 0.35 minutes. It is not best to observe the star at culmination, that is, on the meridian, because at that time its motion is all horizontal, giving a considerable error for a small error in time of observation. It is better to observe the star at the time when it is furthest east or west, or, as is said, when it is at eastern or western elongation. The method of observation is essentially the same in both cases. Suspend a plumb line from a beam or overhanging limb which is high enough so that a line of sight to the star, from a point twenty feet or more to the south, will pass below the point of suspension. This will usually require a plumb line at least twenty feet long, the length depending on the latitude; the elevation of the pole above the horizon being equal to the latitude of the place. The top of the plumb line should be illuminated with a light screened from the observer. Select a point south of the plumb line, approximately in the meridian and such that the star may be seen just below the top of the string; and drive two stout stakes in an east and west line, making sure that the meridian will fall between the stakes. Drive the stakes till their tops are in a level line and then nail to their tops a stiff, smooth board. Take off one of the sights of the compass and rest it on this board: It may be necessary to set it in a block because of the pins on the bottom. At a little before the time of culmination or elongation, whichever is to be observed, bring the sight "into line" with the plumb line and the star.

Keep it in line by moving the sight till the time of culmination or elongation, and then mark on the board the position of the sight. The work may now be left for the night. The next morning at a little after 10 o'clock, set up the compass over the point occupied the previous night by the sight, and turn the sights on the point over which the plumb line was suspended. If culmination has been observed, the compass is now pointing in the meridian, and the needle reading will give, in amount, the magnetic declination for that place.
78. Azimuth at elongation. If elongation has been observed, the true bearing of the star at elongation, called the "azimuth" at elongation, must be determined, and a bearing equal to this must be set off to get the true meridian. The explanation of how this is done is as follows: The angle that is required is the angle between the vertical plane including the pole and the position of the observer, and the vertical plane through the latter point and the star at elongation. This latter plane is tangent to the circle of apparent revolution of the star. If, then, the observer were on the equator, the required angle would be equal to the pole distance of the star. As the position of the observer is moved to the north, the plane becomes tangent to the circle of revolution at a point above a horizontal line through the pole. There-


Fig. 44. fore, as the latitude of the observer is increased, the angle between the two planes is also
increased. These two planes, extended to the celestial sphere, will cut from that sphere two arcs which, with the arc of the meridian of the star from pole to star, will form a spherical triangle. The arcs are the ares zenith-pole, zenith-star, and pole-star; the triangle formed being zenith-pole-star, rightangled at star. In Fig. 44 the points are lettered $Z, P$, and $S$. The plane of the terrestrial equator extended to the celestial sphere cuts from that sphere the celestial equator, and the zenith of the place of observation is north of that equator by an are equal to the latitude of the place. Therefore, the pole is distant from the zenith by an arc equal to the colatitude. On the celestial sphere the term "declination" is used instead of "latitude," and hence the star is distant from the pole by an arc equal to the codeclination of the star. In the figure the arcs are shown. Calling codeclination of the pole star the poledistance, and letting $\phi$ represent the latitude, there results at once from the principles of trigonometry the relation

$$
\text { sine azimuth at elongation }=\frac{\text { sine pole distance }}{\operatorname{cosine} \phi} .
$$

The declination of Polaris is constantly increasing, and will continue to increase until the star is within about thirty minutes of the pole, when it will begin to decrease. Table IV. Appendix, page 364, gives the polar distance of Polaris for a number of years.

The latitude of the place may be taken from a good map, an error of a degree of latitude involving in the territory below $50^{\circ}$ north latitude an error of $2 \frac{1}{2}^{\prime}$ in latitude $50^{\circ}, 1 \frac{1}{2}^{\prime}$ in latitude $40^{\circ}, 1^{\prime}$ in latitude $30^{\circ}$, and $\frac{1}{2}^{\prime}$ in latitude $20^{\circ}$.

The calculation of the time of elongation involves a knowledge of astronomical terms that it is not thought wise to include here, and hence the times of elongation are given in Table VI. Appendix, page 365, for the year 1897, with rules for determining the time for other years and other latitudes than those for which the table was computed.

The method of determining the meridian just given is sufficiently precise for compass work. A more precise method will be given in the discussion of the transit. As has been said, almost all of the original surveys made in the eastern part
of this country were made with the magnetic compass. Many of them were made and recorded with reference to the magnetic meridian, without recording the magnetic declination at the place at the time of the survey; and hence, if it were required to retrace one of the old surveys, all but one of whose corners had been lost, it would be found to be a difficult thing to do. The method of procedure will be discussed further on.
79. Local attraction. The needle may be drawn from its mean position for a given locality by the attraction of large or small masses of iron or other magnetic substances. These may be either minerals hidden in the ground or manufactured articles, as agricultural implements in a barn near by, railroad rails, nails in an adjacent house, etc. The chain used in the survey may influence the needle if brought too near, while keys in the pocket of the observer, or steel wire in the rim of a stiff hat, and steel button molds on a coat have been known to give trouble.

Local attraction may be very troublesome, and must be carefully looked out for. It may be discovered and allowed for by simply occupying every corner of a survey, and reading the bearing of each line back as well as forward. It will be evident that at any one station where the compass is set, the local attraction, if any exists, will affect by the same amount all readings taken from that point; and hence, if the bearings of two lines meeting at a point are both determined at that point, the angle of intersection is correctly deduced, even though there is local attraction and neither bearing is correctly determined. If the bearing of a line is determined from each end, and it is found that the two readings are not numerically the same, and it is certain that the bearings are correctly read, there is probably local attraction at one end or the other, or possibly at both ends.

If now another line is set off from one end of the first line, and the bearing of the new line is read at both ends, and the readings are found to agree, the local attraction affected the reading of the first line at the other end. If trouble is encountered on the second line, a third line may be set off from the other end of the first line, the same observations being
made as on the second line. If the auxiliary lines are properly chosen, one will usually be sufficient. If it is feared that local attraction exists, the best method is to read the bearings of all lines at each eñd, determining the angles between adjacent lines from the bearings taken at their points of intersection. One line may then be assumed to be correctly read, or the true bearing may be determined, and the bearings of the others may be computed from the series of angles.
80. Special forms of compasses. Some compasses are made with an additional full circle of $360^{\circ}$ and a vernier reading to minutes, with suitable clamps and tangent screws; but it


Fig. 45.
may be said that the precision obtained in pointing with the open sights is hardly sufficient to warrant this. If angles are required to be read to single minutes, it is better to use a transit.

The prismatic compass is a very convenient instrument to use on exploratory work. It has folding sights, and, by means of the prism, may be read while being pointed, which is a convenience when the instrument is held in the hand instead of being mounted on a jacob staff or tripod. It is usually held in the hand, though it may be used either way. The instrument is shown in Fig. 45.

## THE TRANSIT.

81. Description. The instrument most used by surveyors and engineers for measuring horizontal angles, and, with certain attachments, for measuring vertical angles and distance, and for leveling, is called a transit.

The transit consists of a telescope attached to a pointer which may be moved around a graduated circle. There are suitable attachments for controlling the motion of the telescope and the pointer, and for enabling the graduated circle to be made horizontal. The pointer may be clamped to the graduated circle, and they may be revolved together. If this is done, and the telescope is pointed to a given object, and the graduated circle is clamped so that it will not revolve, and if the polnter is then unclamped from the circle, the pointer and telescope may be turned together till the telescope points to a second object. The number of degrees of the circle over which the pointer has passed will be the angle subtended, at the point where the transit is placed, by the two objects seen through the telescope.

The pointer is the zero mark of a vernier. There are usually two double verniers placed $180^{\circ}$ apart.

In the transit shown in Fig. $46, T$ is the telescope which may, by means of the horizontal axis $A$, be revolved in a vertical plane.

The horizontal axis rests in bearings at the top of the standards $X$, which are rigidly attached to the circular plate that carries the vernier $V$.

On this plate are set two level tubes which, when adjusted to be parallel to the plate, will show whether the plate is level. This plate is made by the maker perpendicular to the axis on which it revolves, and hence, when the plate is level, the axis of revolution is vertical. This axis is conical, and fits inside a conical socket which is the inside of the conical axis of the plate that carries the graduated circle. This latter conical axis revolves in a socket that connects the top and bottom plates of the leveling head. The upper plate is leveled by the leveling screws $L$. The lower plate of this leveling head screws on to the tripod. The clamp $C$ fastens together the vernier plate
(sometimes called the alidade) and the plate carrying the graduated circle. The latter plate is called the limb. When the two plates are clamped together, the vernier plate may still


Fig. 46.
be moved a small amount, relatively to the limb, by means of the tangent screw $S$. This is for the purpose of setting the vernier at a given reading, or pointing the telescope at a point,
more precisely than would be ordinarily possible by simply turning the alidade by the hand. The collar $K$ surrounds the spindle of the limb, and by the clamp screw $C^{\prime}$ may be fastened to that spindle. The lug $M$, which is attached to the collar, being held by the spring in the barrel $P$ and the opposing screw $S^{\prime}$, in turn fastened to the upper leveling plate, prevents the revolution of the limb, when the collar is clamped to its axis. The limb may, however, be moved a small amount by the tangent screw $S^{\prime}$ working against the pressure of the spring in the barrel $P$.

Some instruments when put away in the box in which they are kept when not in use, are separated into two parts. The upper part of the instrument is separated from the leveling head, and the two parts are placed separately in the box. Others are so made as to be put away in one piece, being merely unscrewed from the tripod and screwed to a board that slides into the box.

There are various forms of transits and various patterns for the different parts, according to the ideas of the different makers. A careful examination of an instrument should be made before putting it to use, that the user may become perfectly familiar with its construction.

The circles are usually so graduated that angles may be read to minutes. Many instruments are graduated to read 30 seconds, some to read 20 seconds, and a few to read 10 seconds. For ordinary land surveying, single minutes are sufficiently precise, while for fine city surveying 20 seconds, or even 10 seconds, is not too fine.

The telescope is essentially the same as that used in the level, but is shorter and usually of lower magnifying power. It should be inverting, but is usually an erecting glass. The use of the inverting glass is growing. There is a proper relation between the magnifying power of the telescope and the least count of the vernier used; and it is not necessarily the best instrument that has the smallest count vernier, for the reason that the magnifying power of the telescope may be such that a movement of several of the smallest units that can be read by the vernier may give no perceptible lateral motion to the line of collimation. The power of the telescope and the
least count of the vernier should be so adjusted to each other that a barely perceptible movement of the vernier will cause a barely perceptible movement of the line of collimation. The same is true of the magnifying power and the level under the telescope. Methods of testing these relations will suggest themselves.

The verniers are usually read with small magnifying glasses known as reading glasses.

In order that the transit may be set precisely over a point on the ground, there is fastened to the center of the lower part of the leveling head a ring or hook, from which may be suspended a plumb line. A sectional view of the lower part of the transit in Fig. 46 is shown in Fig. 47. It will be seen that the


Fig. 47.
upper leveling plate $U$-in some forms four arms instead of a plate-is attached to the socket in which the vertical axis revolves, and that to this upper plate are attached the nuts in which the leveling screws work. These leveling screws rest in little cups, that in turn rest on the lower leveling plate $L$. The ball and socket joint that permits the leveling of the instrument is separate from the lower leveling plate, and is not quite so large as the hole in the center of that plate. There is an extension plate to this ball and socket joint that extends under the lower leveling plate. When the leveling screws are tightened, this extension plate binds against the leveling plate, and
the instrument can not be shifted on the lower plate. If the leveling screws are loosened, the upper part of the instrument may be shifted laterally on the lower plate by an amount depending on the relative diameters of the ball joint and the hole in the center of the lower plate. The device is called a shifting center and is found in all modern transits.
82. The tachymeter. Such a transit as has been described, while still in very general use, is being rapidly displaced by the complete engineer's transit, or tachymeter. This instrument consists of such a transit as has been described, with the following attachments:
(1) A level under the telescope, making the transit a good leveling instrument.
(2) A vertical circle or are, by which vertical angles may be read.
(3) A gradienter attachment by which very small vertical angles may be set off, as so many feet rise or fall in one hundred.
(4) A pair of horizontal wires in the telescope, known as stadia wires.

There are various other attachments for special purposes that will be found described in instrument makers' catalogues, but which it is not necessary to mention here. There are also special forms of transits for use underground. One form of the complete instrument is shown in Fig. 48.

The level under the telescope and the vertical circle are readily recognized. The gradienter and slow-motion screw, for vertical motion of telescope, is shown at $G$. The telescope is clamped in vertical motion by the clamp $C$. It may then be moved slowly a small amount by the slow-motion screw. The head of this screw is graduated with reference to the pitch of the screw, so that a single revolution of the head corresponds to an angular motion of the telescope of one foot in one hundred, or half a foot in one hundred. In the figure, the head is graduated in the latter way, as is indicated by the double row of figures. The use of the gradienter is chiefly in setting out grades.

Many transits are fitted with the slow-motion screw without the gradienter head. All makers make both the plain and complete transits.

## USE OF THE TRANSIT.

83. Carrying the transit. While in use, the transit is not removed from the tripod when it is carried from one point to another; but is carried with the tripod on the shoulder of the


Fig. 48.
"transitman." The plumb bob is carried in the pocket withnut removing the string from the instrument. Before the transit
can be properly set up and the angles measured, the various parts must be in proper adjustment. The discussion of the adjustments will, however, be deferred till the use of the adjusted transit has been described.
84. "Setting up" the transit. To "set up" the transit over a point, let the plummet swing free, grasp in one hand the uppermost leg of the tripod, and plant it firmly in the ground. Next grasp the other two legs, one in each hand, and place them symmetrically about the point so that the plumb bob covers the point as nearly as may be. The plates should be at the same time observed and made approximately level. It should be noticed that a sidewise motion of a leg changes the level of the plates without much disturbing the plumb bob, and that a radial motion changes the level of the plates to a less degree, but does disturb the plumb bob. It is necessary to become expert in setting the transit, as much time may be lost by awkward work in setting up. After the transit is set approximately over the point, press the legs firmly into the ground so as to bring the bob more nearly over the point and to make the instrument firmer. Finish centering by the adjustable or shifting center, by loosening all the leveling screws and moving the whole upper part of the instrument till it is centered. If there is no adjustable center, the instrument must be centered by manipulating the legs. When the instrument is finally centered, level the limb by the leveling screws. To do this, place one plate bubble parallel to one set of opposite leveling screws; then the other bubble will be parallel to the other set. Level one bubble at a time and note that leveling one will, to a slight extent, disturb the other, which must then be leveled again. If the lower plate is not fairly level, "leveling up" will disturb the centering of the plumb bob, which must then be corrected. Continue till both bubbles are in the centers of the tubes. Set the vernier that is to be used at the proper reading (this will often be zero), and the instrument is set up.
85. To produce a straight line with the transit. Set the instrument over one extremity of the line, and with the limb free to turn, turn the telescope on the other extremity or on
a point in the line. Clamp all motions except the vertical motion of the telescope, and, with either of the horizontal tangent screws, but preferably with the lower screw, bring the line of collimation to bisect exactly the distant point. Transit the telescope and set a point beyond it at any desired place, in the line of collimation. This point will, if the instrument is in adjustment, be in the straight line produced. If it is feared that the transit is slightly out of adjustment, unclamp the limb, turn the instrument till the line of collimation again cuts the first point, clamp and set precisely, and then transit and set a new point beside the first one set ; the point midway between the two set will be a point in the continuation of the straight line. This is called "double centering," and is the same operation as the test of the adjustment of the vertical wire, to be hereafter explained. The method of ranging out a number of points in a straight line in the same direction will be apparent without explanation.
86. To measure an angle with the transit. Set the instrument over the vertex of the angle, with the vernier at zero. With the lower motion bring the line of collimation to bear approximately on one of the distant points, clamp, and with the lower tangent screw make an exact bisection. Loosen the alidade and bring the line of collimation approximately to the second point, clamp, and complete the bisection with the upper tangent screw. Read the vernier. The reading will be the angle sought. This assumes the numbering to extend both ways from $0^{\circ}$ to $360^{\circ}$. It is, of course, unnecessary to set the vernier at zero. When the instrument has been set on the first point, a reading may be taken and noted and subtracted from the reading found on pointing the telescope to the second point. In this case the vernier may pass the $360^{\circ}$ point, and it will then be necessary to add $360^{\circ}$ to the final reading before subtracting the first.
87. Azimuth. The azimuth of a line is the horizontal angle the line makes with a reference line, as a meridian. It differs from bearing, in that it is measured continuously from $0^{\circ}$ to $360^{\circ}$. If the azimuth of a point is mentioned, there is implied another point and a meridian through it from which the azimuth is measured.

In making surveys with the transit, except possibly city surveys and others where angles are to be repeated several times, it is better to use azimuths than bearings. It is necessary, however, in writing descriptions of property, to reduce the azimuths to bearings.

It is customary to reckon azimuths from the south point around by way of the west, north, east, south, $360^{\circ}$. This is the practice of astronomers and geodesists. It is believed to be more convenient for the surveyor to begin with zero at the north point and read to the right $360^{\circ}$. The reason for this will appear in Chapter VI.
88. Traversing. The method of traversing with the transit is as follows: In Fig. 49, let it be required to determine the


Fig. 49.
lengths and azimuths of the courses of the crooked road $A, B$, $C, D$, etc. It will be assumed that the magnetic meridian $S N$ is the meridian of the survey. Set the transit over a tack in a stake driven at $A$, and, with the vernier set at zero, turn the telescope by the lower motion in the direction $A N$ as defined by the needle, and clamp the lower motion. For the purpose of again using this line, if necessary, set a stake in the line $A N$, some distance toward $N$, and put a tack in it in the exact line. This is necessary because the needle would not give the direction twice alike to the nearest minute, which is desired in transit work. Unclamp the alidade and turn the telescope toward a point in the first turn of the road, as $B$. Clamp the alidade and set a stake at $B$. In most transit work all stakes marking stations to be occupied by the transit are "centered" by setting a tack in the precise line. Read and record the vernier and the needle. They should agree within the limit of precision of the needle reading. The angle read is that which has been turned to the right, and in the figure is greater than $270^{\circ}$. (The mistake of reading the wrong circle must be
avoided. The needle reading may be recorded as bearing or may be mentally reduced to azimuth and so recorded. If the compass box is graduated continuously $360^{\circ}$, the needle will give azimuths at once.)

Measure $A B$, and, while this is being done, take the transit to $B$ and set up over the tack that has been put in the stake. With the same vernier used at $A$ (let it be called vernier $A$ ) bring the instrument to read the azimuth $A B$ plus $180^{\circ}$, which is the "back azimuth" of $A B$. Point the telescope to $A$ by using the lower motion, clamp, and make the exact pointing with the lower tangent screw. By so doing the instrument is oriented; that is, the zeros of the limb are made parallel to their positions at $A$. (The telescope has not been transited, and, if the alidade is now unclamped and the telescope turned in azimuth just $180^{\circ}$, the line of sight will be in $A B$ prolonged, the vernier will read the azimuth of $A B$, and the zeros of the limb will be seen to lie in the meridian of the survey. This intermediate step is not usually taken separately in practice, but is introduced here for the clearer understanding of the method.)

With the alidade unclamped, turn the telescope in the direction of the next point, as Clamp the alidade, set a stake and tack at $C$, and read and record the vernier and needle. The reading of the vernier will be the azimuth of $B C$ referred to $A N$, and the needle should read the same or the corresponding bearing. Measure $B C$, take the transit to $C$, set the vernier at the back azimuth of $B C$, and proceed as at $B$. Thus continue the work till the traverse is complete.
89. Transit vs. compass. The form for the field notes of the survey just outlined is the same as for a compass traverse, except that azimuths instead of bearings are recorded and another column is used in which to record the needle readings as a future evidence of the correctness of the work. Any land survey may be made with the transit, the object being, of course, the same as if made with the compass. The essential difference is that the work is done with a greater degree of precision with the transit and azimuths are used instead of bearings. One difference that should also be noted is this:
the use of the compass makes every line independent of every other line, so far as direction is concerned, since the direction of each line is determined independently by the needle. With the transit this is not so. An error in one line is carried through the remainder of the survey; and, being an angular error, the error of position of the final point of the survey is much greater than it would be if there were an error in the direction of but one line of the survey. It may be said, however, that with the needle check always applied, there is very little probability of an error of this kind, and the use of the transit is advised in all work of importance. Where speed and roughly approximate results are the chief requisites, the compass is the better instrument to use, unless the measurements may be made with the stadia, in which case the transit still remains the better tool. The two may be combined. The directions may be determined with the compass attached to the transit, and the distances read with the stadia, thus securing a maximum economy of time. In this case the stakes would not be centered with tacks, one or two inches making little error in such work, since the compass may not be read to less than five minutes, and this by estimation. Five minutes of arc means 0.15 of a foot in one hundred feet. Moreover, the distances, if read by the stadia, may not be determined closer than the nearest half foot or possibly the nearest foot.
90. Determining the meridian. In many surveys it is not necessary or common to determine the meridian before the survey is made. One line of the survey, usually the first run, is assumed as a meridian, and the direction in which the survey proceeds along this line is assumed as zero azimuth. The azimuths of all lines of the survey are then determined with reference to this one line. If, for any reason, it is desired to know the true bearing or azimuth of the lines of the field or survey, an observation for the meridian is made, and, when the meridian is determined, the angle that it makes with one side of the survey is found with the transit, and all the azimuths are corrected by this angle to make them read from the true meridian. The method of determining the meridian with the transit is the same as with the compass, except for the difference in pointing.

The time of the elongation of Polaris is determined, and a few minutes before that time the transit is set up over a stake in an open space where the star may be observed. As this observation is usually made at night, it is necessary to make some provision for illuminating the wires in the transit so that they may be seen. This is usually done by throwing a faint light into the object end of the telescope by holding a piece of paper a little to one side and before it, and a lamp - a bull's eye is best-behind it so as to get a reflection of light from the paper in the telescope. It is troublesome to do this, and it takes two or three observers. A better way is to have a reflector like one of those in Fig. 50, which fits on to the object end of the telescope and is illuminated by a lamp


Fig. 50. held back of the observer. A still better way, when the instrument is made for it, is to have the horizontal axis of the transit hollow, with a small mirror near the center of the telescope. A small bull'seye lamp is placed on a stand that is fastened to the standards and throws a beam of light upon the mirror, by which it is reflected to the wires. The light must not be too strong or the star will be indistinct. This is particularly true when, as may be the case, another and less bright star than Polaris is used.

The transit being set up and provision being made for illuminating the wires, the telescope is turned on the star and both plates are clamped. The vertical wire is then made to cover the star as nearly as possible and is made by the tangent screw of the alidade to follow the star as it seems to move to the right or left, that is, in azimuth, until it seems to be stationary in azimuth and to be moving only vertically. The telescope is then plunged and a point set in the ground some distance away and left till morning.

The setting of the point requires some patience. Perhaps the best way to accomplish this is to provide a box open on two sides. Cover one side with thin tissue paper, and place a candle in the box. This improvised lantern may be approximately set from the transit in the proper line, and the point to
drive the stake may be determined by holding a plumb line in front of the box, the papered side being turned toward the transit. This line will be put in position from the instrument and the stake driven. The stake will then be centered by the use of the line, and a tack driven. On the next day at about 10 o'clock the transit is set over the point occupied the previous evening; and the azimuth of Polaris at elongation, which has been previously computed as explained on page 364 , is turned off from the line of stakes to the right, if western elongation has been observed, and to the left, if eastern elongation has been observed. Another stake is now set in the line thus determined and the line defined by the point occupied by the transit, and the last stake will be the true meridian.

With the instrument set on this line the reading of the needle will give the magnetic declination in amount, but with the opposite sign. That is to say, the needle will read the magnetic bearing of the true meridian; and if the magnetic meridian lies west of the true meridian, thus making the declination west, the needle will read the bearing of the true meridian as east.
91. Needle checks on azimuths. In making surveys, if the compass box is not provided with a declination plate or vernier, on which the declination may be set off so that the needle will read north when pointing in the true meridian, it is often convenient to make the meridian of the survey, the magnetic meridian of the place, to facilitate checking by the needle the angles measured with the transit. It is inconvenient to do this even then, because the compass is graduated from two points $90^{\circ}$ each way, while for azimuths, the transit is graduated continuously through $360^{\circ}$. This difficulty is obviated by making a similar graduation on the compass box. If one has a transit that is not graduated in this way, he may graduate a paper ring and paste it on the glass cover of the box. The graduations need be only to degrees. It will be found that such a check on angle measurements is very valuable. If the ring has been properly set, and if the magnetic meridian has been chosen as the meridian of the survey, the reading of the compass should always agree practically with that of the transit. If, instead of the magnetic meridian some arbitrary meridian has
been assumed as the meridian of the survey, the paper circle should be placed so that the needle will read zero when the telescope is pointed in the direction of the assumed zero azimuth, the vernier of the transit reading zero. The needle check is good to the nearest five minutes except where there is local attraction.

Some transits have the graduations of the limb numbered as are those of the compass box. This is an old method. It is better to provide continuous numbering on the compass box.

## ADJUSTMENT OF THE TRANSIT.

92. Requirements. The transit is used for measuring horizontal angles, that is, angles subtended at a given point by the vertical planes through the two other observed points. If these two other points are not in the same horizontal plane, the vertical motion of the telescope must be used to bring the line of sight down from the higher point to the horizontal plane of the instrument and the line of sight of the lower point up to the same plane. Now, the line of collimation is the line in the instrument that is directed to the distant point, and the line that is revolved down or up, as the case may be, to the horizontal plane of the instrument, which is the horizontal plane through the center of the horizontal axis. It is evident that this line must revolve in a vertical plane, to properly project the distant points into the horizontal plane of the instrument. It will also be evident that the vertical axis of the transit must be truly vertical in order that the line of sight when projected into the horizontal plane of the instrument and then turned in azimuth, may move in a horizontal plane. If the axis of revolution is not vertical, the lateral motion of the instrument will be in an inclined plane. In order that these necessary conditions may obtain, certain adjustments of the instruments must be properly made. Every adjustment consists of two parts: the test to determine the error, and the rectification of the error found.
93. The plate bubbles. If the plate bubbles are perpendicular to the axis of revolution, that axis will be vertical when both bubbles are in the centers of their respective tubes. The
test is made and the adjustment is performed as described for the compass. If one bubble gets broken, the other may be used for both, by first leveling with the bubble in one position and then in another, $90^{\circ}$ from the first, exactly as in setting up the level, and by repeating the operation till the axis is vertical. But two operations would be necessary were it not for the fact that the second leveling will, to some extent, disturb the first.

The adjustment being made, all points of the instrument will revolve in horizontal planes if the bubbles are both in the centers of their tubes. 'This adjustment should be tested every day, although it will probably be found correct for a considerable number of days in succession. If the transit is out of adjustment all around, it is better to make each adjustment approximately in order and then carefully repeat them all.
94. To make the line of collimation revolve in a vertical plane when the telescope is turned on its horizontal axis. This adjustment consists of several parts. One of these is to make the axis of revolution of the telescope horizontal. If the instrument is provided with a striding level, this part may be performed first. If not, as is usually the case, it must be done last, and possibly at the expense of repeating some of those adjustments that have preceded it. It will be assumed that no striding level is used.

If the line of collimation is not perpendicular to the axis of revolution of the telescope, it will describe, in revolving, the surface of a cone, whose axis is the horizontal axis of revolution of the telescope ; and if the line of collimation is perpendicular to the axis and the axis is not horizontal, the line of collimation will describe, on being revolved, an inclined instead of a vertical plane. The student should make a mental picture of these conditions.

The intersection of the wires should be in the line of motion of the optical center of the objective; for, if not, then the line of collimation will not be fixed in its position in the telescope tube, and, if made perpendicular to the axis of revolution for one distance, it would not be so for some other distance that
would require a shifting of the object slide for new focusing. The object slide should move parallel to, if not absolutely coincident with, the axis of the telescope tube, in order that the line of collimation may be made perpendicular to the horizontal axis of revolution. Theoretically, its line of motion should pass through the horizontal axis. In the instrument shown in Fig. 48 the objective is permanently adjusted in motion by the maker. In some other instruments, however, this is not the case.

The two wires are adjusted separately, and it is not unusual to omit the adjustment of the horizontal wire. This should not be omitted if the instrument is to be used for leveling or for measuring vertical angles. The first adjustment of the vertical wire is to make it vertical. This can be done only approximately, if the horizontal axis has not been previously adjusted.
I. To make the vertical wire vertical. Carefully focus the eyepiece, level the instrument, turn the telescope on a suspended plumb line, and observe whether the vertical wire coincides or is parallel with it. The corner of a plumb building will sometimes answer the purpose if the wind interferes too much with the swinging plumb line. If the wire is found to be out of plumb, it should be made plumb by loosening all four of the capstan-headed screws that hold the ring carrying the wire, and by moving the ring around by the screws till the wire is vertical. The holes by which the adjusting screws pass through the telescope tube are slotted for this purpose.

The remaining part of the adjustments will be described as it is considered best to make them in the complete transit or tachymeter. (See Art. 114, page 127.) The adjustments that are to be made when only the plain transit is to be adjusted are those of Art. 93 and numbers I., III., and IV., of this article.
II. To make the line of collimation parallel to or coincident with the geometric axis of the telescope. Construct of wood a pair of Y standards fastened to a firm block of wood and with such a distance between them that the telescope tube may, after being removed from its standards, rest in the $Y$ 's near its
ends. Having made the vertical wire vertical as described in the last adjustment, remove the telescope with its horizontal axis from the standards, and rest it in the $Y$ supports. Now adjust the wires (and the object slide if it is adjustable and needs it) in precisely the same manner as described in the first adjustment of the level. If the geometric axis of the telescope has been made exactly perpendicular to the horizontal axis, and the two are coincident where they cross, the line of collimation is now perpendicular to the horizontal axis. The foregoing adjustment is, in all good instruments, sufficient for the horizontal wire. After replacing the telescope in its standards, the vertical wire is tested and, if necessary, corrected as explained in III.
III. If the line of collimation as defined by the optical center of the objective and the vertical wire (which is the wire most used in the transit) is not perpendicular to the horizontal axis of revolution, and the instrument is set over the middle one of three points that are in a straight line, the conditions will be as shown in Fig. 51. $A B$ is the axis of revolution, $C l$ the line of collimation, showing only the object end to avoid confusion ; the latter makes with the axis the angle $\alpha . \quad P_{1}, C$, and $P_{2}$, are the three points in a straight line, the instrument being centered over $C . \quad X X_{1}$ is a line drawn perpendicular to the axis of revo-


Fig. 51. lution. The error of perpendicularity is the angle $\beta=90^{\circ}-\alpha$. The instrument is shown with the line of collimation directed toward the point $P_{1}$.

If now the telescope is revolved, the axis of revolution remaining in the same straight line, the line of collimation will take the position $C P_{3}$, making with the line $C P_{2}$, an angle equal to $2 \beta$. Since the lens can not be moved, the wire must
be moved so that the line of collimation will fall in the line $C X$ found by taking a point halfway between $P_{3}$ and $P_{2}$. Since the wire is nearer the observer than the lens, the wire must be moved in a direction opposite to that in which the forward end of the line of collimation is to be moved. With erecting instruments, since points that are really on the left or right appear so, this rule would be
 followed. With inverting instruments, in which an object on the right of the line of collimation appears to be on the left, and vice versa, if the line should apparently be moved to the left, it should really be moved to the right ; and hence the wire should be moved in the direction in which it appears that the correction should be made.

If the position of $P_{2}$, and hence also that of $X$, is not known, the explanation is as follows: If, while the line of collimation is pointing to $P_{3}$, a point is established there, and the instrument is then turned on its vertical axis in the direction indicated by the arrow till the line of collimation again points to $P_{1}$, the line of collimation and its axis of revolution have been turned in azimuth through an angle equal to $180^{\circ}-2 \beta$, and would be in the position shown at $A_{1} B_{1}$, in Fig. 52. The angle between the new aral former positions of the axis of revolution will be $2 \beta$. If now the line of collimation is revolved on its axis, it will fall in the line $C P_{4}$ as much to the right of $C P_{2}$ as it was before to the left; and the angle between its two positions pointing to $P_{3}$ and $P_{4}$, will be $4 \beta$; and hence, if $P_{2}$ had not been established, but only $P_{1}, C, P_{3}$, and $P_{4}$, the instrument would
be corrected by shifting the wire till the line of collimation should fall on $X_{2}$ one fourth the distance from $P_{4}$ to $P_{3}$. It should be noted that unless the axis of revolution has been made horizontal, the points $P_{1}, P_{3}$, and $P_{4}$ should all be in about the same horizontal plane ; that is, comparatively level ground should be used for this adjustment.

From the foregoing explanation there results the following rule for making this adjustment of the vertical wire, or, as it is usually called, the adjustment of the line of collimation :

Set the instrument over a point in a comparatively level stretch of ground. After leveling, establish a point about two hundred feet in one direction and turn the line of collimation on this point, clamping all motions except the vertical motion of the telescope. Transit the telescope and set a point in the opposite direction, directly in the line of collimation. Loosen one clamp for motion in azimuth and turn the instrument in azimuth till the line of collimation cuts the first point, and clamp all motions except the vertical motion of the telescope. Transit the telescope, and set a point by the side of the second point. If the adjustment is perfect, the second and third points will coincide. If they do not, move the vertical wire to one side, loosening first one screw and then tightening the opposite, till the line of collimation cuts a point one fourth the distance from the third point toward the second. Repeat the test for a check.

It will usually be found necessary to perform the operation more than once. All bisections should be made with the greatest possible precision, using the clamps and slowmotion screws of all motions except the vertical motion of the telescope.

The horizontal wire will probably not be appreciably disturbed by this adjustment, but may be tested as before. If it is found necessary to correct it, the vertical wire must again be tested as above. If the instrument is to be used for leveling or for reading vertical angles, it is just as necessary as in the level that the horizontal wire be properly adjusted so that the line of collimation shall be correct for all distances.

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IV. The adjustment of the axis of revolution of the telescope is made in any one of several ways. Two will be given.
(1) Hang a long plumb line from some tall and firm support, as a second-story window sill. Having set up the transit a short distance, say twenty feet, from the line, turn the line of collimation, as defined by the intersection of the wires, on a point in the line near its upper end, and clamp azimuth motion. Swing the telescope vertically, noting whether the intersection of the wires remains on the plumb line. If not, raise or lower one end of the axis of revolution of the telescope till the intersection of the wires will follow the plumb line.
(2) Set up the instrument near some tall building or other high object, setting the intersection of the wires on some welldefined point near the top, and clamp the azimuth motion. Plunge the telescope downward and set a point on the ground near the building or object. Reverse in azimuth, transit the telescope, and set again on the point near the top and clamp in azimuth. Drop the telescope, and see whether the intersection of the wires falls on the same point as before near the bottom. If it does, the axis is horizontal and needs no adjustment. If not, set a point midway between the two points at the bottom and adjust the axis by raising or lowering one end till the wire will cut that point when plunged from the upper point. The student will be able to make a diagram showing the correctness of these methods and will be able to tell whether the axis is moved in the second adjustment, so as to make the line of collimation cut a point one fourth the distance from the second to the first lower point or one half that distance. Unless this adjustment is very badly out, the vertical wire will not be again disturbed. If thought necessary, the screws may again be loosened and the vertical wire may be made truly vertical, after which the adjustments for collimation must again be tested. The instrument as a transit is now adjusted.
95. Level under the telescope. To use the transit as a level, the level under the telescope must be adjusted by the peg method as described for the leveling instrument in Chapter III., adjusting the bubble, not the wire.
96. Vertical circle. If the transit has a vertical circle, that should be adjusted so as to read $0^{\circ}$ when the bubble under the telescope is in the center of its tube, after the last-mentioned adjustment for leveling has been made. For this purpose the vernier of the vertical circle is adjustable. To make the adjustment, loosen the small screws that fasten the vernier to the standard and slide the vernier along as is indicated by the position of the zero of the circle till the zeros of scale and vernier coincide, the bubble being in the center of its tube.
97. Eyepiece. After the wires have been adjusted they may not appear in the center of the field of view. This is because the eyepiece is not properly centered. There need be no inaccuracy in work done with the transit if this is not corrected, but better seeing will result if it is corrected. This may be done by moving the ring through which the eyepiece slides, just as the wire ring was moved, there being a set of screws for this purpose next back of the wire screws. In the instrument shown in Fig. 48, this adjustment is permanently made. In such an instrument, the horizontal wire may usually be adjusted with sufficient precision for ordinary work by merely bringing it by eye to the center of the field of view. The vertical wire is then adjusted as described in Art. 94, III., and it is unnecessary to remove the telescope from the standards for the adjustment of the line of collimation. In inverting instruments, in which the field of view is limited by the eyepiece itself, this may not be true unless the eyepiece is in adjustment. It usually is.
98. Eccentricity. There may exist errors of graduation ; but such as are likely to occur in modern machine-graduated instruments cannot be detected by ordinary means. The center of the graduated circle may not lie in the axis of rotation, and the line joining the zeros of the verniers may not pass through the center of the graduated circle. If the latter condition exists, the verniers will not read $180^{\circ}$ apart, except possibly at some one point in case the first condition also obtains. The second condition simply means that the verniers are not $180^{\circ}$ apart, and no error will result from this cause if
the same vernier is read for both pointings for the measurement of an angle. If the second condition exists and the first does not, the angular distance between verniers will be the same for all parts of the circle; while, if the first condition exists, the angular distance for different parts of the circle will not be constant. These two facts furnish methods of testing for eccentricity that will be evident to the student who is familiar with the discussion of eccentricity in the compass.

## THE SOLAR TRANSIT.

99. What it is. The solar transit consists of a transit with an attachment for determining the true meridian by an observation on the sun. The solar transit and the solar compass, essentially the same as the solar part of the solar transit, have been extensively used in laying out the public lands of the United States. The solar compass was invented by William A. Burt of Michigan, and has become known as Burt's solar compass. The United States Land Office has specified that the work of subdividing the public lands must be done with solar instruments or transits. The solar compass is not now much used. When a solar instrument is used, it is usually the solar transit.
100. Fundamental conception. Before describing the solar transit, it will be necessary to explain the conceptions on which its action is based. For this purpose let the student imagine a celestial sphere, concentric with the earth and of infinite radius. This is not quite true to fact, but will assist the understanding of the following statements :

Let it be imagined that the equatorial plane and the axis of the earth are extended till one cuts from the celestial sphere a circle, called the celestial equator, and the other cuts the celestial sphere in two points that may be known as the north and south poles. Imagine further the meridian plane of the place of the reader extended to the celestial sphere. It will cut from that sphere a meridian circle. Let the earth be conceived to be very small as compared with the celestial sphere, so that points on its surface are practically at the center of the
sphere. If the reader imagines himself to be at the equator, the zenith will be the intersection of the celestial meridian and equator. If he now imagines that he moves north, his zenith point will move north by an angular amount equal to the latitude he covers. Moreover, his horizon, which at the equator included the poles, will be depressed below the north pole by an equal angular amount. Hence the altitude of the north pole will at any place indicate the latitude of the place, the angular distance from the pole to the zenith will be the colatitude; the angular distance zenith-equator will be the latitude, and the angular distance equator-south horizon will be the colatitude.

It is well known that, because of the inclination of the ecliptic to the earth's axis, the sun is below the celestial equator for six months of the year and above it for six months. The amount that it is above or below it is constantly changing, and the angular distance of the sun from the celestial equator at any moment is known as the declination of the sun for that moment. It is the same as terrestrial latitude. Let it be forgotten for a time that the sun is fixed and that it is the revolution of the earth on its axis that causes the sun to appear to rise in the east and set in the west, and let it be imagined that the sun does the moving just as it appears to do. Then, if the sun were to maintain a constant declination for a whole day, its path in the heavens would correspond to a parallel of latitude above or below the equator by the amount of the sun's declination for the day. On the 21st of June it would correspond to the extension of the Tropic of Cancer, and on the 21st of December to the extension of the Tropic of Capricorn.

If a pointer of any kind should be directed from the center of the celestial sphere toward the sun at any time during the day under consideration, it would make with the equatorial plane an angle equal to the declination, and with the polar axis an angle equal to the codeclination. If now this pointer is revolved about the polar axis, keeping the angle between them constant, the pointer will at all times point to some point in the path of the sun for the day ; and if it is revolved just as fast as the sun moves, it will all day point to the sun.
101. Description. The solar attachment consists essentially of an axis that is made to be parallel with the earth's axis, and a line of sight (pointer) that is set at an angle to the instrumental polar axis equal to the codeclination of the sun for the time of observation.


Fig. 53.
In Fig. 53 the polar axis is marked. It is made at right angles to the telescope tube, and hence if the telescope tube is
brought into the plane of the equator as shown, and is also in the meridian plane, the polar axis must be parallel to the terrestrial or celestial polar axis, or, as is commonly said, it must be pointing to the pole. If now the arm marked $A B$, which carries a line of sight, is brought to a zero reading on the declination are, it will be perpendicular to the polar axis and practically coincident with the equatorial plane. If the sun is for the day on the equator, the line of sight, on being revolved about the polar axis, will cut from the celestial sphere the path of the sun, or it can be at any time turned on the sun. If the sun is a few degrees above the equator and its declination is set off on the declination arc, with the are in the position shown in the figure, and the line of sight is then revolved about the polar axis, it will cut from the celestial sphere a circle parallel to the equator which will be for the day the path of the sun. So, as before, the line of sight may be at any time turned on the sun by simply revolving it about the polar axis. If now the whole transit is revolved in azimuth so that the polar axis no longer points to the pole, the line of sight will not, on being revolved, cut from the heavens. the path of the sun and can not be set on the sun at any time by merely revolving it about the polar axis. There may be one instant at which it can be thus set.
102. Method of use. This, then, furnishes the key to the method of use of the instrument, which is as follows: The direction of the meridian plane being unknown and desired, set off on the vertical circle of the instrument the colatitude of the place, so that the polar axis, when in the meridian, may point to the pole. Set off on the declination are the declination for the time of the observation. Now with the plates level, so that revolution about the vertical axis may be only in azimuth, revolve the instrument in azimuth and the line of sight about the polar axis till the sun is found to be in the line of sight. When this occurs, the polar axis and telescope lie in the meridian, and the instrument may be clamped and the line ranged out. There is a small circle which will then give the time of day, which was of course known beforehand, in order to compute the declination.

The declination is found in the "Nautical Almanac " ${ }^{1}$ for the longitude of Greenwich and for noon of each day in the year, and with the hourly change. The longitude of the place being known, the declination for the time and place may be readily computed. It must be remembered that in most places standard time, which probably is not the same as local time, is used and, if very different from local time, allowance must be made. A difference of fifteen minutes will not ordinarily make any appreciable error in the resulting work. The latitude and longitude may be taken from any good map, or the latitude may be observed by measuring on a previous night the altitude of Polaris at culmination, and adding or subtracting from the result the pole distance of the star. See Table IV., page 364. It may also be observed with the solar transit, as will be explained later.

The line of sight $A B$ consists of a lens at $A$ and a small silver disk at $B$. The line of sight is directed toward the sun by bringing the image of the sun formed by the lens into the center of a square ruled on the opposite silver plate. In order that the line of sight may be used when the sun is below the equator, there is a lens in each end, and a silver plate opposite each lens. If the declination were south, the declination are would be reversed from the position shown in the cut; and the lens in $B$ and the plate in $A$ would be used.
103. Limitations. Since there is a horizontal, that is, azimuth, and a vertical component to the sun's motion, except just at noon, when the motion appears to be all in azimuth, the image of the sun will appear to move off the square on the disk, if it is left stationary for a time, in a diagonal direction, and can be kept in the square only by revolving the line of sight about the polar axis and shifting the arm on the declination are, the polar axis being in the meridian. Just at noon, however, the motion of the sun is apparently all horizontal, and since at noon the line of sight will be in the same vertical plane as the polar axis and telescope, the sun's image will move out of the square horizontally or between two of the lines, so that

[^15]it could be kept in the square for a little time by moving the polar axis a little in azimuth. At this time, therefore, the meridian cannot be correctly determined. It can not be well done within one or two hours either side of noon.
104. Latitude. For the same reason, since at noon the exact meridian is not needed to get the sun in the line of sight, this is the time to observe for latitude, as follows :

Set up the instrument a little before noon. Set off the colatitude (as nearly as known) on the vertical circle, and the declination for noon on the declination arc. Now bring the sun's image upon the silver disk between the horizontal lines by using the azimuth motion of the transit and the vertical circle tangent screw. The image will appear to get lower as the sun goes higher. Keep the image in the square on the disk till it appears to begin to move upward. The sun is then at its highest point ; and if the declination has been properly set off and the plates carefully leveled, the vertical circle will read the colatitude of the place.

The solar transit may then be used at noon for finding latitude, and between 8 o'clock and 10.30 o'clock A.m. and 1.30 o'clock and 5 o'clock p.M. for determining a meridian. It could be used earlier and later but for refraction, which is of unknown and very irregular amount near the horizon.
105. Refraction. Thus far nothing has been said of refraction. It must always be consi lered in setting off the declination. The effect of refraction has been discussed in the chapter on leveling. It there appears that the object is always seen higher than it really is. Hence, in the sun's declination is north, and the exact amount is set off on the declination are, and the polar axis is brought into the meridian, and the line of sight pointed toward the sun, the sun's image would not be formed exactly in the little square, because the sun's rays would seem to come from a higher point than its true place. It is true that for small differences, like that of refraction or small errors in setting the latitude, the sun's image may be brought on the square by slightly turning the instrument in azimuth, thereby destroying the correctness of the determination of meridian. Hence it is necessary to know and correctly set off the latitude
and the declination corrected for refraction. The correction for refraction is greatest near the horizon, and is nothing at the zenith. Since it always makes a luminous body appear higher than it is, the correction must be added to north declinations and subtracted from south declinations so as to result in setting the line of sight to point higher than if the correction were not applied. The corrections to be used are as given in Appendix, Table VII., page 366.

## ADJUSTMENTS OF THE SOLAR TRANSIT.

106. Named. The adjustments of the solar apparatus are simple. They consist in making the lines of collimation parallel to each other and at right angles to the polar axis when the declination are reads zero; and in making the polar axis perpendicular to the telescope. The transit is supposed to be adjusted.
107. Lines of Collimation. These are made parallel by making each line parallel to the edges of the blocks containing them. To do this, remove the bar carrying the line of collimation, and replace it with a bar called an adjuster, which is simply a table upon which to rest the lines of collimation while adjusting. Rest the bar containing the lines of collimation on the adjuster, and, by any means, bring the sun into one line of collimation. Quickly turn the bar over (not end for end). If the image still falls in the square, the line of collimation is parallel to the two edges of the blocks. If not, move the silver disk through one half the apparent error of position of the sun's image and try again till complete. Turn the bar end for end, and adjust the other line of collimation. The two now being parallel to the blocks are parallel to each other. Remove the adjuster, and replace the bar on the instrument.
108. Declination vernier. Bring the declination vernier to read zero, and, by any means, bring the sun into one line of collimation. Quickly and carefully revolve the bar on the polar axis, and note whether the sun is in the other line of collimation. If so, the vernier is in adjustment. If not, move the arm till the image is centered, and note the reading of the vernier. Adjust the vernier by loosening it and moving it one half the apparent error. Test again.
109. Polar axis. To make the polar axis perpendicuiar to the telescope axis, first carefully level the plates and the telescope, and then level the solar apparatus by the capstan-headed screws shown underneath the attachment. This is precisely the same as leveling up an ordinary instrument, and is performed by the aid of an auxiliary level that rests on the blocks of the collimation bar. This bar is set so that the declination is zero, and is brought into the plane of the main telescope and leveled, then at right angles to this position and leveled again. This is an important adjustment, and should not be omitted.

## SAEGMULLER SOLAR ATTACHMENT.

110. Description and use. Fig. 54 shows another form of solar attachment, which consists simply of a small theodolite (so called because the telescope will not transit) attached to the top of the telescope of an engineer's transit. This is the invention of Mr. George N. Saegmuller, of Washington, D.C., and is made by him and furnished by other makers as well.

In operation it is similar to the last-described attachment. The difference is that a telescopic line of sight is substituted for the lens and disk, and the small level is used in conjunction with the vertical circle for a declination arc.

Suppose the transit to be turned with the object end of the telescope to the south, and the telescope level. Assume north declination. Turn the object end of the telescope down an amount equal to the corrected declination and bring the small bubble to the center of its tube. The angle between the main and small telescopes then equals the declination. If the object end is now pointed to the equator by setting off the colatitude upward from zero (not from the declination reading), the instrument is set ready for use.

Turn the instrument in azimuth and the small instrument about its polar axis till the sun's image is seen in the small telescope ; then the large telescope and polar axis lie in the meridian. There is a diagonal eyepiece to the smaller telescope to facilitate observations. The instrument is approximately pointed by the small disk sights above the level tube. The objective is turned up in setting off south declination.


Fig. 54.
111. Adjustments. The adjustments of this instrument are two: the adjustment of the polar axis, and that of the line of collimation and small bubble. The first is performed, after the transit has been carefully adjusted, by making the main telescope level, then leveling the small telescope over one set of capstan-headed screws at the base of the attachment and adjusting, and then over the other precisely as in adjusting the plate bubbles of the transit, correcting first by screws and next by tipping the small telescope. The second adjustment is performed indirectly by making the two lines of collimation parallel. Measure the distance between the centers of the two horizontal axes and draw on a piece of paper two parallel lines the same distance apart; tack this up at some distance from the instrument and about on the same level, with the lines horizontal. Make the two bubbles parallel by making both level, with the telescopes pointing toward the paper. Set the line of collimation in the large telescope on the lower line on the paper and adjust the wires of the small telescope until the line of collimation of the small telescope cuts the upper line.

## MERIDIAN AND TIME BY TRANSIT AND SUN.

112. Meridian. If the sun's altitude at any moment is measured with the transit, its azimuth at the same moment may be computed if its declination and the latitude of the place of observation are known. ${ }^{1}$ For in the spherical triangle pole-zenith-sun, the three sides will be known and the angle $Z$ (the azimuth) may be computed.

By Trigonometry if $s=\frac{1}{2}(a+b+c)$,

$$
\sin \frac{1}{2} Z=\sqrt{\frac{\sin (s-b) \sin (s-c)}{\sin b \sin c}}
$$

from which, if $\delta=$ declination, $\phi=$ latitude, and


Fig. 55. $h=$ altitude, and if $s^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2}$ (pole dist. $\left.\left(=90^{\circ} \pm \delta\right)+\phi+h\right)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin \frac{1}{2} Z=\sqrt{\frac{\sin \left(s^{\prime}-\phi\right) \sin \left(s^{\prime}-h\right)}{\cos \phi \cos h}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^16]Set up the transit at a convenient hour, over a tack in a stake and, with vernier at zero, set a stake some distance away, approximately north, and set the line of collimation on this with the lower motion. Unclamp the alidade and turn the line of collimation toward the sun and measure its altitude, at the same moment clamping the alidade. A small piece of red glass placed inside the cap of the eyepiece will enable the observer to look at the sun; or, with the eyepiece drawn fully out, the image of sun and wires may be received on a card held just back of the eyepiece. To observe most accurately, bring the horizontal and vertical wires tangent to the sun's image, correct the altitude by the sun's semi-diameter, $=0^{\circ} 16^{\prime}$, and the observed azimuth by $16^{\prime} \times$ sec $h$. The observed altitude must be corrected for refraction. The corrections given in Table IV., page 364, for Polaris, will answer if the column of latitude is taken as altitude. Substitute the corrected altitude, the latitude, and the declination, in Equation 1, and solve for $Z$. The difference between the observed azimuth of the sun and $Z$ is the azimuth of the line of stakes, from which the meridian may be laid off. ${ }^{1}$
113. Time. The angle at $P$ in Fig. 55 is called $t$, the hour angle. It is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin t=\frac{\sin Z \cos h}{\cos \delta} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Reduced to time, it is the true sun time, before or after noon, of the observation. This must be corrected by the equation of time (difference between true sun time and mean time) found in the "Nautical Almanac" to give mean local time. This must again be corrected by the difference between mean local and standard time. The result compared with the observed time of observation will give the error of the watch used.
${ }^{1}$ Let the student show the error in azimuth resulting from an error of $0^{\circ} 01^{\prime}$ in either latitude or altitude by computing $Z$ for values of $\phi$ differing by $0^{\circ} 01^{\prime}$ and the same for values of $h$. This should be done for latitudes near $30^{\circ}$ and $50^{\circ}$ and altitudes of $10^{\circ}$ and $60^{\circ}$ to show the effect of variations in these quantities. Practically the same errors arise with the solar transit for like errors of latitude and declination.

## CHAPTER V.

## STADIA MEASUREMENTS.

114. Defined. The stadia is a device for reading distances by means of a graduated rod and auxiliary wires in a telescope. In many farm surveys where the ground is very rough and not very valuable, the measurements may be made with the stadia. When so made, they will probably be somewhat more accurate than if made with a chain or tape with the care that would ordinarily be taken in the kind of work mentioned. In fact, with the use of care and judgment, the stadia will serve for almost all farm surveys.

The stadia is the best distance measurer for extensive topographical surveys. The discussion of the stadia that follows will perhaps indicate its limitations. The term "stadia" has been very loosely used in this country. The word is the plural of the Latin word "stadium," which means a standard of measure. "Stadia" was the word adopted by the Italian engineer Porro (who invented the method to be described) to indicate the rod used by him in the application of his method. The English have retained this use of the word and apply the word "tacheometer" to the transit equipped with the additional wires used in the method. "Tacheometer" means quick measurer, and is applied by at least one American manufacturing firm to their high-class instruments that are equipped with vertical circle, level to telescope, and stadia wires. The word as used by them is "tachymeter." As generally used in this country the word "stadia" means the combination of instrument and rod, but it is thought that it should be applied to the rod only, and the word "tacheometer" or "tachymeter" is a very suitable word to apply to the complete transit instrument equipped for stadia work. Such a transit should
have an inverting telescope of comparatively high power for the best work. The term "stadia wires" is properly used to designate the wires used with the stadia.
115. Method explained. Stadia measurements depend simply on the proportionality of the corresponding sides of similar triangles.

The telescope is fitted with two wires in addition to those already described, one above and one below the horizontal wire, and both parallel to it. When a rod is held at some distance from the instrument, and the telescope is properly focused on the rod, an image of the rod will be formed in the plane of the wires, and a certain definite portion of this image will be seen between the two stadia wires. The rod is usually held vertical. If the telescope is horizontal, the conditions will be as shown in Fig. 56. The two wires are shown at $U$ and $L$. By drawing lines from $U$ and $L$ through the optical center of the objective $O$, to the $\operatorname{rod} R$, the space on the rod whose image is included between the wires is seen to be $l u$.


From the similar triangles $O L U$ and $O l u$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{f_{2}}{f_{1}}=\frac{S}{i} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

A law of optics is that the sum of the reciprocals of the conjugate focal distances of a convex lens is equal to the reciprocal of the focal length of the lens. From this law, if $f$ is the focal length of the objective,

$$
\frac{1}{f_{1}}+\frac{1}{f_{2}}=\frac{1}{f}
$$

Whence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{f_{1}}=\frac{f_{2}-f}{f f_{2}} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equating this value of $\frac{1}{f_{1}}$ with that obtained from (1), there
results

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{2}=\frac{f}{i} S+f \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is the distance from the objective to the rod. It is usual to require the distance from the point over which the transit is set, to the rod. If the distance from the objective to the center of the horizontal axis, which is vertically over the plumb line. is represented by $c$, the total distance required is

$$
\begin{equation*}
D=\frac{f}{i} S+(f+c) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

If, then, a graduated rod is held at an unknown distance from the instrument, the distance will become known by multiplying the space intercepted on the rod by the ratio of $f$ to $i$ and adding to the product the constant quantity $(f+c)$.
116. Spacing of the wires. The value of $\frac{f}{i}$ must be known. Sometimes the wires are made so that the space between them is adjustable. This is not considered by the author as good practice. The wires should be fixed. They are attached to the same ring that carries the cross wires, and should be spaced at equal distances from the horizontal wire. This is not necessary, but is very convenient in reading, because it will occasionally happen that but one stadia wire and the horizontal wire can be read. This is likely to occur in brushy country, but should not be permitted when it is possible, at an expense commensurate with the importance of the work, to avoid it. In case it should occur, it is convenient to have the wires equally spaced, because the reading of one wire multiplied by two will give a sufficiently accurate determination of the distance. In case the wires are not equally spaced, separate values of the intervals may be determined for the wires.

It is thought best to have the ratio $\frac{f}{i}=100$ for convenience. If one is introducing stadia wires in his transit, he will find
that it is practically impossible to accomplish this result accurately himself. It can rarely be done outside of the maker's shop. However, it is not absolutely necessary to make this ratio 100 , as the rod may be graduated to suit the instrument.
117. To approximate the value of $f$. Focus the telescope on a distant point (theoretically the point should be infinitely distant, as a star) and measure the distance from the center of the objective to the plane of the wires. This is the value of $f$.
118. The value of $c$. This is not quite constant in most instruments, since the objective is moved in and out in focusing for different distances. For almost all work done by the stadia the error from this cause will not exceed one tenth of an inch, which is inappreciable compared with the smallest unit readings taken by this method. Single distances may not be read in careful work much closer than the nearest half foot; and, in a very large percentage of work done with the stadia, the distances are read only to the nearest yard or meter.

The value of $c$ may be determined by focusing on an object at, say, two hundred feet distance, and measuring the distance from the objective to the center of the horizontal axis. In some inverting instruments the focusing of the image on the wires is accomplished by moving the eyepiece and wires together, instead of the objective. In such an instrument $c$ is a constant.
119. The value of $\frac{f}{i}$ and $(f+c)$. If the value of $\frac{f}{i}$ is not known, it may be determined as follows : Select a strip of level ground, drive a stake and center it with a tack. Set the transit over this point. From this point measure two distances, say, one hundred feet and two hundred feet. Hold a rod at each of the two distant points, and note the space intercepted on the rod at each point.

$$
\begin{align*}
D & =\frac{f}{i} S+(f+c)  \tag{5}\\
D^{\prime} & =\frac{f}{i} S^{\prime}+(f+c) \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

In each of these equations, $D$ and $S$ are known, and hence $\left(\frac{f}{i}\right)$ and $(f+c)$ may be found.
120. The rod. While a rod graduated by lines to feet, tenths and hundredths, as the ordinary leveling rod (see page 47), may be used as a stadia, it is more convenient to use a rod that is graduated so as to give the distance intercepted by the wires directly by inspection, without reading the lower and the upper wire and making a mental subtraction, as would be necessary in the use of the level rod. Various patterns of rods have been devised by different surveyors. A rod suitable for a topographic survey covering a large area and mapped to a very small scale would not be suitable for a similar survey of a small tract to be mapped on a large scale. In the former case the units on the rod should be yards or meters, while in the latter case the units should be feet. The reason for this difference will be apparent. For any work connected with land surveys the rod should be graduated to feet, tenths, and hundredths.

An excellent form of rod is that designed by Mr. T. D. Allin of Pasadena, Cal. ${ }^{1}$ Fig. 57 is a drawing of a rod designed on the same principle as that of Mr. Allin. The form of the figures is somewhat modified, to the improvement of the rod. The essential features of a stadia rod are, that it shall be well graduated in such designs as will render it easily and quickly read. There should always be some of the white rod showing at every graduation, to give definiteness to the position of the wire. It will be noticed that this has been accomplished in the rod shown in Fig. 57. The peculiarity of this rod is that the different divisions are very distinctly marked so as to make the reading of the distance very rapid and easy. It is assumed that the value of $\frac{f}{i}$ is 100 , though this is not necessary, as a rod could be graduated with these same diagrams to fit any instrument. In the rod shown, the distance from point to point of the finest divisions is two one-hundredths of a foot, corresponding to two feet of distance. The distance from


Fig. 57.

[^17]point to point of the larger divisions shown on the right of the rod, is one tenth of a foot, corresponding to ten feet dis-


Fig. 58. tance. On the left side of the rod the half-foot points stand out plainly, corresponding to fifty feet distance, and each whole foot is also plainly seen, giving one hundred feet distance. These whole feet are again marked in sets of three, giving three hundred feet distance. To read the rod, set the upper wire on some fifty-foot point and then run down the rod to the lower wire, taking in at once all the three-hundredfoot spaces, adding the hundreds and the final fifty, then the tens, and lastly the single units.

Another good rod for long-distance work, is shown in Fig. 58. The manner of reading this rod is seen from the figures at the side of the rod. This rod is better suited for yard or meter units than the Allin rod, and the author has used it with feet units with success.
121. Inclined readings. It has been assumed thus far that all readings taken with the stadia are horizontal. It will be evident that there will probably be more readings that are inclined than horizontal. When the readings are inclined, the formulas already derived must be modified.


Fig. 59.
In Fig. 59 let the distance from $I$ to $A$ be required. If the rod were held perpendicular to the line of sight, the reading $E F$ would at once give the inclined distance $I C$, which then
multiplied by the cosine of the angle $\alpha$ would give the required horizontal distance. The angle $\alpha$ is determined by setting the horizontal cross wire on a point on the rod as much above $\boldsymbol{A}$ as the center of the telescope is above the ground at $I$, and then reading the vertical circle of the transit. The rod is usually held vertical. Therefore, the reading obtained will be $D B$. If the angles at $E$ and $F$ are considered right angles, an approximation sufficiently exact for the purpose, $E F$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
E F=D B \cos \alpha \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

If, then, $R$ is the reading $D B$, the distance $I C$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
I C=\frac{f}{i} R \cos \alpha+(f+c) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

But it is the distance $I G$ that is required.

$$
\begin{align*}
I G & =I C \cos \alpha \\
& =\frac{f}{i} R \cos ^{2} \alpha+(f+c) \cos \alpha \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

From this equation the distance is obtained. If it were necessary to perform this multiplication for every sight taken, very much of the usefulness of the stadia would be offset by this great labor. The value of $(f+c)$ varies from, say, nine inches to fifteen inches or more, according to the construction of the instrument. Where such an error is unimportant, the final term may be neglected. For vertical angles between five degrees and six degrees, the exact angle depending on the value of $(f+c)$, this term is just balanced by the difference between $\frac{f}{i} R$ and $\frac{f}{i} R \cos ^{2} \alpha$; hence for angles near this value no correction need be applied, and the distance may be recorded as read.

For the more ready computation of the results, tables have been computed giving the value of $\frac{f}{i} R \cos ^{2} \alpha$, for $R=1$, and angles from $0^{\circ}$ to $30^{\circ}$. Such a table is Table XIV., Appendix, pages $380-382$. To explain the use of the table, suppose a reading of 1.52 feet, usually read at once 152 feet, is had with a vertical angle of $5^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$. Under $5^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ Hor. Dist. find 99.08 , which multiply by 1.52 , and add the correction found at the bottom of the page for $c$, which is $(f+c)$. This multiplication may
be hastened by the use of a slide rule, ${ }^{1}$ which is an instrument that every surveyor should own and use. The column in the table headed Diff. Elev. is used when it is desired to know the elevation of the position of the rod above the instrument.
122. Difference of elevation. In Fig. 59, since the instrument is directed to a point on the rod as much above $A$ as the center of the instrument is above the ground at $I$ (found by standing a rod alongside the instrument), the difference in elevation between the ground at $I$ and at $A$ will be $C G$, and

$$
\begin{align*}
C G & =I C \sin \alpha \\
& =\frac{f}{i} R \cos \alpha \sin \alpha+(f+c) \sin \alpha \\
& =\frac{f}{i} R \frac{\sin 2 \alpha}{2}+(f+c) \sin \alpha . \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

For any reading and vertical angle the value of $C G$ is found from the table in the same way as was the horizontal distance.
123. Diagram. A still more rapid method of reducing the observations is by means of diagrams. Omitting the second term in equation (9), the distance for any given vertical angle is proportional to the reading. To make a diagram to give the correction to apply to the readings to get the required distance, considering only the first term, a distance equal to the longest probable reading is laid off along one side of a sheet of cross-section paper ruled to tenths of inches or other small units. Suppose the distance to be 1000 feet. A space of ten inches may then be laid off, making the scale of distance 100 feet to an inch. Select an angle, as, say, $10^{\circ}$, and find from Table XIV. the true distance for a reading of 1000 feet and a vertical angle of $10^{\circ}$. The difference between this value and 1000 feet will be the correction to apply to the reading to get the true distance.

At the extremity of the distance line $A B$, Fig. 60, lay off at right angles to $A B$, and to a scale of, say 10 feet to an inch, the correction just found for the distance and angle. Suppose the point found is $C$. Draw from $C$ to $A$ a straight line.

[^18]Since the correction for this angle of $10^{\circ}$ will be proportional to the reading, the correction for any other reading than 1000 feet will be given by the ordinate to the line just drawn at the proper distance from $A$. This will be evident from the similarity of the triangles involved. Thus the correction for any reading, as say 450 feet, is found by looking along $A B$ to the 450 -foot point, and taking to the scale of 10 feet to an inch


Fig. 61.
the ordinate at the 450 -foot point to the $10^{\circ}$ line. A similar line should be drawn in a similar manner for all other angles. It will be sufficiently exact to draw the lines for degrees only, estimating the minutes by eye.

A diagram for differences in elevation may be made in the same manner (see Fig. 61), except that it will be necessary to draw the ten-minute lines, as the elevations may not be estimated with sufficient exactness without these lines.

It should be noticed that the lines marked $1^{\circ}, 2^{\circ}, 3^{\circ}$, etc., do not make with the horizontal line angles of $1^{\circ}, 2^{\circ}, 3^{\circ}$, etc., but are drawn to the points found by laying off on the vertical the correction to the reading for the given angle, as found in the tables or as worked out from the equations. For the differences in elevation, the differences as found in the table for the given distance and angles are laid off on the extreme vertical line. The ten-minute lines may ordinarily be drawn with sufficient exactness by dividing the space between two adjacent

degree lines into six equal parts. These two diagrams may be drawn on one sheet of paper. ${ }^{1}$ There are other forms of diagrams made for the same work. ${ }^{2}$

The second term of the equations must be applied separately when it may be necessary to apply it at all.
124. Slide rule. 'The most rapid method of reducing the differences of elevation is by means of a special slide rule ${ }^{3}$ designed for this work by Mr. Colby of St. Louis. A cut of this rule is shown in Fig. 62. It is about four and one half feet long by one and one half inches high by three inches wide. The slide is a thin strip of wood with a varnished paper scale. Full instructions for use accompany each rule. With a little practice with this rule, rather more than 300 observations can be reduced in one hour.
125. Graduating a stadia. The stadia is not usually kept in stock by instrument makers, probably because there is no one design that is generally adopted by surveyors, each surveyor having his own idea as to the best form. Any instrument maker will make these rods after a model pattern furnished by the surveyor, but the surveyor may make his own rods very much cheaper than he can get them made.

Select a straight-grained piece of any light wood that is not too soft, have it dressed to the required length, width, and thickness. These dimensions are usually twelve or fifteen
${ }^{1}$ Such diagrams are printed and published by John Wiley and Sons, New York.
${ }^{2}$ See "Engineers' Surveying Instruments" by Professor Ira O. Baker.
${ }^{8}$ The principle of this rule will be understood after reading the article on the Slide Rule in Chapter VI.
feet by three to four inches by seven eighths of an inch. The wood is generally made uniform in dimensions throughout, but may be made thinner toward the top and may be shod with a strip of iron or brass at the bottom. Some prefer to have no top or bottom, but to have the rod graduated symmetrically from the center out to the ends, so that whichever end is turned up the reading is made equally well. There seems to be no great advantage in this. The rod shown in Fig. 57 is three inches wide inside of the side strips.

Give the rod three light coats of white paint, letting each coat become thoroughly dry before the next is put on. After the final coat is dry, graduate the rod. To do this, set up the transit that is to be used with the rod, on a level strip of ground, and, having determined the value $(f+c)$, lay this distance off in front of the point of the plumb bob. From the point thus obtained, measure carefully with a steel tape distances of one hundred feet, two hundred feet, three hundred feet, and more if desired. (If the rod is to be graduated to yards or meters, the distances should be one hundred, two hundred, and three hundred, of the units to be used.) Hold the blank rod at these distances and carefully mark with a hard pencil the points cut by the two wires at the different distances.

The spaces cut should, of course, be strictly proportional to the distances ; but owing to inaccuracies of observation they may not be exactly so. Measure the several spaces intercepted and divide the three-hundred space by three, the twohundred space by two, and average the quotients with the one-hundred space to determine the average space intercepted at one hundred feet. These spaces should be measured with great care, using either a good steel tape or a standard draughtsman's scale. This value of the space intercepted at one hundred feet having been determined, it is divided into as many equal parts as may be required, and the rod is spaced off for the diagrams that have been selected for use. The diagrams are then laid out in pencil and are painted on the rod, with black paint. A good quality of paint should be used, one that will dry with a dead rather than a glossy, surface, that is, the oil should be "killed" with turpentine.

The rod should then be allowed to dry. When it is thoroughly dry, strips of hard wood, about one eighth to one fourth of an inch wider than the rod is thick, are screwed to the edges of the rod. These strips, which are about a quarter of an inch thick, are to protect the graduated surface of the rod. They are very necessary to a rod that is to be much used. The rod should be shod with brass or iron about one eighth of an inch thick, at both ends if it is to be used either end up, and at the bottom if it is to have a bottom.

For some kinds of work reds are graduated to read directly from the instrument without the introduction of the $(f+c)$ correction. This is done by measuring the distances one hundred, two hundred, three hundred, or more, units from the plumb bob, noting the spaces intercepted at these distances, taking a mean value for one hundred units, and graduating the rod by this. The readings will be correct on such a rod for but one distance. If the rod is graduated by measuring from the instrument a distance which is assumed to be about a mean of those that will be read with the rod, and dividing the space intercepted into the required number of units, the readings taken thereafter will be correct only for the distance for which the rod was graduated. The space intercepted will always be that between the dotted lines radiating from $F$, Fig. 56.

It will be observed that, with a rod graduated as first described, it is not necessary that $\frac{f}{i}$ should be one hundred, or any other definite quantity, since the actual space intercepted at one hundred feet may be divided into one hundred units, and the rod may then be read as easily as if it had been graduated to hundredths of a foot and $\frac{f}{i}$ were equal to one hundred. $\frac{f}{i}$ is equal to one hundred of the units used. It is frequently convenient to use a level rod for single measurements (as the crossing of a stream on a survey in which the stadia is not being regularly used), or to be able to graduate rods directly in feet and hundredths instead of taking the trouble to graduate them as has been described, it being often practical to use such rods for a time as level rods. For these reasons, and others, it is thought best to make $i$ equal $\frac{f}{100}$.
126. Smith's observations. It is possible for the maker to do this for the conditions of atmosphere obtaining at the time of the setting.

Mr. L. S. Smith, C. E., has recently shown ${ }^{1}$ that systematic errors are introduced into work when it is assumed that a wire interval determined at any one time is correct for all future work. This is due to the fact that the effect of refraction is a variable quantity depending on the relative temperatures of air and ground. The effect of refraction is very much greater near the ground than a. few feet above. It is much greater at noon than before or after. The effect varies for different distances. It is also shown that observers have different "personal equations."

It follows from the above, that to secure the best results with the stadia, and indeed to avoid cumulative errors, the rod, if graduated by the first method, should be graduated with a unit obtained as the average result of a series of observations at varying distances, at all hours of the day, for several days.

Also if a wide difference occurs in climatic or temperature conditions between those obtaining when the rod is graduated and those at the time of any survey, the rod should be regraduated for the particular survey, or a factor applied to the results. This factor should be determined as noted below.

It is also shown by these conclusions and the above result of them that it is better to graduate the rod to standard units and depend on the maker to place the wires at the interval $\frac{f}{100}$. It will be sufficient for many surveys to consider this as correct and to use the reduction tables or diagrams at once.

But if close work is to be done, it will be better to determine the wire interval by observations at all hours of the working day, and on several days, so that the average result shall conform to the average to be expected from the average conditions to prevail during the survey.

Thus it will be found that wires set $\frac{f}{100}$ apart will intercept on the rod held at distances of $100+(f+c), 200+(f+c)$, etc., from the instrument, varying lengths, from possibly a

[^19]little more than one unit to a little less than one unit for each 100 feet. The average result of all the observations would give a factor by which all observed distances on the survey should be affected before entering the reduction tables or diagrams. Thus suppose the average intercept for $100+(f+c)$ distance as determined from all observations should be 1.0039 , then all distances read would be read too long, and should be multiplied by $\frac{1}{1.0039}$ before entering the reduction tables. The multiplication is very quickly performed by the aid of an auxiliary diagram, or table, or with the slide rule. It is not strictly correct to say that all distances will be read too long. Some will be too long and some too short, but the average result will be too long. By supplying this factor perhaps no one of the distances is made correct, but the errors introduced are no longer cumulative, as they would be were the factor not used. They are now compensating. The factor should be determined by the person who is to make the observations on the survey.

By adopting these precautions and determining a factor for each of several average conditions, - say for each of the four seasons, - a degree of precision of one in two thousand to one in five thousand may be obtained with the stadia.
127. Notes. Owing to the fact that vertical angles must be observed in traversing with the stadia, the form of notes to be kept in such work differs from that used with the transit and tape or chain. The form shown below is a good one.

| Traverse of Mud Turnpike, June 21, 1895. |  |  |  |  | Right page for remarks and descriptive notes and sketches. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Station. | Azimuth. | Distance, Feet. | Vert. <br> Angle. | Needle. |  |
| A | $37^{\circ} 42^{\prime}$ | 476 | $+4^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | $37^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$ | Describe A. |
| B | $63^{\circ} 26^{\prime}$ | 324 | $-0^{\circ} 26^{\prime}$ | $63^{\circ} 25^{\prime}$ | Describe B. |
| etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. |

When elevations are to be kept, the form of notes shown on page 252 is better. If it is necessary to correct the distances, the corrected distances may be written in red in the distance column, leaving the original distances for possible future checks.

## CHAPTER VI.

## LAND SURVEY COMPUTATIONS.

128. General considerations and definitions. It will be evident that, if the lengths and bearings of all the sides of a closed field have been determined, these lengths may be reproduced to scale on paper, with the proper bearings referred to a meridian line drawn on the paper. It will be further evident that, if these lines and bearings have been correctly determined and have been laid off consecutively, joining end to end, they should form a closed figure similar to the field on the ground. A survey of a closed field rarely "closes" on the drawing board, owing to the facts that distances can not be exactly measured, that the various sides, offering different obstacles will not be measured with the same proportionate error, that if a compass is used, the bearings are ordinarily determined only to the nearest quarter degree, and that even if a transit is used, these bearings are not exactly determined. If the drawing is done with the aid of a protractor, the survey may close on the drawing, even though there is some error, because the errors are too small to show with the scale used. It is therefore necessary to resort to computation to determine just what the error of closure is.

To balance a survey is to determine the error of closure and, if it is not greater than is allowable, to distribute a quantity equal to the error, but of opposite sign, among the several sides, changing the notes accordingly, so that the survey shall "balance" or close. This is necessary because a description of a piece of property appearing in a deed ought to be such that it will indicate a possible closed tract, and such descriptions are, or should be, made from surveyors' notes. Before describing the method of doing this, it will be necessary to explain a few terms.

The latitude of a point is its perpendicular distance from an assumed base parallel.

The longitude of a point is its perpendicular distance from an assumed base meridian.

The latitude of a line is the latitude of its middle point.
The longitude of a line is the longitude of its middle point.
The perpendicular distance of the final end of a given line from a latitude parallel through its initial end is the latitude difference of the line.

The perpendicular distance of the final end of a given line from the meridian through its initial end is the longitude difference.

In Fig. 63 the latitude difference of the line $A B$ is $B D$;


Fig. 63. the longitude difference is $C B$. If $\alpha$ is the bearing of the line,
$B D=C A=l \cos \alpha$ $C B=\quad l \sin \alpha$

Therefore the latitude difference is equal to the length of the line multiplied by the cosine of the bearing; and the longitude difference equals the length of the line multiplied by the sine of the bearing.

The latitude and longitude differences of the line $B E$ are respectively:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& B F=l^{\prime} \cos \beta \\
& F E=l^{\prime} \sin \beta
\end{aligned}
$$

The latitude and longitude of the point $B$, referred to the meridian and parallel through $A$, are respectively $A C$ and $B C$.

The latitude and longitude of the point $E$, referred to the same meridian and parallel, are respectively $A C^{\gamma}+B F$ and $C B+F E$.

Latitude differences measured north are considered positive, and those measured south negative. Longitude differences
measured east are considered positive, and those measured west negative.

North latitudes are likewise positive, and south latitudes negative. East longitudes are positive, and west longitudes negative.

The latitude and longitude differences of the line $E G$ are respectively $-E H$ and $+H G$. The latitude and longitude of the point $G$ are respectively :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Lat. }=A C+B F-E H=G M \\
& \text { Long. }=C B+F E+H G=A M
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly the latitude and longitude of the point $I$ are respectively:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Lat. }=A C+B F-E H-G J=-M J=-K I, \\
& \text { Long. }=C B+F E+H G-J I=+A K .
\end{aligned}
$$

From the above discussion the method of determining the latitude and longitude of any point in a traverse will readily be seen.

The latitude of any point in a traverse is the latitude of the initial point of the traverse plus the algebraic sum of the latitude differences of all the courses of the traverse to the given point.

The student may formulate a similar statement for the longitude of a point in a traverse.

In the figure the latitude and longitude of the initial point are zero. In some cases this may not be so.

Since in a closed traverse the initial and final points are coincident, their latitudes and longitudes must be the same, and hence the algebraic sum of the latitude differences and the algebraic sum of the longitude differences should each equal zero.
129. Error of closure. If the latitude and longitude differences of the courses are computed, and the algebraic sum of each equals zero, the field closes ; otherwise it does not.

If the field does not close, and if it is drawn on paper by laying off from a meridian and parallel the latitudes and longitudes of the several corners, in order, it will be found that the last point, which should be coincident with the first, is some distance from it. This distance is known as the
error of closure, and is the hypotenuse of a right triangle, whose two sides are the error in latitude and the error in longitude. Its length, therefore, is the square root of the sum of the squares of the errors of the latitude and longitude. If this error is very small, or nothing at all, it indicates that the angles of the field have been correctly determined (though the bearings may none of them be right), and that if one is wrong, all are wrong by an equal amount. It also indicates that the lengths of the sides have been measured correctly so far as their relative lengths are concerned, though, perhaps, their true lengths have not been determined. The correctness of the bearings depends, if a compass has been used, on the correctness with which the declination has been determined; and the determination of the true length of the lines depends on the length of the chain or tape and the precision with which it has been handled.

It is usually assumed, however, that the constants of the compass and chain have been correctly determined, and that, therefore, the error of closure is a true measure of the precision of the survey. If a transit has been used to measure angles, from which the bearings of the sides have been computed, the error will be almost wholly due to erroneous measurement. The surveyor should know whether the error of closure is such as to be the result of justifiable or unjustifiable lack of precision in the work, or gross error. It may be said in this connection that, in ordinary farm surveying, an error of one in five hundred, obtained by dividing the error of closure by the total perimeter of the field, is tolerable, and that the precision should be, for good farm work, as high as one in two thousand, or better.

## BALANCING THE SURVEY.

130. Fundamental hypotheses. If a compass is used, the method of correcting the notes is based on the supposition that any errors are due as much to inaccuracy of angle measurement as to a lack of precision in measuring lines. This does not mean that the error of closure due to any one line is as much owing to erroneous linear measurement as to erroneous
determination of bearing; but that it is probable that in a line in which an error of bearing would tend to produce the observed error of closure, such an error has been made, and little or no error in measurement of length; while in a line in which an error of length would tend to produce the observed error of closure, such an error in length has been made with little or no error in bearing. This means that a line whose bearing is about normal to the line which represents the error of closure, would be corrected in bearing and not in length; while a line that is parallel to the direction of the line representing the error of closure, would be corrected in length and not in bearing. Lines whose bearings are intermediate between those mentioned would be corrected in both bearing and length, the greater portion of the error being given to bearing or length in proportion to the effect that each would have on the error of closure; thus, if the bearing of the line were nearly normal to the line representing the error of closure, it would be corrected more for bearing than for length, and if nearly parallel to that line it would be corrected mostly in length.

The plausibility of the supposition that errors of closure are due as much to errors in bearing as to errors in length, is clear when it is remembered that in using the compass, bearings are not read with greater precision than to the nearest quarter degree, thus making possible an error of from nothing to seven and one half minutes. The error resulting from an error in bearing is proportional to the length of the line on which the error is made, and an error of seven minutes gives an erroneous position for the end of a line of one foot in five hundred, or as much as would be allowed in measurement of lines.

It is assumed that errors in length will be proportional to the lengths of the lines measured, although it is more probable that they are proportional to the difficulties involved in the measurement, and to the lengths.
131. The method explained. If the assumptions are all true, it will follow that the error of closure should be distributed among the several sides of the field in proportion to their several lengths. The demonstration of this is as follows :

In Fig. 64 let $A B C D E$ be the plot of the notes, $E A$ being the error of closure, known as the closing line. The line $A F$ is the crror in latitude, and $E F$ is the error in longi-

tude. Let the length of $A B=a, B C=b, C D=c, D E=d$, and let the sum of these lengths be $s$. Divide $E A$ into four parts,

$$
\begin{aligned}
E E^{\prime}=\frac{a}{s} \overline{E A}, \quad E^{\prime} E^{\prime \prime} & =\frac{b}{s} \overline{E A}, \quad E^{\prime \prime} E^{\prime \prime \prime}=\frac{c}{s} \overline{E A}, \\
E^{\prime \prime \prime} A & =\frac{d}{s} \overline{E A} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Lay off the lines $B B^{\prime}, C C^{\prime}, D D^{\prime}$, equal and parallel to $E E^{\prime}$. Lay off also $C^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ and $D^{\prime} D^{\prime \prime}$, equal and parallel to $E^{\prime} E^{\prime \prime}$. Lay off also $D^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime \prime \prime}$ equal and parallel to $\boldsymbol{E}^{\prime \prime} \boldsymbol{E}^{\prime \prime \prime}$. Connect $A B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime \prime \prime} A$. This will be the correctly closed field, and to each side will have been given such a portion of the entire error of closure, as that side is of the whole perimeter. From the similarity of the triangles $A E F, A E^{\prime} F^{\prime}$,
$A E^{\prime \prime} F^{\prime \prime}$, etc., it will be seen that the same proportion of the error of latitude and the error of longitude has been given to each side, whence the following rule :

Rule : Correct the latitude difference and longitude difference of each course by an amount determined by the proportion; the required correction in latitude (or longitude) is to the total error in latitude (or longitude) as the length of the course in question is to the entire perimeter of the field. ${ }^{1}$

It will be observed that the courses nearly parallel to $\boldsymbol{E A}$ have been corrected mostly in length, while those nearly normal to $E A$ have been corrected mostly in bearing.

From the corrected latitude and longitude differences new bearings and lengths are computed.
132. The practice. This method is not strictly followed in practice. It is, as has been seen, based on certain assumptions as to the probable mode of occurrence of the errors. In a given case it may be that the surveyor knows, or is reasonably certain, that a greater portion of the error is due to the difficulty encountered in measuring one side, and in such a case he would give the greater portion of the error to that side. In determining that this is true, he must first ascertain the direction of the closing line to see whether the line supposed to be difficult to measure is parallel or nearly parallel to the closing line, so that an error in measurement would be responsible for the resulting closing line. It may be that it is believed that the error is not confined to one course but is distributed over all the courses, though not in the proportion of their lengths, as some may have offered greater difficulties to measurement than others. If this is so, the error is distributed in the following manner:

Rule: Determine by judgment which line has offered the least difficulties to measurement and number this line 1. Give to each of the other sides a number that shall represent its relative difficulty of measurement, as 2, 3, 21 2 , etc. Multiply each length by its number and find the sum of the multiplied lengths. Distribute the total errors of latitude and longitude by the follow-

[^20]ing proportion: The correction to the latitude (or longitude) difference of any course is to the total error in latitude (or longitude) as the multiplied length of the course is to the sum of the multiplied lengths.

This is termed weighting the courses in proportion to their probable error, and results in distributing the whole error in proportion to the difficulties encountered and the lengths of the lines.

When the lines are all of equal difficulty of measurement, or when one who knows nothing of the field work balances the survey, the first method should be used. In case the person making the survey also balances it (as should always be the case, when possible), the second method should be followed.

The original notes of the survey should not be destroyed. The new latitude and longitude differences and lengths and bearings of courses may be written in the notebook in red ink over the originals. The originals may be useful in the future in determining how the corrections were made. It is not common to correct the observed bearings and lengths to correspond to the corrected latitude and longitude differences; but it is well to do this.
133. When a transit is used. In case there is no reason to believe there is any error in bearings, as when a transit is used for determining angles, and therefore the entire error of closure is due to lack of uniformity in measurement, the survey should be balanced in such a manner that only the lengths shall be corrected. No satisfactory rule has yet been devised to accomplish this, and it must usually be done by trial.

If the field is rectangular and one side may be taken parallel to the meridian of the survey, or assumed so for the purpose, the following rule accomplishes the desired result :

Rule: The correction in latitude (or longitude) difference for any course is to the total error in latitude (or longitude) as the latitude (or longitude) difference of the course is to the arithmetical sum of the latitude (or longitude) differences.

It is believed that the student can demonstrate the correctness of this rule for the assumed conditions, if he remembers that the sides must be corrected in length only, their directions remaining unchanged.

## SUPPLYING OMISSIONS.

134. Necessity for. At times it is impossible to measure the length of a line ; at other times it is impracticable to determine directly its bearing; and sometimes it is impossible to do either. Moreover, it may happen that the length of one line and the bearing of another have not been determined. If any one of these conditions prevails, it becomes necessary to supply the omission in the notes. To do this leaves the work without a check, as all the errors are thrown into the quantity that is supplied; hence no omission that can in any way be supplied in the field, should be permitted.

The cases that may occur are the following :
I. The length of one side may be wanting.
II. The bearing of one side may be wanting.
III. The bearing and length of one side may be wanting.
IV. The bearing of one side and the length of another may be wanting.
V. The lengths of two sides may be wanting.
VI. The bearings of two sides may be wanting.
135. General discussion. It should be clear from what has preceded, that the algebraic sums of the latitude and longitude differences of the known sides are respectively equal to the latitude and longitude differences necessary to close the field (but are of opposite signs), or to the latitude and longitude differences of the wanting sides plus the errors in latitude and longitude of the known sides. Since there is no means of determining these errors, the sums are taken as the latitude and longitude differences of the defective sides.

It is therefore possible to write two independent equations as follows :
I. The algebraic sum of the products of the lengths of the defective courses by the cosines of their respective bearings equals the algebraic sum of the latitude differences of the known sides, but has the opposite sign.
II. The algebraic sum of the products of the lengths of the defective courses by the sines of their respective bearings equals the algebraic sum of the longitude differences of the known sides, but has the opposite sign.

Having but two equations, there can be but two unknown quantities, and these may be as in Art. 134.

If $l_{1}$ and $l_{2}$ and $\theta_{1}$ and $\theta_{2}$ are the lengths and bearings of the defective sides, and if $\Sigma$ is taken as a sign indicating the algebraic sum of any series of quantities, as in this case the latitude and longitude differences, and $L$ and $M$ represent latitude and longitude differences respectively, the above two equations may be written as follows :

$$
\begin{align*}
& l_{1} \cos \theta_{1}+l_{2} \cos \theta_{2}=-\Sigma L,  \tag{1}\\
& l_{1} \sin \theta_{1}+l_{2} \sin \theta_{2}=-\Sigma M . \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

These are, of course, equivalent to the following general equations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Sigma L=0, \\
& \Sigma M=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

136. Cases I., II., and III. These are most readily solved by applying equations (1) and (2). If but one quantity is wanting, as the length or bearing of a side, either equation (1) or equation (2) will solve, one of the left-hand terms becoming part of the right member.

If both the length and bearing of one side are wanting, one of the left-hand terms in each equation becomes part of the right member, and equation (2) may be divided by equation (1), giving

$$
\tan \theta=\frac{-\Sigma M}{-\Sigma L}
$$

Having $\theta_{1}$, the length is found by substituting in either equation.
The signs of the sums of the known differences will indicate the direction of the defective side.
137. Cases IV., V., and VI. The author thinks the remaining cases are better solved by special methods as follows :

Case IV. 1. The two imperfect sides are adjacent. With the algebraic sums of the known latitude and longitude differences, compute the length and bearing of a closing side. This side will form with the two defective sides a triangle in which two sides and one angle are known. ${ }^{1}$ The triangle may then be solved, giving the required quantities.

[^21]2. The defective sides are not adjacent. Imagine some of the sides shifted till the defective sides are adjacent and proceed as before. Thus, in Fig. 65, the defective sides are $D E$ and $A B$. If the side $A E$ is imagined shifted parallel to itself to the position $B F$, a closing line $D F$ may be computed, and this will form with $E D$ and $E F(=A B)$ a triangle.

Case V. Treat in the same way as Case IV. In the triangle that results there will be known the three sides. This case is indeterminate if the defective sides are parallel, unless the area is known.


Fig. 65.

Case VI. is solved in the same way, and in this case there is known in the triangle one side and all the angles.

Cases IV. and VI. are not determinate unless enough is known of the field to show which of two angles that correspond to a given sine or cosine is the correct one to use. This will be evident from the following algebraic discussion of Cases IV., V., VI.
138. Algebraic solution. Let the sum of the known latitude differences be denoted by $L$ and the sum of the longitude differences by $M$. Then for these cases may be written,

$$
\begin{align*}
& l_{1} \cos \theta_{1}+l_{2} \cos \theta_{2}=-L,  \tag{3}\\
& l_{1} \sin \theta_{1}+l_{2} \sin \theta_{2}=-M . \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

In Case IV. let there be wanting $l_{1}$ and $\theta_{2}$. Solving (3) for cosine $\theta_{2}$ and (4) for sine $\theta_{2}$, squaring and adding and then solving for $l_{1}$, there results
$l_{1}= \pm \sqrt{l_{2}{ }^{2}-M^{2}-L^{2}+\left(L \cos \theta_{1}+M \sin \theta_{1}\right)^{2}}-\left(L \cos \theta_{1}+M \sin \theta_{1}\right)$.
It is evident that there are here two values for $l_{1}$. If the proper value may be determined by a knowledge of the field, $\theta_{2}$ may be found by substitution in either (3) or (4).

For Case V. there will be wanting in (3) and (4) $l_{1}$ and $l_{2}$.

Solve each for $l_{1}$, equate the resulting expressions, solve for $l_{2}$, and derive

$$
l_{2}=\frac{M \cos \theta_{1}-L \sin \theta_{1}}{\sin \theta_{1} \cos \theta_{2}-\cos \theta_{1} \sin \theta_{2}}=\frac{M \cos \theta_{1}-L \sin \theta_{1}}{\sin \left(\theta_{1}-\theta_{2}\right)}
$$

from which it is seen that the value is indeterminate when $\theta_{1}=\theta_{2}$, or the defective sides are parallel.

For Case VI. there will be wanting $\theta_{1}$ and $\theta_{2}$. Solve equation (3) for $\cos \theta_{1}$ and equation (2) for $\sin \theta_{1}$. Square both resulting equations and add, getting

$$
L \cos \theta_{2}+M \sin \theta_{2}=\frac{l_{1}^{2}-L^{2}-M^{2}-l_{2}^{2}}{2 l_{2}}
$$

Let the right-hand member be represented by $P$. Then

$$
M \sqrt{1-\cos ^{2} \theta_{2}}=P-L \cos \theta_{2}
$$

square, and solve for $\cos \theta_{2}$, deriving

$$
\cos \theta_{2}=\frac{P L \pm M \sqrt{M^{2}+L^{2}-P^{2}}}{M^{2}+L^{2}}
$$

from which it is evident that there are two values, the correct one to be determined by a knowledge of the survey. In the algebraic solutions, careful attention must be paid to the signs of the trigonometric functions. Since no bearing is greater than $90^{\circ}$, the signs, according to usual trigonometric conceptions, would all be positive; but in equations (3) and (4) those signs must be used that will produce the proper sign for the latitude and longitude differences ; thus, for a S.E. bearing, the cosine would be negative and the sine positive.

## AREAS.

139. Double longitudes. When the survey has been balanced, the area may be computed. This is usually done by the use of a formula involving the products of the latitude difference and double longitude of each side of the survey. The double longitude of a line is simply twice its longitude, or the sum of the longitudes of its ends. The latitude differences are taken from the table of corrected latitude differences that has
been prepared in balancing the survey. There must be found a convenient method for determining the double longitudes. In Fig. 66 let $N S^{\prime}$ be the reference meridian, the longitude differences of the various sides being as shown, with the signs prefixed to each. It is evident that the double longitudes of the first and last courses will be numerically equal to their respective longitude differences, but the sign of the D.L. of the final course will be opposite to that of its longitude difference. The D.L. of any other course, as $B C$, is the sum of the longitudes of its extremities.

$$
\text { D.L. of } B C=b B+c C=d_{1}+d_{1}+\left(-d_{2}\right)
$$

In words, the D.L. of $B C$ is the D.L. of $A B$ plus the longitude difference of $A B$, plus the longitude difference of $B C$.

Again, the D.L. of $C D$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
c C+(-d D) & =\left[d_{1}+\left(-d_{2}\right)\right]+\left[d_{1}+\left(-d_{2}\right)+\left(-d_{3}\right)\right] \\
& =\left[d_{1}+d_{1}+\left(-d_{2}\right)\right]+\left(-d_{2}\right)+\left(-d_{3}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

or the D.L. of $C D$ equals the D.L. of $B C$ plus the longitude difference of $B C$ plus the longitude difference of $C D$.

From the result of this investigation may be formulated the
Rule: The double longitude of any course is equal to the double longitude of the preceding course, plus the longitude difference of that course, plus the longitude difference of the course itself.

In applying this rule, due attention must be paid to the signs of the quantities. This rule applies to the first course as well as to the others, if the preceding course is considered to be zero.

To determine the D.L. of the various courses, select one course as the first. Its longitude difference is its D.L. To this add its longitude difference and the longitude difference of the second course, and obtain the D.L. of the second course ; to this add the longitude difference of the second course and the longitude difference of the third course, and obtain the D.L. of the third course, ctc. The correctness of the work is proved if the D.L. of the final course is found numerically equal to its longitude difference.

With some it is customary to select the most westerly station of the survey as the point through which to pass the reference meridian. This practice makes all of the D.L.'s


Fig. 66.
positive, and consequently obviates the necessity of considering their signs in the subsequent work of finding areas, and to this extent simplifies the work.
140. To find the area of the field. The area in Fig. 66 evidently equals,

1. The triangles $A B b, C c h$, and $E e A$, plus
2. The trapezoids $b B C c$ and $E e D d$, minus
3. The triangle $D d h$.

Beginning with the triangle $A B b$ and taking the triangles and trapezoids in order around the figure to the right, there results the following equation :

Area $A B C D E=$
$\left\{\frac{1}{2} l_{1} b B+l_{2}(b B+c C)+l_{3}(c C-D d)+l_{4}(D d+E e)+l_{5} E e\right\}:$

The third term is twice the difference of the triangles $c C h$ and $D d h .{ }^{1}$ This equation may be written, paying attention to the signs of the latitude and longitude differences and remembering that distances to the right of the meridian are positive and to the left negative,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Area } A B C D E=\frac{1}{2}\left\{-l_{1} d_{1}-l_{2}\left(d_{1}+d_{1}-d_{2}\right)-\right. \\
\left.l_{3}\left(2 d_{1}-d_{2}-d_{2}-d_{3}\right)+l_{4}\left(2\left(d_{1}-d_{2}\right)-d_{3}-d_{3}-d_{4}\right)-l_{5} d_{5}\right\}
\end{gathered}
$$

It is seen that the coefficient of each of the latitude differences is the double longitude of the corresponding course, whence the

Rule: To find the area of a closed survey: Multiply the latitude difference of each course by the double longitude of the course, and note the signs of the products. Divide the algebraic sum of these products by 2.

The sign of the result is of no consequence and depends on the position assumed for the reference meridian and the direction of survey around the field, whether clockwise or counter clockwise.

As stated, the work is simpler if the reference meridian is chosen through the most westerly corner.
141. Irregular areas by offsets. It frequently occurs that one side of a field that is to be surveyed is bounded by a


Fig. 67.
stream or the shore of a lake, and that the bounding line is quite irregular and not easily run out.

In Fig. 67 the irregular shore line is a boundary. To

[^22]determine the area, two auxiliary courses, $A B$ and $B C$, are run and used with the remaining sides to compute the area on their left. Left and right refer to the direction in which the lines are run. The additional area between these lines and the shore is obtained by measuring offsets normal to these lines. These offsets are measured to the points of change of direction of the shore, and their lengths and distances from $A, B$, or $C$, are noted. The area is then computed by considering the portions between the shore and base line and two adjacent offsets to be trapezoids or triangles. When the curve of the shore is such that the offsets may be taken at regular intervals along a base line, the area is found by applying the following rule :

Rule: To the half sum of the initial and final offsets add the sum of all the intermediate off'sets, and multiply the result by the common distance between offsets. ${ }^{1}$

If the offsets are taken at irregular distances, the area may be found as described in Art. 146.

## coördinates.

142. Definitions. It is becoming common to call the latitude and longitude of a point the "coördinates" of the point.

The base parallel and meridian are known as the "coördinate axes," and their intersection as the "origin of coördinates." The coördinates of the origin are evidently both zero. As with latitudes and longitudes, ordinates measured east, or to the right from the reference meridian, are considered positive; those measured west, or left, are negative; those measured north, or up from the base parallel, are positive; and those south, or down, are negative.

It is not uncommon to speak of the latitude ordinates as "ordinates," and the longitude ordinates as "abscissas."

In the city of New York, and in some other cities, many corners to public property, and many or all private property corners, are located by coördinates, the well-established line of some important thoroughfare being taken as a reference meridian, the origin and meridian being marked by monuments.

[^23]The true meridian through a well-defined point would perhaps do as well, except that, if the subdivision of the city is on the rectangular plan, and not exactly " with" the cardinal points, a great deal of computation would be avoided by making the axes parallel to the street lines.
143. Elementary problems. A large amount of surveying work is much facilitated by the use of coördinates, particularly by the use of the methods of the two following problems:
I. Given the coördinates of two points, to find the


Fig. 68. bearing and length of the line joining them. ${ }^{1}$

In Fig. 68 the coördinates of $a$ and $b$ are given. The angle $c a b$ is the bearing of $a b$, but the angle $c b a$ will be first found because the smaller angles can be found with greater precision.

$$
\tan c b a=\frac{a c}{b c}
$$

$$
a c=a d-c d=\text { difference of ordinates. }
$$

$$
b c=O d-(-O e)=\text { difference of abscissas. }
$$

Length of $a b=\frac{b c}{\cos c b a}$.
To solve this problem, therefore,
$\log \tan$ smaller angle $=\log$ smaller difference of ordinates minus $\log$ larger difference of ordinates.
(The angle thus obtained is the bearing when the latitude dif-

[^24]ference is the greater, and is the complement of the bearing when the longitude difference is the greater.)
$\log$ length $=\log$ greater difference of ordinates minus $\log \cos$ of angle found.
The letters to affix to the bearing may be determined by inspection of the coördinates of the points.


Fig. 69.
II. Given the bearings of two lines and the coördinates of a point on each, to find the location, i.e. the coordinates, of the point of intersection of the lines. ${ }^{1}$

The coördinates of $a$ and $b$ are given, and the bearings of the lines as and $b r$. By Problem I. find the bearing of $a b$ and the logarithm of its length. From the known bearings of the three sides of the triangle $a b c$, the three angles may be found and the triangle solved for either $a c$ or $b c$. From the determined length of either $b c$ or $a c$ and its bearing, its latitude and

[^25]longitude differences may be found and applied to the coördinates of $a$ or $b$, according to the line chosen.

It is not necessary to find the length of either side unless the conditions of the particular case require it; only the logarithm need be found.
144. To find the area. Areas are frequently more readily computed by the method of "coördinates."

It will be seen in Fig. 70 that the area of the closed field


Fig. 70.
$A B C D$ is the sum of the two areas, $b B C c$ and $c C D d$, less the sum of the two areas, $b B A a$ and $a A D d$. Expressed in an equation this becomes

$$
\begin{align*}
A= & \left(y_{2}-y_{3}\right) \frac{x_{2}+x_{3}}{2}+\left(y_{3}-y_{4}\right) \frac{x_{3}+x_{4}}{2}-\left(y_{2}-y_{1}\right) \frac{x_{1}+x_{2}}{2} \\
& -\left(y_{1}-y_{4}\right) \frac{x_{1}+x_{4}}{2} \\
= & \frac{1}{2}\left\{y_{1} x_{2}+y_{2} x_{3}+y_{3} x_{4}+y_{4} x_{1}-\left(y_{1} x_{4}+y_{2} x_{1}+y_{3} x_{2}+y_{4} x_{3}\right)\right\} \tag{1}
\end{align*}
$$

This equation expressed in words as a rule is :

Rule: To determine the area of a closed field when the coördinates of its corners are known: Number the corners consecutively around the field. Multiply each ordinate by the following abscissa and sum the products. Multiply each ordinate by the precerling abscissa and sum the products. One half the difference of the two sums, subtracting the second from the first, is the area of the field.

Equation (1) may be written,
$A=\frac{1}{2}\left\{y_{1}\left(x_{2}-x_{4}\right)+y_{2}\left(x_{3}-x_{1}\right)+y_{3}\left(x_{4}-x_{2}\right)+y_{4}\left(x_{1}-x_{3}\right)\right\}$. (2)
This equation expressed in words as a rule is:
Rule: To determine the area of a closed field when the coördinates of its corners are known: Number the corners consecutively around the field. Multiply each ordinate by the difference between the following and preceding abscissas, always subtracting the preceding from the following. One half the sum of the product is the area required.

The second rule ordinarily involves less work than the first, but there are certain cases in which the first is used to better advantage.
145. To make the coördinates all positive. The method of determining the coördinates will perhaps suggest itself to the student. To lessen the danger of making errors in signs it will be better to arrange the axes so that the field shall lie wholly within the northeast quadrant. All the coördinates will then be positive. This may be done as follows: Determine in the usual way the latitudes and longitudes of the corners of the field with reference to the meridian and parallel through one corner, preferably the most westerly corner. If the most westerly corner is chosen, the longitudes will all be positive without further arrangement. To make the latitude ordinates all positive, add to each latitude a quantity equal to the greatest southern latitude. This will move the reference parallel to the most southern point. If considered more convenient, any round number, as 100 , greater than the most southern latitude, may be added. An inspection will ordinarily be sufficient to enable the computer to assume beforehand proper coördinates for the first corner.
146. Elongated areas by offsets. A special case, in which the application of this method of coördinates is advantageously used, is the determination of elongated, irregular areas, the measurements for which consist of offsets at unequal intervals along a straight line. In this case, the line from which the offsets are measured is assumed as the reference parallel. Thus, in Fig. 71, it is required to determine the area between the line $A H$, the irregular line abcdefgh, and the two end off-


Fig. 71.
sets. The corners of the closed field are AabcdefghH and their coördinates are as shown in the figure. $x_{1}$ and $y_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ and $y_{10}$ are zero. The equation that would be written, following the second rule of Art. 144, would be as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
A=\frac{1}{2}\left\{y_{1}\left(x_{2}-x_{10}\right)\right. & +y_{2}\left(x_{3}-x_{1}\right)+y_{3}\left(x_{4}-x_{2}\right)+y_{4}\left(x_{5}-x_{3}\right) \\
& +y_{5}\left(x_{6}-x_{4}\right)+y_{6}\left(x_{7}-x_{5}\right)+y_{7}\left(x_{8}-x_{6}\right) \\
& \left.+y_{8}\left(x_{9}-x_{7}\right)+y_{9}\left(x_{10}-x_{8}\right)+y_{10}\left(x_{1}-x_{9}\right)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

$y_{1}$ and $y_{10}$ being zero, the first and last terms will disappear; $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ being zero, the second term becomes $y_{2} x_{3}$, and the third term $y_{3} x_{4}$. What is, perhaps, a less confusing system of writing these quantities is to write each ordinate and its corresponding abscissa in the form of a fraction, connecting each ordinate with the abscissas whose difference is to be taken as a multiplier. Thus, calling the $x$ 's ordinates and the $y$ 's abscissas,


The downward lines to the right show the following or positive abscissas, and the downward lines to the left show the
preceding or negative abscissas. The lines may be omitted as soon as the student becomes thoroughly familiar with the work. This arrangement applies to any closed field and not alone to the elongated strip last described, though it is particularly applicable to that method since the quantities may be arranged for computation as they are taken in the field. Applications of the coördinate method of surveying will be found in the problems, pages 328-335.
147. Zero azimuth. It is thought that the reason for suggesting that zero azimuth shall be the north point, will now be clear. Since north latitude and east longitude are considered


Fig. 72. positive, and south latitude and west longitude, negative, a system of azimuths should be so arranged that the signs of the trigonometric functions of any azimuth shall agree with the signs of the corresponding latitude and longitude differences. Fig. 72 shows the arrangement of signs of coördinates, and the correspondence of the signs of the trigonometric functions.

There is thus no necessity actually to convert azimuth into bearing in order to determine the signs of the latitude and longitude differences, nor to carry in mind any other than the ordinary scheme of signs given in any work on Trigonometry. The signs of the coördinates could, of course, be changed to suit a south zero azimuth, but the custom among all people to look to the north as the orienting point, and the long use of the signs given for coorrdinates, seems to make it better for the surveyor to use the north as zero azimuth. Were it merely a matter of changing technical terms used only by the surveyor, such as changing "departure" to "longitude difference," the case would be different.

## DIVIDING LAND.

148. Occurrence of the problem. It sometimes becomes necessary to divide a field into two or more parts of equal or known areas. This occurs when one man, as Jolin Jones, sells to another, as Paul Smith, $x$ acres to be laid off in the northeast corner of Jones's field. It also occurs in the division of inherited lands among the heirs, and in the determination of lands sold for taxes. When the taxes are not paid on a given piece of land, the land is sold to the lowest bidder. This means that the land is put up at auction for the taxes and expenses of sale, and that the person who agrees to take the least part of the whole piece, and pay therefor the taxes and expense of sale, is given a title to that portion of the land that he agrees to take. This title is redeemable by the original owner within a certain time, specified by law, after the expiration of which time, if the title has not been redeemed, it becomes vested in the purchaser forever. In any case that may arise the original tract will be fully known, either by previous surveys or by surveys made at the time and for the purpose of the subdivision. It will also be known in what way the land is to be divided, and the problem then becomes simply one of Geometry or Trigonometry.
149. Solution of the problem. The method of solving two common problems will be given,


Fig. 73. and others may be readily devised, on which the student may test his ingenuity.
I. It is required to lay off from a given field $A$ acres by a line beginning at a given point in a given side. Plot the field to scale. Let Fig. 73 represent the field so plotted. Let $m$ be the given point. Imagine the line $m D$ to have been run to the
corner nearest the probable ending point of the required line $m g$. The point $g$ on the line $D E$ will first be determined as follows: Consider $m B C D$ as a closed field with length and bearing, or azimuth, of one side, $m D$, wanting. Find bearing and length of $m D$, and area of $m B C D$, which call $a$. Then

$$
\text { Area } m D g=A-a \text {. }
$$

In the triangle $m D g$, the angle at $D$ is known, and the side $m D$. The area of the triangle is

$$
\begin{aligned}
A-a & =\frac{1}{2} p k \sin D . \\
k & =\frac{A-a}{\frac{1}{2} p \sin D} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Whence

The triangle may then be further solved, giving the bearing and length of $m g$.
II. It is required to lay off from a given field $A$ acres by a line extending in a given direction.

Let Fig. 74 represent the given plotted field. Select a corner of the field, as $A$, such that from this corner a line may be run


Fig. 74. in the given direction, cutting off, as nearly as may be, the required area $\boldsymbol{A}$ acres. Let $m g$ be the required line, the area $A F E g m$ being equal to $A$. If $A m$ were known, the line $m g$ could be run. Since the length $l$ should be computed for a check, and since it is somewhat simpler to determine $l$ first rather than $A m, l$ will be first determined. Imagine the line $A h$ run in the given direction. Consider AFEh a closed field with two wanting lengths - viz., $A h$ and Eh. Determine these and the area $A E E h$, which call $a$. The area $A m g h=A-a$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{l+p}{2} k=A-a, \quad \text { (1) } \quad l=p-k(\tan \alpha+\tan \beta) . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\alpha$ and $\beta$ are known from the bearings.
Whence

$$
\begin{equation*}
k=\frac{p-l}{\tan \alpha+\tan \beta} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting in (1), $\quad \frac{l+p}{2} \times \frac{p-l}{\tan \alpha+\tan \beta}=A-a$.
Whence $\quad l= \pm \sqrt{p^{2}-2(A-a)(\tan \alpha+\tan \beta)}$.
$l$ being known, $k$ is determined from (1), or (3), and $A m$, or $h g$, from the small right triangles. In the field, find the point $m$, and run $l$ on the given bearing to its intersection with $D E$ at $g$. See that the length agrees with the computed length, and that $g E$ as measured agrees with $g E$ as computed.

## MODEL EXAMPLES.

150. Logarithms. When formerly, in land surveying, bearings were read only to quarter degrees, there were published for convenience what were known as traverse tables. These were nothing more nor less than tables of natural sines and cosines of the angles from $0^{\circ}$ to $90^{\circ}$ for every quarter-degree multiplied by $1,2,3,4$, etc., to 10 , and in some tables to 100 . The use of such a table made it unnecessary to multiply the sines and cosines of the bearings to get the latitude and longitude differences, since for each digit in the number expressing the length of the course the differences could be read from the table and brought to the right amount by moving the decimal point. The several quantities were then added.

With modern methods of work the compass is read to the nearest five minutes, and when a transit is used the angles are determined to minutes. Such a table as has been described then becomes useless. The proper table to use is one of logarithmic sines and cosines. A single computation involving not more than two or three figures can perhaps be more quickly performed without the use of logarithms, but any series of computations or a single computation involving five or more figures can be more quickly performed ly logarithms. This does not mean that one unaccustomed to the use of logarithms can work with them so fast as without, but a very little practice with them will in any case substantiate the above claim. The student should familiarize himself with a good set of logarithmic tables. ${ }^{1}$ The question will arise whether four-place, five-place, six-place, or sevenplace tables should be used. The decision must be based on the size of the

[^26]quantities involved in the computation and the precision required in the result. A four-place table will give results correct to three significant figures and almost correct to four significant figures, probably within one or two units in the extreme end of the table. A five-place table will give results correct to four significant figures and within one or two units in the end of the table, to five significant figures, and so on. For very many surveying computations four-place tables are good enough, but for the general use of surveyors five-place tables are considered better, and for use in connection with very accurate city surveys, six-place tables will not be too extensive, though almost all cases may be solved properly by the use of fiveplace tables. For general field use five-place tables are ample. Logarithmic tables should have auxiliary tables of proportional parts for quickly getting the logarithm of a number greater than any given in the table and for getting the number corresponding to a logarithm not in the table. Such tables, with proportional parts in the trigonometric functions for tenths of minutes instead of for seconds, will be found on pages 420-464, taken from Crockett's Trigonometry.
151. Example stated. The notes of the courses of a survey are as follows:


It is required to balance the survey and determine the area of the field. This example will be worked out in detail as a model for the student. He is advised to note carefully the systematic arrangement of the work, as by such system much time is saved. It is a case from practice.

## 152. Balancing. Letting $L$ represent latitude differences and $M$ longi-

 tude differences, the computation is arranged as shown on page 167.Explanation. - We first write the logarithm of the length of the course, and above it the logarithmic cosine of the bearing, and below it the logarithmic sine. The logarithm of $L$ is then obtained by adding up, and the logarithm of $M$ by adding down. The $L$ 's and $M$ 's are then taken out and placed in their respective columns with their signs, and each column added algebraically, giving the result -4.9 in $L$ and +7.9 in $M$. The error of closure is then found. In the example given it is entirely too large, and the field should be rerun. The errors in $L$ and $M$ are now distributed among the courses in proportion to the length of the sides. It is not necessary to be exact about this, and it is done by inspection. Thus $\frac{437}{1424.5}$ is a little less than one third, hence the first corrections are 1.5 in $L$ and 2.5 in $M$. The other fractions are treated in the same way, the second being somewhat less than one sixth, etc. If the corrections thus determined do not sum up exactly to

Computations for the Harrington Survey.


$$
\text { Error of closure }=\sqrt{4.9^{2}+7.9^{2}}=9.4 \pm=\frac{9.4}{1424.5}=\frac{1}{151}-\cdot
$$

the respective total corrections, some one or more of them is slightly altered to make the sum correct; thus, in the above example the corrections first written for the fourth $L$ and the fifth $M$ were $1: 2$ and 1.1 respectively, and these were changed to 1.1 and 1.0 to make the sums equal 4.9 and 7.9 respectively. The balanced $L$ 's and $M$ 's are now written in the column of $L$ 's and $M$ 's under the old $L$ 's and over the old $M$ 's. The lengths and bearings are now inconsistent with the balanced $L$ 's and $M$ 's, and should be corrected to be consistent. This is done in this example for the first course
only. The tangent of the bearing is $\frac{M}{L}$, hence write the $\log M$ and subtract the $\log L$ and get $\log \tan$. Above $\log M$ write $\log$ sin and, subtracting up, get log length.

This completes the balancing.
153. Areas by latitude differences and double longitudes. From the balanced $L$ 's and $M$ 's the double longitudes are computed, and from the $L$ 's and $D$ 's, as we may call the double longitudes, the double areas are computed. The work is systematized as in the following table:

## Logs. Double Areas.

$M$ of the First course is its $D=405.5 \quad 2.60799$


It is believed that the work is self-explanatory.
The results of the foregoing computations are usually tabulated in the following form :

| Station. | Course. | Distance, Feet. | Lat. Diff. |  | Long. Diff. |  | Balanced. |  | Double Longitudes. | Double Areas. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | + | - | $+$ | - | Lat. Diff. | Long. Diff. |  | $+$ | - |
| A | N. $69^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. | 437.0 | 156.6 |  | 408.0 |  | + 158.1 | + 405.5 | $+405.5$ | 64110 |  |
| B | S. $19^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. | 236.0 |  | 223.1 | 76.8 |  | - 222.3 | + 75.5 | $+886.5$ |  | 197069 |
| C | S. $27^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$. | 244.0 |  | 217.4 |  | 110.8 | - 216.6 | $-112.1$ | $+849.9$ |  | 184089 |
| D | N. $71^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$. | 324.0 | 105.5 |  |  | 306.4 | + 106.6 | $-308.2$ | + 429.6 | 45795 |  |
| E | N. $19^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$. | 183.5 | 173.5 |  |  | 59.7 | + 174.2 | - 60.7 | $+60.7$ | 10574 |  |
|  |  | 1424.5 | 435.6 | 440.5 | 484.8 | 476.9 | 0.0 | 0.0 |  | 120479 | 381158 |

Error of closure $=\sqrt{4.9} 7.9 \quad{\overline{\overline{4.9}^{2}+\overline{7.9}^{2}}}^{2}=9.4 \pm=\frac{9.4}{1424.5}=\frac{1}{151}-\quad \frac{2) 260679}{43560 \lcm{130339.5}} \frac{2.992+}{2 c r e s}$ If the field is balanced by weighting the sides, a column of weights and one of weighted lengths are inserted between the third and fourth columns of the table. If the distances are in chains the result is square chains, and is divided by 10 instead of 43560 to reduce to acres.
154. Areas by coördinates. We shall next work ont by coördinates the area of the field just determined. The work is the same up to and including the determination of the balanced $L$ 's and $M$ 's. An inspection of these demonstrates that the first corner is the most westerly corner, and that the fourth corner is the most southerly, and that it is 283.9 feet south of the first. Therefore if it is desired to make all coördinates positive, the reference meridian will be passed through the first corner, and the origin of coördinates will be taken on this meridian 300 feet south of the first corner. The coorrdinates of the corners and the area of the field are then found as in the table, in which the $y$ 's are the latitude ordinates and the $x$ 's are the longitude ordinates.

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline $$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Corner } \\
& \text { No. }
\end{aligned}
$$ \& R $\boldsymbol{Y}$ \& Logs. \& Diff. $X^{\prime}$ 's \& $X$ \& Double Areas. Sq. Feet. <br>
\hline \multirow[b]{4}{*}{$+$} \& 300.0 \& 2.47712 \& \& 0.0 \& <br>
\hline \& \& 2.53757 \& $-344.8=2-5$ \& \& <br>
\hline \& \& 5.01469 \& \& \& +103440 <br>
\hline \& +158.2 \& \& \& 405.5 \& <br>
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{2} \& 458.1 \& 2.66096 \& \& 405.5 \& <br>
\hline \& \& $\underline{2.68214}$ \& $+481.0=3-1$ \& \& <br>
\hline \& \& $\overline{5.34310}$ \& \& \& +220341 <br>
\hline \& -222.3 \& \& \& $+75.5$ \& <br>
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{3} \& 235.8 \& 2.37254 \& \& 481.0 \& <br>
\hline \& \& 1.56348 \& $-36.6=4-2$ \& \& <br>
\hline \& \& $\overline{3.93602}$ \& \& \& - 8630 <br>
\hline \& -216.6 \& \& \& -112.1 \& <br>
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{4

+} \& 19.2 \& 1.28330 \& \& 368.9 \& <br>
\hline \& \& $\underline{2.62356}$ \& $-420.3=5-3$ \& \& <br>
\hline \& \& $\overline{3.90686}$ \& \& \& - 8070 <br>
\hline \& +106.6 \& \& \& 308.2 \& <br>
\hline \multirow[t]{9}{*}{$5 \begin{array}{rr}5 \\ & \\ & +\end{array}$} \& 125.8 \& 2.09968 \& \& 60.7 \& <br>
\hline \& \& $\underline{2.56691}$ \& $-368.9=1-4$ \& \& <br>
\hline \& \& 4.66659 \& \& \& - 46408 <br>
\hline \& +174.2 \& \& \& -60.7 \& <br>
\hline \& 300.0 \& \& \& 0.0 \& +323781 <br>
\hline \& \& \& \& \& - 63108 <br>
\hline \& \& \& \& \& $2 \lcm{260673}$ <br>
\hline \& \& \& \& \& $5 6 0 \longdiv { 1 3 0 3 3 6 . 5 }$ <br>
\hline \& \& \& \& \& $2.992+$ <br>
\hline
\end{tabular}

Rather more work is required by this method than by the method of donble longitudes. This is not the case when the corners have been determined by random lines rather than by a continuous traverse around the field.

When the coördinates of the corners are alone known, the method just given is by far the quickest, since it wonld be necessary to compute the $L$ 's and $M$ 's for each side before the $D$ 's could be obtained or the areas, just as it was here necessary to compute the coördinates from the $L$ 's and $M$ 's.
155. Supplying an omission. I. In the example already used, let the bearing and length of the second course be wanting. Adding the original $L$ 's and $M$ 's, we get

| Course. | $L$ | $M$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | +156.6 | +408.0 |
| 2 |  |  |
| 3 | -217.4 | -110.8 |
| 4 | +105.5 | -306.4 |
| 5 | +173.5 | -59.7 |
|  | +435.6 | -476.9 |
|  | -217.4 | +408.0 |
|  | +218.2 | -67.9 |

There is then to be added south latitude and east longitude in order to close the field, and hence the line to be supplied runs southeast.

The tangent of its bearing is
Loas.
$\begin{array}{ll}\tan \theta=\frac{67.9}{218.2} & \frac{1.83187}{2.33885} \uparrow \\ \text { Log } \tan \theta & 9.49302 \\ \text { Log } \sin \theta & \frac{9.47300}{2.35887} \quad \theta \quad \text { length }=228.5 .\end{array}$
The whole error of closure being thrown into this course, its bearing and length have been materially altered.
II. Let the lengths of sides one and two be wanting. Adding the original $L$ 's and $M$ 's, we get

| Course. | $L$ | $M$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | +156.6 | +408.0 |
| 2 |  |  |
| 3 | -217.4 | -110.8 |
| 4 |  |  |
| 5 | +173.5 | -59.7 |
|  | +330.1 | +408.0 |
|  | $\frac{-217.4}{+112.7}$ | -170.5 |
|  |  |  |

It is seen that southwest bearing must be that of the closing line. Its bearing and length are obtained as in the last example.

Loas.
$\begin{array}{lll}\tan \theta=\frac{237.5}{112.7} & \frac{2.37566}{2.05192} & \\ \text { Log } \tan \theta & \overline{0.32374} & \theta=64^{\circ} 37^{\prime} \text { S.W. } \\ \text { Log } \sin \theta & \underline{9.95591} & \\ \text { Log length } & 2.41975 & \text { length }=262.9 .\end{array}$

We now have a triangle composed of this closing side and the two wanting sides. This triangle ${ }^{1}$ is formed by shifting one of the wanting sides parallel to itself. In this triangle there are known the bearing and length of the closing side just found and the bearings of the two other sides, and hence there are known all the angles and one side.

If the apexes are lettered $A, B, C$, and the sides opposite the apexes $a, b$, and $c$. respectively, and if $a$ is the closing side just found, $b$ side 2 , and $c$ side 4, we have from the known bearings

| $\begin{aligned} \text { Angle } A & =52^{\circ} 00^{\prime} \\ \text { " } \quad B & =44^{\circ} 23^{\prime} \end{aligned}$ | Whence | $b=\frac{a \sin B}{}=\underline{262.9 \sin 44^{\circ} 24^{\prime}}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| " $C=83^{\circ} 37^{\prime}$ |  | Log 262.9 | 2.41975 |  |
| $\overline{180^{\circ} 00^{\prime}}$ |  | Log $\sin 44^{\circ} 23^{\prime}$ | 9.84476 |  |
| - |  |  | 2.26451 |  |
|  |  | Log $\sin 52^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | 9.89653 |  |
|  |  | Log $b$ | 2.36798 |  |

Solve for course 4. The other problems are similarly solved.

## THE PLANIMETER.

156. Description. The most elegant and rapid method to obtain the area of an irregular figure is to draw the figure to scale and measure the area with a planimeter. There are three kinds of planimeters, shown in Figs. 75, 76, and 77.


Fig. 75.
Fig. 75 shows the polar planimeter, the most commonly used. Fig. 76 is a suspended planimeter, which is a polar planimeter so arranged that the wheel $c$, Fig. 75, will roll on a polished surface instead of on the drawing. In Fig. 76 the axle of the wheel is turned by contact with a surface. This instrument is more accurate in its results than the polar planimeter. Fig. 77 is a rolling planimeter. This is the most costly and the most accurate of the three forms. Its principle of action is somewhat different from that of the polar planimeter.

[^27]The polar planimeter, the one most used, consists of two arms, $h$ and $j$, one of which, $j$, is of fixed length, and the other is adjustable through the frame shown on the left. There is a


Fig. 76.
clamp back of the point $g$ and a slow-motion screw $f$ for setting the adjustable arm to the required length. The arm $j$ is pivoted at $k$, and directly over $k$, on the frame, is a single graduation which indicates the length of the adjustable arm. There

is also a wheel $c$, whose axis of revolution is parallel to the arm $h$, and, in the discussion that follows, will be considered a part of that arm. The wheel is so mounted as to be almost frictionless. The disk $l$ records entire revolutions of the wheel, while by the vernier $m$ the fractional revolutions are read.
157. Use. The point $e$ is fixed in the drawing board preferably outside of the figure to be measured. The tracer $d$ is
then placed on a point in the circumference of the figure, and the wheel $c$ is read. The wheel could be set to zero, but this is not easy to do, and hence it is read at whatever it happens to be. The tracer $d$ is now moved carefully around the circumference and stopped at the beginning point. The wheel is again read, and the difference of the two readings indicates the number of revolutions made by the wheel. The instrument is so made that if the tracer is moved clockwise, the wheel will roll in the direction of its graduation, and hence the final reading will be greater than the initial reading, and vice versa. The wheel by its vernier reads to thousandths of a revolution. The principle of the instrument is such that the distance rolled by the wheel, or the number of revolutions times the circumference in inches, multiplied by the length of the arm in inches, is the area in square inches bounded by the path of the tracer $d$. The arm $h$ is generally so set that ten times the number of revolutions is the area. If other units, as tenths of a foot, are used for the above-named linear units, the area will be given in square units of the same kind. In any event, it is the area of the drawing that is measured. If this drawing has been made to a scale of say forty feet to an inch, a square inch of paper is equivalent to sixteen hundred square feet, and the area given by the instrument must be multiplied by this quantity to get the area in square feet. If the fixed point is placed inside of the area to be measured so that the tracer $d$ in circumscribing the required area makes a complete revolution about $e$, there must be added to


Fig. 78. the result in square inches a certain constant area - a constant for each instrument - called the area of the zero circumference.
158. Theory. The following is a discussion of the theory of the instrument, written for those who are not familiar with the principles of the Calculus.

In the figures that follow, the essential parts of the instrument are lettered as in
Fig. 75. The instrument is so constructed that neither $d$ nor
$c$ can cross $j$. In circumscribing an area, the curved path of $d$ may be conceived as divided into an infinite number of infinitesimal portions, each a straight line.

Each of the small portions may be conceived as made up of two parts or component motions, one radial with reference to $e$, and the other circumferential.

With the radial motion the value of the angle $\phi$ is constantly changing, while with the circumferential motion the value of $\phi$ and the length of the line ed remains fixed. In Fig. 78 the component motions $s d$ and $s d^{\prime}$, and their resultant motion $d d^{\prime}$, are shown greatly enlarged. It will be evident, that, in circumscribing a closed figure, each minute movement of $d$ toward $e$ will have its corresponding movement from $e$ with the same value of $\phi$. Each element of right-hand circumferential motion will have its corresponding element of left-hand circumferential motion ; but, since $d$ will be farther from $e$ for one than for the other, these corresponding elements will not be made with equal values of $\phi$.

When the plane of the wheel $c$, Fig. 79, passes through $e$, the angle dce is a right angle, and, if $d$ is revolved about $e$ with $\phi$ constant, there will be no rolling of the wheel $c$, because the direction of motion of all points of the instrument about $e$ is circumferential, and the radius of motion of the point $c$ is $e c$, and this is normal to the axis of the wheel, and hence the motion of the wheel


Fig. 79. is parallel to its axis, and the wheel simply slips and makes no record. The path described by $d$ for the particular value of $\phi$ that brings about the above result, is known as the zero circumference. Its radius, ed, may be easily shown to be

$$
\begin{align*}
R & =\sqrt{j^{2}+h^{2}+2 p h}  \tag{1}\\
\phi & =\cos ^{-1} \frac{p}{j} \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

It will be evident that if $d$ could be moved outward till $c$ should fall in the line $e k$, and then rotated clockwise, the
motion of $c$ would be all rolling motion, and would be, looking from $c$ to $d$, clockwise. The wheel is graduated so as to record positively for this kind of motion. Between these two positions the motion of the wheel will be partly slip and partly roll, the amount of each depending on the value of $\phi$; and the roll will all be clockwise. It will be further evident that, if $d$ were moved in till $c$ should fall in the line $k e$ produced, and then rotated clockwise, the motion of $c$ would be all roll and would be counter-clockwise or left-handed, when looking as before from $c$ to $d$. For $d$ between the zero circumference and the last-named position, clockwise motion will produce a motion of $c$ partly roll and partly slip. The amount of each will depend on the value of $\phi$, and the roll will be counter-clockwise. Hence, clockwise motion of $c$ will be caused by positive motion of $d$ outside the zero circumference, and by negative motion of $d$ inside the zero circumference, and vice versa; and, since the amount of roll for a given motion of the tracer depends on the value of $\phi$, any two equal infinitesimal motions in opposite directions with the same value of $\phi$ will produce no resultant roll of the wheel, while, if made with unequal values of $\phi$, there will be a resultant roll of the


Fig. 80. wheel that can be read. For these reasons, the radial components in circumscribing a closed figure cause no resultant rolling of the wheel and may be neglected, while the circumferential components do cause a resultant roll and must be considered. It will be shown that the roll of the wheel for a given circumferential motion of $d$ is proportional to the area included between the path of $d$, the radial lines from $e$ to the initial and final points of $d$ 's path, and the arc of the zero circumference included between those lines.

Let $d d^{\prime}$, Fig. 80, be a minute circumferential component of $d$ 's motion due to the movement of the instrument about $e$ as a center, through the angle $\Delta, \phi$ remaining constant. The wheel will move through the are $c c^{\prime}$, and will partly roll and partly
slip. The rolling component of its motion will, of course, be normal to its axis, and may be represented by the line $c s, c s c^{\prime}$ being considered an infinitesimal right-angled triangle. Let $A$ be the length in linear units of an are of radius unity and central angle $\Delta$. (For any other radius $X$ the length of the are for a central angle of $\Delta$ would be $X$ times $A$.) The angle $c e c^{\prime}$ is $\Delta$, and the arc $c c^{\prime}$ is given by

$$
c c^{\prime}=\overline{c^{\prime} e} \cdot A
$$

The roll of the wheel is

$$
c s=c^{\top} e \cdot A \cdot \cos c^{\prime} c s
$$

The angle $\Delta$ being very small, $c c^{\prime}$ may be considered perpendicular to $c^{\prime} e$, whence

$$
c^{\prime} c s=e c^{\prime} v
$$

$e v$ being drawn perpendicular to $d^{\prime} c^{\prime}$ produced. Then

$$
c^{\prime} v=\overline{c^{\prime} e} \cdot \cos c^{\prime} c s
$$

Whence

$$
c s=A \cdot \overline{c^{\prime} v}
$$

Now

$$
c^{\prime} v=j \cos \phi-p
$$

Therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
c s=A(j \cos \phi-p), \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is the roll of the wheel for the motion of $d$ through the are $d d^{\prime}$. To show that this is proportional to the area $d d^{\prime} 0^{\prime} o$, there must be deduced an expression for that area.

From Trigonometry

$$
\begin{aligned}
& e d=\sqrt{j^{2}+h^{2}+2 j h \cos \phi}, \\
& d d^{\prime}=e d \cdot A .
\end{aligned}
$$

The area of a sector of a circle is the product of one half its are by its radius, whence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Area edd } d^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2} A\left(j^{2}+h^{2}+2 j h \cos \phi\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the value of the radius of the zero circumference given in equation (1), there results for the value of the area $e o o^{\prime}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Area eoo }{ }^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2} A\left(j^{2}+h^{2}+2 p h\right) . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Subtracting (5) from (4), there results

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Area } d d^{\prime} o^{\prime} o=A h(j \cos \phi-p) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

This area is equation (3), the roll of the wheel, multiplied by the length of the adjustable arm, and hence is proportional to the roll of the wheel. Q. E. D.

It is now to be shown that, in tracing a closed area, the record of the wheel is correctly summed. In Fig. 81 let the tracing point move about the area $d d_{1} d_{2} d_{3} d$ clockwise. Motion from $d$ to $d_{1}$ will cause a clockwise roll of the wheel proportional to the area $d d_{1} o^{\prime} o$. The motion from $d_{1}$ to $d_{2}$ will be neutralized by motion from $d_{3}$ to $d$. Motion from $d_{2}$ to $d_{3}$ will cause counter-clockwise roll of the wheel proportional to the area


Fig. 81. $d_{2} d_{3} o o^{\prime}$, and the resulting roll will therefore be proportional to the

$$
\text { area } d d_{1} d_{2} d_{3}
$$

The student may reason similarly for the other areas. Since the roll of the wheel is proportional to the area lying between $d$ 's path and the zero circumference and is positive, or clockwise, when $d$ is outside the zero circumference and moves to the right, and negative when $d$ is inside and moves to the right, it follows that if an area is traced with $e$ inside that area, so that $d$ must complete a revolution about $e$, there must be added to the area obtained by multiplying the roll of the wheel by $h$, the area of the zero circumference. This area is

$$
Z=\pi\left(j^{2}+h^{2}+2 p h\right)
$$

159. To find the zero circumference. This area is usually furnished with the instrument when it comes from the maker, but may be found thus :

Measure a known area with the point $e$ within it and compare the result by the instrument with what is known to be the correct area. The difference is $Z$. This should be done a number of times, and a mean value of the several determinations used.
160. To find the circumference of the wheel. If $n$ is the number of revolutions, and $c$ is the circumference,

Roll of wheel $=n c$.

In a given circumscribed area with $e$ outside,

$$
A=h n c .
$$

If $c$ is not known, measure a known area with any convenient length of arm and note the reading of the wheel, which is $n$. From the known quantities compute $c$. This should likewise be done a number of times.
161. Length of arm. It is very convenient to make $h$ such a length as will reduce the work of multiplying hnc to a minimum. Most instruments are so made that the length of the arm may be such that

$$
A=10 n
$$

To find what this length is for a given instrument in which $c$ is known, let it be assumed that one revolution of the wheel shall correspond to ten square inches ;
then

$$
\begin{aligned}
10 & =h c, \\
h & =\frac{10}{c} .
\end{aligned}
$$

and
If the arm $h$ is not graduated, it may be set by trial so that $A=10 n$ and the value $c$ will not be required. Some cheap forms of the instrument are made with the arm $h$ fixed in length. When so made they are usually proportioned so that $A=10 n$.

The drawing on which the instrument is to be used should be perfectly smooth

## THE SLIDE RULE. ${ }^{1}$

162. Described. The slide rule is an instrument for mechanically performing multiplication, division, involution, and evolution. It is merely a series of scales, which are the logarithms of numbers laid off to scale, so arranged that by sliding one scale on the other the logarithms may be mechanically added or subtracted. The divisions are numbered with the numbers to which the plotted logarithms correspond.

The rule is constructed in many forms, but the principles involved are


Fig. 82.

[^28]the same in all. The ordinary rule, about ten inches long, consists of a framework called the rule and a movable part called the slide, arranged as shown in Fig. 82. On their surfaces, which should be in the same plane, are scales at I and IV on the rule, and at II and III on the slide. The initial points of these scales are in a line perpendicular to the upper edge of the rule. A runner, acting on the principle of a $T$-square, assists in finding points on the scales that are at a common distance from the initial points of the scales.

The slide may be inverted - turned end for end - so that II is adjacent to IV, and III to I, or reversed so that the other side of the slide becomes visible. One form of the slide rule is shown in Fig. 83.


Fig. 83.
163. Historical. In 1624 Gunter proposed the use of the logarithmic scale, as shown in Art. 165. In 1630 Oughtred suggested that two scales, sliding by each other, could be used. In 1685 Partridge fastened two scales together by bits of brass, another scale sliding between them. In 1851 Mannheim introduced the runner.
164. Construction of the scales. A logarithmic scale is one on which the distance from the initial point to any division is proportional to the mantissa of the logarithm of the number corresponding to that division. The slide rule usually bears two of these scales, constructed as follows:


On scale $B$, Fig. 84, let a distance of 5 inches represent unity in the logarithm, so that, if $a^{\prime} j^{\prime}=5^{\prime \prime}$, we have
$\log 1=0.00$; and the beginning of the scale is marked 1 .
$\log 2=0.30$; and at $b^{\prime}$, so that $a^{\prime} b^{\prime}=1.5^{\prime \prime}$, we mark 2 .
$\log 3=0.48$; " " $c^{\prime}$, " " $a^{\prime} c^{\prime}=2.4^{\prime \prime}$, " " 3 .
$\log 4=0.60$; " " $d^{\prime}$, " " $a^{\prime} d^{\prime}=3.0^{\prime \prime}$, " " 4 .
$\log 8=0.90$; and at $h^{\prime}$, so that $a^{\prime} h^{\prime}=4.5^{\prime \prime}$, we mark 8 .
$\log 10=1.00$; " " $j^{\prime}$, " " $a^{\prime} j^{\prime}=5.0^{\prime \prime}$, " " 1.
This is duplicated on the right of $j^{\prime}$, so that the total length of scale $B$ is 10 inches.

On scale $C$, let a distance of 10 inches represent unity in the logarithm, so that, if $a j=10^{\prime \prime}$, we have
$\log \quad 1=0.00 ;$ and the beginning of the seale is marked 1.
$\log \quad 2=0.30 ;$ and at $b$, so that $a b=3.0^{\prime \prime}$, we mark 2.
$\log 3=0.48 ; "$ " $c$, " $a c=4.8^{\prime \prime}, "$ " 3.
$\log 4=0.60 ; " " d, " " a d=6.0^{\prime \prime}, "$ " " 4.


The initial points, $a$ and $a^{\prime}$, of these scales are in the same vertical line, and $a j$ is exactly twice the length of $a^{\prime} j^{\prime}$.
165. Use of the scales. The following examples will show the use of the scales :

Suppose we wish to find the product of 2 and 3 , using scale $C$. The logarithm of the product is equal to the sum of the logarithms of the two


Fig. 85.
numbers. Then, if with a pair of dividers we lay off $r s=a b=\log 2$ and $s t=a c=\log 3, r t$ will represent the logarithm of the product, and we find by comparison with scale $C$ that $r t=a f=\log 6$.

To divide 6 by 2 we must subtract $\log 2$ from $\log 6$. Lay off with the dividers $r t=a f=\log 6$ and $r s=a b=\log 2$. Then st will represent the logarithm of the quotient, and by comparison with scale $C$ we find that $s t=b e=\log 3$.
166. The Mannheim rule. This is a straight rule, in which the scales I and II are constructed in the way described for scale $B$, and scales III and IV in that described for $C$.

The carpenter's rule is also a straight rule, in which the scales I, II, and III are similar to $B$, while IV is similar to $C$.

The scales on the slide will be denoted by $A$, so that the arrangement is shown in Fig. 86.

The Thacher rule, described in Art. 182, is equivalent to a straight carpenter's rule 720 inches long, the slide bearing only one scale $A$, similar to $B$.

This explanation of the slide rule will be confined to the carpenter's rule for two reasons : first, the principles are the same for all the rules, and, second, the explanation will also

1.ti. 80. apply to the Thacher rule, which is extensively used on account of its size and consequent accuracy.

A rule may be easily constructed that will be of great assistance in following the explanations. Cut out two pieces of stiff paper or cardboard about twelve inches long, one being two inches wide, to form the rule, and the other one half inch wide, to form the slide. Along the middle of the wider piece draw two lines one half inch apart and lay off a scale $B$ above the upper line, and a scale $C$ below the lower. On both the upper and the lower margins of the narrower piece lay off scales similar to scale $B$. It will be sufficient to lay off the distances corresponding to the whole numbers from one to ten, the logarithms being taken from any table.
167. Use of the rule. The following illustrations will show the use of the rule:

1. Multiplication. To find the product of two numbers, say $2 \times 3$, with the rule, set 1 of scale $A$ opposite 2 of scale $B$, and opposite 3 of scale $A$


Fig. 87.
find the product 6 on scale $B$. For in this way to $\log 2$ on scale $B$ we add $\log 3$, found on scale $A$, giving $\log 6$ on scale $B$.

If 2 is to be multiplied by any other number, as 4 , the same setting is made, and opposite 4 of $A$ we find the product on $B$.

If any constant number $b$ is to be multiplied by a series of numbers, so that we wish to find the value of $b x$ for different values of $x$-opposite $b$ of $B$, set 1 of $A$ and opposite $x$ of $A$ read the product $b x$ on $B$. This operation may be stated as follows, reading vertically, the lines $B$ and $A$ representing the two scales used:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\hline B . & \text { Opp. } b . & \text { Read } b x . \\
\hline A . & \text { Set 1. } & \text { Opp. } x . \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

2. Division. To divide a number by another, as $8 \div 2$, set 2 of $A$ opposite 1 of $B$, and opposite 8 of $A$ read the quotient 4 on $B$. For in this way


Fig. 88.
we take away $\log 2$ from $\log 8$ on scale $A$ and then find the number on $B$ that corresponds to the remainder.

To divide 6 by 2 we could use the same setting, reading the quotient on $B$ opposite 6 of $A$.

To divide a series of numbers $x$ by a constant number $a$, opposite 1 of $B$ set $a$ of $A$, and opposite $x$ of $A$ read the quotient $x \div a$ on $B$.

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\hline \text { B. } & \text { Opp. 1. } & \text { Read } x \div a . \\
\hline \text { A. } & \text { Set } a . & \text { Opp. } x . \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

3. Proportion. An expression in the form $\frac{b x}{a}$, as $\frac{4 \times 3}{2}$, may be written $\frac{4}{2} \times 3$. Opposite 4 of $B$ set 2 of $A$, and the index (1) of $A$ will be opposite


Fig. 89.
the quotient $4 \div 2$ on $B$; then opposite 3 of $A$ read the result 6 on $B$, for in this way we add $\log 3$ to the logarithm of the quotient.

If $a$ and $b$ are constants and $x$ a variable, we may use the following setting for $\frac{b x}{a}$, reading vertically :
B. Opp.b. Read $b x \div a$.
A. Set $a$. Opp. $x$.

It will be seen that $\frac{b x}{a}$ becomes $b x$ when $a=1$, and $\frac{x}{a}$ when $b=1$. Com. pare the settings for multiplication and division with that for proportion.
168. Infinite extent of the logarithmic scale. In the common system of logarithms a single mantissa will correspond to a given sequence of figures, the position of the decimal point affecting only the characteristic ; and to a given mantissa a single sequence of figures will correspond, the position of the decimal point being fixed by the characteristic. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \log 3=0.48 \\
& \log 30=1.48 \\
& \log 300=2.48
\end{aligned}
$$

If we make $a j=j k=k l=n m=m a$, and if $a j=\log 10$, we have,


Hence, the logarithm of a number between 10 and 100 will be represented by a distance greater than $a j$ and less than $a k$. The logarithmic scale, therefore, is not merely the distance $a j$, but it is composed of a series of such parts, extending without limit on both sides of $a$. Any one of the points $n, m, a, j, k, l$, and so on, may be considered as the starting point $(\log 1=0)$; thus, if the scale is supposed to start at $n$, we would mark 1 at


Fig. 91.
$n, 10$ at $m, 100$ at $a, 1000$ at $j$, and so on. For this reason the indices of scales $B$ and $C$ are marked 1 , and not with multiples of 10 .

To illustrate this, suppose we wish to multiply 5 by 8 . In Fig. 85, using scale $C$, make $r s=a e=\log 5$, and $s t=a h=\log 8$. Then comparing the distance $r t$ with scale $C$, we find that $r t$ is greater than $a j$, the excess being equal to $a d=\log 4$. Hence,

$$
\log (5 \times 8)=\log 5+\log 8=a j+a d=\log 10+\log 4=\log 40
$$

Again, suppose we wish to divide 4 by 8. In Fig. 91, make $s t=\log 4$, and $\operatorname{tr}=\log 8$. Then, $s r$ is a negative mantissa, and

$$
-r s=-m s+m r=-1+m r
$$

By comparison with seale $C$ we find that $m r$ is the mantissa of $\log 5$, so that the quotient is 0.5 .
169. Sequence of figures. In operations with the slide rule, we use the mantissas of the logarithms of the quantities involved, and the distances found represent the mantissas of the results. We find, therefore, the sequence of figures in the result, the position of the decimal point being determined either by special rules or by rough computation.
170. Shifting the slide. As we use the mantissas only, and as the addition or subtraction of the distance between the indices of the scales would affect the characteristic alone, we can change the position of the slide, by bringing one index into the position previously occupied by another index, without affecting the sequence of figures in the result.

## 171. Use of the runner.

Let us find the value of $2 \times 3 \times 4$. Opposite 2 of $B$ set 1 of $A$, and 3 of $A$ will be opposite $6(=2 \times 3)$ on $B$. Instead of reading this number, set the runner over 3 of $A$. Bring 1 of $A$ to the runner, and now read the final result 24 on $B$ opposite 4 of $A$.

In order that the runner may be used, without intermediate reading, it is necessary that the result should be found on the rule.

## 172. Squares and square roots.

The distance on $C$ representing $\log 2\left(=3.0^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is just twice that representing $\log 2\left(=1.5^{\prime \prime}\right)$ on $B$. Hence, if $x$ is any number, $\log x$ on $C$ is twice $\log x$ on $B$. If the initial points of the two scales are in the same vertical line, any number $x$ on $C$ will correspond to its square, $x^{2}$, on $B$; for

$$
\log x \text { on } C=2 \log x \text { on } B=\log x^{2} \text { on } B .
$$

Conversely, any number on $B$ will correspond to its square root on $C$.

1. Squares. To find the square of any number, find the number on $C$, and the corresponding number on $B$ will be its square.
2. Square roots. To find the square root of any number, find the number on $B$, and the corresponding number on $C$ will be its square root. To avoid artificial rules it is necessary to know approximately the first figure of the root. Divide the numbers into sections of two digits each, commencing at the decimal point, as in arithmetic, and call the first section at the left that contains a significant figure the left section. If this left section is 10 or greater, the first figure of the root will be 3 or greater, and if it is less than 10, the first figure of the root will be 3 or less. In the carpenter's rule the middle index of $B$ corresponds to $3.16+$ on $C$ since
$\sqrt{10}=3.1622+$. Therefore, if the left section is less than 10 , the number whose square root is required is found on the left scale of $B$, and if greater than 10, it is found on the right scale of $B .^{1}$
3. General statement of problems. If $a$ and $b$ are constants, and $x$ is a variable number, the following expressions may be solved, each with one setting, with the carpenter's or with the Thacher rule, the slide being in the position indicated and the result being read on the scale named:

SLIDE DIRECT.
Experseion.
Read on

1. $y=\frac{b x}{a}$. Rule (B).
2. $y=\sqrt{\frac{b x}{a}} . \quad$ Rule $(C)$.
3. $y=\frac{b^{2} x}{a}$. Rule (B).
4. $y=\sqrt{\frac{b^{2} x}{a}} \quad$ Rule (C).
5. $y=\frac{a x}{b^{2}} \quad$ Slide $(A)$.
6. $y=\frac{a x^{2}}{b} . \quad$ Slide (A).
7. $y=\frac{a x^{2}}{b^{2}} . \quad$ Slide ( $A$ ).

SLIDE INVERTED.
Expression. Read on
8. $y=\frac{b a}{x} . \quad$ Rule $(B)$.
9. $y=\sqrt{\frac{b a}{x}} \quad$ Rule (C).
10. $y=\frac{b^{2} a}{x}$. Rule ( $B$ ).
11. $y=\sqrt{\frac{b^{2} a}{x}}$. Rule (C).
12. $y=\frac{b a}{x^{2}} . \quad$ Slide $(A)$.
13. $y=\frac{b^{2} a}{x^{2}} . \quad$ Slide $(A)$.

In these expressions either $a$ or $b$ may be equal to unity.

## 174. Slide direct.

1. 

$$
\begin{aligned}
y & =\frac{b x}{a} . \\
\therefore \log y & =(\log b-\log a)+\log x . *
\end{aligned}
$$

From $\log b$ we must take away $\log a$, and then add $\log x$ to the difference. Hence $\log x$ must be found on the same scale as $\log a$, the result being read on the scale on which $\log b$ was found (see Fig. 89). Reading vertically, we have

| B. | Opp. 3. | Read $y$. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| A. | Set $a$. | Opp. $x$. |
| A. |  |  |
| C. |  |  |

${ }^{1}$ Or the number is found on the left seale of $B$ when there is an odd number of digits to the left or an odd number of ciphers to the right of the decimal point; otherwise it is found on the right seale of $B$.

* The quantity in the parentheses will, in every case, indicate the setting.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Ex. } b=3, a=2 ; & x=4, y=6 \\
& x=6, y=9 \\
& x=8, y=12
\end{array}
$$

2. $y=\sqrt{\frac{b x}{a}}$.

$$
\therefore \log y=\frac{1}{2}\{(\log b-\log a)+\log x\} .
$$

Use the same setting as in the preceding case, but read the result on $C$ instead of on $B$ (see Art. 172).

| $B$. | Opp. $b$. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $A$. | Set $a$. | Opp. $x$. |
| A. |  |  |
| $C$. |  | Read $y$. |

Note that the square roots are always read on $C$.
When a number on $C$ is to be compared with a number on $A$, it will be more convenient, in the carpenter's rule, to use the scale $A$ that is adjacent to $C$. Thus, in this case we would find $x$ on the lower scale of the slide. With this caution, the upper scale of the slide will be used in all the settings.
3. $y=\frac{b^{2} x}{a}$.

$$
\therefore \log y=\left(\log b^{2}-\log a\right)+\log x
$$

Since $b$ is squared, we find $b$ on $C$, so that the number opposite to it on $B$ is $b^{2}$.

| B. |  | Read $y$. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $A$. | Set $a$. | Opp. $x$. |
| A. |  |  |
| $C$. | Opp. $b$. |  |

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Ex. } b=3, a=2 ; & x=4, y=18 ; \\
& x=6, y=27 ; \\
& x=8, y=36
\end{aligned}
$$

4. $y=\sqrt{\frac{b^{2} x}{a}}$.

$$
\therefore \log y=\frac{1}{2}\left\{\left(\log b^{2}-\log a\right)+\log x\right\} .
$$

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\hline B . & & \\
\hline A . & \text { Set } a . & \text { Opp. } x . \\
A . & & \\
\hline C . & \text { Opp. b. } & \operatorname{Read} y . \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

5. $y=\frac{a x}{b^{2}}$.

$$
\therefore \log y=\left(\log a-\log b^{2}\right)+\log x
$$

| B. | Opp. $x$. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| A. | Set $a$. | $\operatorname{Read} y$. |

$A$.
C. Opp. $b$.

In this case we must read on the slide; for $b^{2}$ and $x$ must both be found on the rule or both on the slide, the latter case being impossible, since the slide does not contain a scale similar to $C$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Ex. } \quad a=6, \quad b=3 ; & x=2, y=1.33 ; \\
& x=4, y=2.67 ; \\
& x=8, y=5.33 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $\sqrt{y}$ can not be determined without first reading the value of $y$, since the slide does not contain a scale corresponding to $C$.
6. $y=\frac{a x^{2}}{b}$.

$$
\therefore \log y=(\log a-\log b)+\log x^{2} .
$$

B. Opp. $b$.
A. Set $a . \quad$ Read $y$.
A.
$\overline{C .} \quad$ Opp. $x$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Ex. } \quad a=3, b=2 ; & x=4, y=24 ; \\
& x=6, y=54 ; \\
& x=8, y=96 .
\end{aligned}
$$

7. $y=\frac{a x^{2}}{b^{2}}$.

$$
\therefore \log y=\left(\log a-\log b^{2}\right)+\log x^{2} .
$$

## $B$.

| A. | Set $a$. | Read $y$. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| A. |  |  |
| $C$. | Opp. $b$. | Opp. $x$. |

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Ex. } a=3, b=2 ; & x=3, y=6.75 \\
& x=6, y=27.00 \\
& x=8, y=48
\end{array}
$$

175. Slide inverted. The arithmetical complement of the logarithm (written colog) of a number is the logarithm of its reciprocal. The mantissa of the cologarithm of a number is found by subtracting the mantissa of the logarithm from unity. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mantissa of } \log 2=.301030 \\
& \text { mantissa of } \log 0.5=\frac{.698970}{1.000000} \\
& \therefore \text { sum of mantissas }=
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, if in Fig. $84 a b$ represents $\log 2$ on $C, b j$ will represent colog 2, since $b j=a j-a b=\log 10-\log 2=1-\log 2$.

With the slide inverted. ihe numbers on the slide increase from right to left, so that the distance from the left index to a number represents the mantissa of the cologarithm of that number.
8. $y=\frac{b a}{x}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\therefore \log y & =\log b+\log a-\log x \\
& =(\log b-\operatorname{colog} a)+\operatorname{colog} x .
\end{aligned}
$$

Opposite $b$ of $B$ set $a$ of $A$, thus subtracting colog $a$ from $\log b$ and placing the index (1) of $A$ opposite the product $b a$ on $B$. Then opposite $x$ of $A$ read $y$ on $B$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Inv. }{ }^{1} \begin{cases}\begin{array}{l}
B . \\
\hline A . \quad \text { Opp. } b .
\end{array} & \text { Set } a .\end{cases} \\
& \begin{array}{l}
\text { A. Opp. } x .
\end{array} \\
& \hline C .
\end{aligned}
$$

9. $y=\sqrt{\frac{b a}{x}}$.

$$
\therefore \log y=\frac{1}{2}\{(\log b-\operatorname{colog} a)+\operatorname{colog} x\} .
$$

$$
\text { Inv. } \begin{cases}\begin{array}{lll}
B . & \text { Opp. } b . \\
A . & \text { Set } a . & \text { Opp. } x . \\
A . & & \\
\hline C . & \operatorname{Read} y .
\end{array} \\
\hline\end{cases}
$$

${ }^{1}$ Inverted.
10. $y=\frac{b^{2} a}{x}$.

$$
\therefore \log y=\left(\log b^{2}-\operatorname{colog} a\right)+\operatorname{colog} x
$$

$$
\text { Inv. } \begin{cases}\hline B . & \operatorname{Read} y . \\ \hline A . & \text { Set } a . \\ \hline C . & \text { Opp. } x . \\ \hline \text { Opp. } b . & \end{cases}
$$

$$
\text { Ex. } a=15, b=2 ; \quad x=3, \quad y=20.0 \text {; }
$$

$$
x=5, \quad y=12.0 \text {; }
$$

$$
x=8, y=7.5
$$

11. $y=\sqrt{\frac{b^{2} a}{x}}$.
$\therefore \log y=\frac{1}{2}\left\{\left(\log b^{2}-\operatorname{colog} a\right)+\operatorname{colog} x\right\}$.

$$
\text { Inv. }\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
\hline B . & \\
\begin{array}{lll}
A . & \text { Set } a . & \text { Opp. } x . \\
A . & & \\
\hline C . & \text { Opp. } b . & \operatorname{Read} y .
\end{array}
\end{array}\right.
$$

In the other two cases the result must be read on the slide, so that the distances from the left index (1) will be the mantissas of the cologarithms of the corresponding numbers, while the distances on the rule will correspond to the mantissas of the logarithms.
12. $y=\frac{b a}{x^{2}}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\therefore \operatorname{colog} y & =\operatorname{colog} a+\operatorname{colog} b-\operatorname{colog} x \\
& =(\operatorname{colog} a-\log b)+\log x^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\text { Inv. }\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
\hline B . & \text { Opp. } b . \\
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { A. } & \text { Set } a .
\end{array} & \text { Read } y . \\
A . & & \\
\hline C . & \text { Opp. } x
\end{array}\right.
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Ex. } a=5, b=12 ; & x=2, y=15.00 ; \\
& x=4, y=3.75 ; \\
& x=5, y=2.4
\end{aligned}
$$

13. $y=\frac{b^{2} a}{x^{2}}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\therefore \operatorname{colog} y & =\operatorname{colog} a+\operatorname{colog} b^{2}-\operatorname{colog} x^{2} \\
& =\left(\operatorname{colog} a-\log b^{2}\right)+\log x^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Inv. }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\overline{B .} \begin{array}{l}
\overline{A .} \quad \text { Set } a . \quad \text { Read } y . \\
A .
\end{array} \\
\begin{array}{l}
\overline{C . \quad \text { Opp. } b . \quad \text { Opp. } x .}
\end{array} \\
\begin{array}{rl}
\text { Ex. } a=15, \quad b=2 ; \quad x=3, & y=6.67 \\
x=4, & y=3.75 \\
x=5, & y=2.4
\end{array}
\end{array} . \begin{array}{l}
x=2
\end{array}\right. \\
& \hline
\end{aligned}
$$

Note. - Expressions similar to (1), (8), and (10), Art. 173, may be solved in such a way that the result may be read on the slide $A$.

## 176. Use of the runner in complicated expressions.

If we have found the value of an expression, say $\frac{a b}{c}$, and marked its place on the rule by placing the runner there, then to multiply it by a fraction $\frac{d}{e}$ we bring the denominator $e$ on the slide to the runner and read the result on the rule opposite $d$ on the slide. For this subtracts $\log e$ from $\log \frac{a b}{c}$ and then adds $\log d$ to the remainder.

$$
y=\frac{a b c d e}{g h k}=\frac{a b}{g} \cdot \frac{c}{h} \cdot \frac{d}{k} \cdot \frac{e}{1} .
$$

Denoting the runner by $R$, we have

| $B$. | Opp. $a$. |  |  | $R$ |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $A$. | Set $g$. | $R$ to $b$. | $h$ to $R$. | $R$ to $c$. | $k$ to $R$. | $R$ to $d$. | 1 to $R$. |

Examples.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdot 7}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4}=\frac{4 \cdot 5}{2} \cdot \frac{6}{3} \cdot \frac{7}{4}=35 \\
& \frac{5 \cdot 6 \cdot 7 \cdot 8}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6}=\frac{5 \cdot 6}{2} \cdot \frac{7}{4} \cdot \frac{8}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{6}=7 . \\
& \frac{8 \cdot 9}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 6}=\frac{8 \cdot 9}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{6}=0.5
\end{aligned}
$$

An expression of the form

$$
y=\frac{a\left(m^{2}+n^{2}+r+s p+q^{3}\right)}{b}
$$

may be written

$$
y=\frac{a}{b} m^{2}+\frac{a}{b} n^{2}+\frac{a}{b} r+\frac{a}{b} s p+\frac{a}{b} q^{3},
$$

and the values of the several terms found separately. Notice that one setting will answer for the first three terms, if the results are read on the slide.
177. Gage points. When a formula is often used, as that for computing the horse power of an engine, it will be found convenient to combine the constant factors, sometimes using the resulting constant, and sometimes its reciprocal. Such a constant is called a gage point.

Thus the formula for the horse power of an engine is

$$
\mathrm{H} . \mathrm{P} .=\frac{p \times 0.7854 d^{2} \times 2 s \times r}{33000}
$$

where $p=$ mean effective steam pressure in the cylinder in lb. per sq. in.,
$d=$ diameter of piston in inches;
$s=$ stroke in feet,
$r=$ number of revolutions per minute.
But $\quad \frac{0.7854 \times 2}{33000}=\frac{1}{21008} ; \quad \therefore$ H.P. $=\frac{d^{2} p s r}{21008}$,
where 21008 is the gage point for the formula

$$
\text { H.P. }=\frac{d^{2} p}{21008} \times \frac{s}{1} \times \frac{r}{1^{.}}
$$

$B$. Read H.P.
A. Set 21008. $R$ to $p . \quad 1$ to $R . \quad R$ to $s . \quad 1$ to $R$. Opp. $r$. A.
C. Opp. d.

## 178. Extraction of cube roots.

$y=\sqrt[3]{b}$. Since $\sqrt[3]{8.000}=2, \sqrt[3]{80.000}=4+, \sqrt[3]{800.000}=9+$, the cube root of any sequence of figures will depend upon the position of the decimal point, so that the first figure of the root should be known approximately in order that the wrong number may not be taken. This first figure may be fom by dividing the given number into sections containing three digits each, commencing at the decimal point, and extracting the cube root of the left section. Then, with the slide inverted, opposite $b$ of $B$, set one of the extreme indices (1) of $A$, and find the number on $C$ that is opposite the same number on $A$. This will be the cube root required. Sometimes the right index of $A$ must be used, at others the left index.

$$
\text { Inv. }\left\{\begin{array}{lr}
\hline B . & \text { Opp. } b_{0} \\
\hline A . & \text { Set 1. }
\end{array} \begin{array}{r}
\text { Opp. } y . \\
A .
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{rr}
\text { or Opp. } y .
\end{array}, \begin{array}{ll}
\text { Cead } y .
\end{array}\right.
$$

179. Slide reversed. The reverse of the slide sometimes has along one edge a scale of logarithmic sines and along the other a scale of logarithmic tangents, the scales being so arranged that the numbers (degrees) increase from left to right when, the slide being reversed, the corresponding edge of the slide is adjacent to $B$.

## 180. Scale of logarithmic sines, S.

If we reverse the slide and place $S$ adjacent to $B$ so that their initial points coincide, we find that the beginning of $B$ corresponds to $0^{\circ} 34^{\prime}+$ on $S$, the middle index of $B$ to $5^{\circ} 44^{\prime}+$, and the right index of $B$ to $90^{\circ}$; for

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log \sin 0^{\circ} 34^{\prime}+ & =8.00(=-2), \\
\log \sin 5^{\circ} 44^{\prime}+ & =9.00(=-1), \\
\log \sin 90^{\circ} & =0.00,
\end{aligned}
$$

unity in the characteristic being represented by the same distance on $S$ and on $B$.

In this position the natural sine of an angle may be found by reading the number on $B$ corresponding to the angle on $S$.

The distance from the beginning of $S$ to any division, in the direction of increasing numbers, represents the mantissa, or the mantissa +1 , of the logarithmic sine of the angle corresponding to that division; and the distance from any division to the other end $\left(90^{\circ}\right)$ of $S$ represents the mantissa, or the mantissa +1 , of the cologarithm of the sine.

In expressions containing $\cos x$, since $\cos x=\sin \left(90^{\circ}-x\right)$, we may subtract the angle $x$ from $90^{\circ}$ and then use the sine of the remainder, finding it on $S$.

1. $a=c \sin x$.

$$
\therefore \log a=\log c+\log \sin x=\log c-\operatorname{colog} \sin x .
$$

Opposite $c$ of $B$ set the beginning of $S$, and opposite $x$ of $S$ read $a$ on $B$, for this adds $\log \sin x$ to $\log c$. If $x$ should fall outside of the rule, we would set the right end of $S$ opposite $c$ of $B$, and then opposite $x$ of $S$ read $a$ on $B$, for this subtracts colog $\sin x$ from $\log c$.
2. $b=c \cos x$.

$$
\therefore \log b=\log c+\log \sin \left(90^{\circ}-x\right)=\log c-\operatorname{colog} \sin \left(90^{\circ}-x\right),
$$

and the methods given for the multiplication of a sine by a number ( $a=c \sin x$ ) are applicable, using $90^{\circ}-x$ instead of $x$.

$$
\text { 3. } \begin{aligned}
c=a \div & \div \sin x \\
& \therefore \log c=\log a-\log \sin x=\log a+\operatorname{colog} \sin x .
\end{aligned}
$$

Opposite $a$ of $B$ set $x$ of $S$, and opposite the end of $S$ read $c$ on $B$; for this subtracts $\log \sin x$ from $\log a$ when we read opposite the left end, and adds colog $\sin x$ to $\log a$ when we read opposite the right end.

$$
\text { R'M'D SURV. }-13
$$

4. $c=b \div \cos x$.

$$
\therefore \log c=\log b-\log \sin \left(90^{\circ}-x\right)=\log b+\operatorname{colog} \sin \left(90^{\circ}-x\right),
$$

and the methods for $c=a \div \sin x$ are applicable, using $90^{\circ}-x$ instead of $x$.
5. $a=c \sin x \div \sin z$.

$$
\therefore \log a=\log c-\log \sin z+\log \sin x .
$$

Opposite $c$ of $B$ set $z$ of $S$, and opposite $x$ of $S$ read $a$ on $B$; for this first subtracts $\log \sin z$ from $\log c$, and then adds $\log \sin x$ to the remainder. If $x$ falls outside the rule, set the runner over the end of $S$ that is in the rule, shift the slide until the other end of $S$ comes to the runner, and then opposite $x$ of $S$ read $a$ on $B .^{1}$

The expression for $a$ becomes $c \sin x$ when $z=90^{\circ}$, and $c \div \sin z$ when $x=90^{\circ}$. Compare the setting just given with those for $c \sin x$ and $a \div \sin x$.
6. $\sin x=a \sin z \div c$.

$$
\therefore \log \sin x=\log \sin z-\log c+\log a .
$$

Opposite $c$ of $B$ set $z$ of $S$, and opposite $a$ of $B$ read $x$ on $S$; for this subtracts $\log c$ from $\log \sin z$, and adds $\log a$ to the remainder.

This becomes $\sin x=a+c$ when $z=90^{\circ}$.
7. $\cos x=b \div c$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\therefore \log \sin \left(90^{\circ}-x\right) & =\log b-\log c \\
& =\log \sin 90^{\circ}-\log c+\log b .
\end{aligned}
$$

Opposite $c$ of $B$ set $90^{\circ}$ of $S$, and opposite $b$ of $B$ read $90^{\circ}-x$ on $S$.

## 181. Scale of logarithmic tangents, T.

If we reverse the slide and place $T$ adjacent to $B$ so that their initial points coincide, we find that the beginning of $B$ corresponds to $0^{\circ} 34^{\prime}+$ on $T$, the middle index of $B$ to $5^{\circ} 42^{\prime}+$, and the right index to $45^{\circ}$; for

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log \tan 0^{\circ} 34^{\prime}+ & =8.00(=-2) \\
\log \tan 5^{\circ} 42^{\prime}+ & =9.00(=-1) \\
\log \tan 45^{\circ} & =0.00
\end{aligned}
$$

Unity in the characteristic, therefore, corresponds to the same distance on $T, A$, and $S$.

In this position the natural tangent of an angle less than $45^{\circ}$ may be found by reading the number on $B$ opposite the given angle on $T$. To find the tangent of an angle greater than $45^{\circ}$, invert the slide so that $T$ is adjacent to $C$, their ends coinciding, and read the number on $B$ corresponding to the complement of the angle on $T$ '.

The distance from the beginning of $T$ to any division, in the direction of increasing numbers, represents the mantissa, or the mantissa +1 , of the logarithmic tangent of the angle corresponding to that division; while the

[^29]distance from that division to the end $\left(45^{\circ}\right)$ of the scale represents the mantissa, or the mantissa +1 , of the cologarithm of the tangent.

Since $\tan x=1 \div \cot x$. we have
and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log \tan x & =\operatorname{colog} \cot x \\
\operatorname{colog} \tan x & =\log \cot x
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence the distance that represents $\log \tan x$ also represents $\operatorname{colog} \cot x$, and that representing colog $\tan x$ also represents $\log \cot x$.

When $x$ is greater than $45^{\circ}$, subtract $x$ from $90^{\circ}$ and use the cotangent of the remainder instead of $\tan x$, and the tangent of the remainder instead of $\cot x$.

1. $a=b \tan x$.

$$
x<45^{\circ} . \therefore \log a=\log b+\log \tan x=\log b-\operatorname{colog} \tan x .
$$

Opposite $b$ of $B$ set the end of $T$, and opposite $x$ of $T$ read $a$ on $B$; for this adds $\log \tan x$ to $\log b$ when the left end is used, and subtracts colog tan $x$ from $\log b$ when the right end is used.

$$
\begin{aligned}
x>45^{\circ} . \therefore \log a & =\log b+\log \cot \left(90^{\circ}-x\right) \\
& =\log b-\log \tan \left(90^{\circ}-x\right) \\
& =\log b+\operatorname{colog} \tan \left(90^{\circ}-x\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Opposite $b$ on $B$ set $90^{\circ}-x$ of $T$, and opposite the end of $T$ read $a$ on $B$; for this subtracts $\log \tan \left(90^{\circ}-x\right)$ from $\log b$ when the left end is used, and adds colog $\tan \left(90^{\circ}-x\right)$ to $\log b$ when the right end is used.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 2. } b=a \div \tan x . \\
& x<45^{\circ} . \quad \therefore \log b=\log a-\log \tan x=\log a+\operatorname{colog} \tan x .
\end{aligned}
$$

Opposite $a$ of $B$ set $x$ of $T$ and opposite the end of $T$ read $b$ on $B$; for this subtracts $\log \tan x$ from, or adds colog $\tan x$ to, $\log a$ when we read opposite the left or the right end respectively.

$$
\begin{aligned}
x>45^{\circ} . \therefore \log b & =\log a-\log \cot \quad\left(90^{\circ}-x\right) \\
& =\log a+\log \tan \left(90^{\circ}-x\right) \\
& =\log a-\operatorname{colog} \tan \left(90^{\circ}-x\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Opposite $a$ of $B$ set the end of $T$ and opposite $90^{\circ}-x$ of $T$ read $b$ on $B$; for this adds $\log \tan \left(90^{\circ}-x\right)$ to, or subtracts colog $\tan \left(90^{\circ}-x\right)$ from, $\log a$ when we use the left or the right end respectively.
3. $b=a \cot x$.

$$
\therefore b=a \div \tan x
$$

and the settings given under (2) are used.
4. $b=a \div \cot x$.

$$
\therefore b=a \tan x \text {, }
$$

and the settings given under (1) are used.
182. The Thacher rule. This rule (Fig. 92) consists of a wooden base bearing two upright metallic standards with a large circular opening in each, the line joining the centers of the openings being perpendicular to the planes of the standards. Attached to the standards are two circular plates of metal,


Fig. 92.
each with a large circular opening concentric with those in the standards, so arranged that they can revolve around the line joining the centers of the openings as an axis. These plates are united by twenty bars a little more than 18 inches long, triangular in section, and perpendicular to the plates.


Fig. 93. These bars are arranged at equal distances around the circular openings, with their vertices outward so that their bases form a cylindrical envelope, the distances between the bars being approximately equal to the width of their bases. A cylindrical slide fits in this cylindrical envelope, moving with either a rotary or a longitudinal motion. The system of bars and plates may be rotated about the axis of the cylindrical envelope without disturbing the relative position of the bars and the slide.

The system of bars is the rule, and the cylinder is the slide. The latter bears only one scale $A$, while the former contains the scales $B$ and $C$. The Thacher rule is equivalent to a carpenter's rule in which the slide bears only one of the two $A$ scales. The arrangement of the scales is practically the same as that in a straight rule of the form shown in Fig. 93.

The scale $A$ is laid down on the cylinder as follows :

Let $M$ and $N$ be two logarithmic scales 360 inches long, and let each be divided into forty equal parts, $a, b, \cdots, a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}, \cdots$. Draw forty equidistant elements on a cylinder and lay off on them the segments of the scales as shown in Fig. 95, which represents the development of the cylinder. Then the scales will read continuously from left to right.

The twenty bars are graduated on each side and bear two different


Fig. 94.
scales. The one nearer the cylindrical slide $B$ is constructed in the same way as that on the slide. The outer one $C$ is formed by dividing a logar rithmic scale 720 inches long into eighty equal parts and placing them in order above $a, b, \cdots, k, l ; a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}, \cdots, k^{\prime}, l^{\prime}$.

The Thacher rule gives results that should never be in error by more than one unit in the fourth significant figure, while the fifth figure can often be found with only a small error. The error should not exceed one part in ten thousand, so that this rule is intermediate in accuracy between a fourand a five-place logarithmic table.
183. Settings for the Thacher rule.


Fig. 95. The settings given for the carpenter's rule will answer for the Thacher rule. ${ }^{1}$ All the cases that can be solved with a single setting of the instrument have been mentioned. Problems that can not be solved with one setting may sometimes be easily computed by the use of the runner, and sometimes by computing the different parts of the expression, reading the results, and then combining them with the aid of the rule.
184. Fuller's slide rule. This rule is shown in Fig. 96. The hollow sleeve $C$, which bears the graduations, is capable of sliding along and revolving about the continuous cylinder $H H$, the latter being held by the handle attached to it. $\boldsymbol{F}$ is

[^30]a fixed index fastened to $H$, and by moving the sleeve, any division of the scale may be made to coincide with $\boldsymbol{F}$. The cylinder $H$ is hollow, forming a guide for the motion of a third cylinder that is attached to the flange $G$, its axis being coincident with the common axis of $C$ and $H . \quad A$ and $B$ are two indices fixed to and moving with $G$, the distance $A B$ being


Fig. 96.
equal to the axial length of the scale. This scale, 500 inches in length, is wrapped on the sleeve $C$ in the form of a helix, its beginning being at the end towards $G$. Stops are provided, so that the indices may be readily made to coincide with the beginning of the scale.

To illustrate the use of the indices, ${ }^{1}$ suppose that we wish to find the value of $a \times b$. Move the sleeve $C$ until $a$ is opposite $F$, and then by moving $G$, place $A$ at the beginning of the scale; the distance from $A$ to $F$, along the helix, will be $\log a$. Move the sleeve $C$, being careful not to change the relative positions of $G$ and $H$, until $b$ is opposite $A$; then the distance along the helix from the beginning of the scale to $A$ is $\log b$. Hence the distance from the beginning of the scale to $F$, along the helix, is $\log b+\log a=\log a b$, so that the product will be found on the scale opposite $F$.
185. The Mannheim rule. With the Mannheim rule (Art. 166) we can find with one setting the value of any expression in a fractional form with two factors in the numerator and one in the denominator, one of the numbers being variable and one or all of the numbers being squared, and also the value of the square root of such an expression, the result being always read on the rule.

The carpenter's and the Thacher rules do not possess this power, since the slide does not bear a scale similar to $C$.

[^31]
## B00K II.

GENERAL SURVEYING METHODS.

## CHAPTER VII.

## LAND SURVEYS.

186. Obstacles and problems. In the field work of the surveyor, various obstacles arise which must be overcome. A few of the more common difficulties, with the methods of surmounting them, will be given.
I. In Fig. 97 it is required to produce the line $X A$ in distance and direction.
(1) At $A$ erect the perpendicular $A C$, to which erect the perpendicular $C D$, which make long enough to pass the obstacle. At the point $D$ erect the perpendicular $D B$ equal to $A C$, and at $B$ erect the perpendicular $B Y$, which is the line produced. The distance $A B$ equals $C D$.
(2) At $A$ set off an angle of $60^{\circ}$ and measure $A C$ of such length that a line making an
 angle of $60^{\circ}$ with $A C$ will pass the obstacle. At $C$ set off from $A C$ an angle of $60^{\circ}$ and measure $C B$ equal to $A C$. At $B$ set off the angle $A B C^{6} 60^{\circ}$. The instrument will then be in the line $X . A$ produced, pointing toward $A$, and the distance $A B$ equals $A C$ or $C B$.
(3) At $A$ set off any convenient angle $B A C$ and measure any distance $A C$. At $C$ set off any angle $A C B$, making it
$90^{\circ}$ if convenient, and measure $C B$, a distance determined by solving the triangle $A B C$, and at $B$ set off an angle $A B C$ determined in the same way.


Fig. 98.
II. In Fig. 98 it is required to determine the distance $A B$, $B$ being an inaccessible point, or the stream too wide to be spanned by a single chain or tape length.
(1) At $A$ set off the angle $B A C$ equal to $90^{\circ}$ and measure $A C$ a convenient distance, not so short as to make the angle


Fig. 99.
$A B C$ less than $20^{\circ}$, unless this is unavoidable, and at $C$ measure the angle $B C A$. Solve the right-angled triangle.
(2) At $A$ set off any convenient angle $B A C$ and measure any convenient distance $A C$, observing the previous caution
with regard to the angle at $B$. Measure the angle at $C$ and solve the triangle $A C B$.
III. In Fig. 99, it is required to determine the length and bearing of the inaccessible line $A B$.
(1) Measure the line $C D$, from eàch end of which both $A$ and $B$ may be seen, and determine its bearing. With the instrument first at $C$ and then at $D$ measure three angles at each point. Solve the triangle $A C D$ for $A C, B C D$ for $C B$, and $A B C$ for $A B$, and an angle at $A$ and $B$. Another combination of triangles could be used.
IV. In Fig. 100, it is required to determine the length and bearing of the line $A B$.


Fig. 100.
(1) Run the random line $A b c d B$, noting bearings and distances. If the survey is treated as a closed field, $A B$ will be the error of closure, or the closing line, or a wanting side which may be fully determined in the manner previously given for finding the bearing and length of a wanting side.
187. Two common problems. I. In Fig. 101, it is required to determine the lengths and bearings of the sides of the field $A B C D E F$, the lines being through woods and no two corners visible, the one from the other. The positions of the corners are, however, known.

Run the random line $A a b B c d C e f D g E h i k F l A$, and compute the latitudes and longitudes, or the coördinates, of the points $A B C D E F$, referred to the true or any convenient meridian, preferably the true meridian through the most westerly point of the survey. From these coördinates deter-
mine the latitude and longitude differences and the bearing and length of each course.
II. If a corporation, as a mining company, proposes to purchase a considerable tract of ground containing many small parcels owned by different individuals, and a description of each parcel with its area is wanted, there are two ways of obtaining the information.


Fig. 101.
(1) Each parcel may be separately surveyed, determining the bearings and lengths of the courses and the areas.
(2) By far the quicker and better way is to run a random field, touching on the various corners of the various parcels, to compute the coördinates of these corners, and from these the bearings, or azimuths, and the length of the sides and the areas. If a separate description of each piece is not required, but only the area, the computation of bearing and length of course may be omitted and the areas may be obtained at once from the coorrdinates of the corners.

## surveying with the chain alone.

188. In most surveys the chain or tape is used in connection with some instrument for measuring angles, since, when the sides and angles of a polygon (a field) are known, the polygon may be drawn and its area computed. But it is frequently convenient in approximating to make an entire survey, usually of a very small tract, with the chain alone. This entire survey may be a part of a larger survey, but is, never-
theless, being a closed survey, complete in itself. A method of making such a survey will therefore be described briefly, introducing some methods that are employed as well when the compass or transit is used with the chain.
189. Preliminary examination. Let Fig. 102 represent the map of a farm, a survey of which is desired, and let it be supposed that there is no instrument available except a chain or tape. It will of course be impossible to determine bearings. It is assumed that it is the area that is desired.

The first thing to do in any land survey is to make a rough sketch of the tract to be surveyed, drawing it as nearly as possible in correct proportion, from an inspection made by walking over the field, or from a description of the field taken from the deed, if one can be obtained. From the deed will be obtained only the description of the boundary; and the other features that may be desired must be sketched in the field. On inspection it is found that Mr. Miller owns a farm bounded on one side by the center of the road, on another by the Green River, and on three remaining sides by fences, broken on one side by a pond, which is owned partly by Mr. Miller and partly by his neighbor.

But one convenient way to get the area of the field is known to the surveyor, and that is to divide the field into triangles, measure the sides of the triangles or two sides and an included angle of each, whereupon the area of each may be computed and the whole summed. It is evident in the case of the Miller farm that what might be considered as two sides, those formed by the river, are not straight, and therefore can not be taken as sides of a triangle. Two auxiliary sides, $D E$ and $E F$, are chosen, lying as nearly as may be parallel to the two sides. It is found impossible in the field to choose the point $E$ so that $A$ may be seen from it, hence it is so chosen that it shall lie on a perpendicular to the line $A F$ drawn through $F$. This makes the triangle $A F E$ a right-angled triangle, and hence $A E$ need not be measured. If the house were so located that the line $B F$ could be conveniently laid out, it might be measured and the two triangles $A B F$ and $B F E$ might be used instead of $A F E$ and $A E B$.
190. Survey. To begin the survey, select a point, $F$, in the center of the road, and, placing a flag in the fence at $B$, or merely sighting along the fence, if it is straight, locate a point in the center of the road at $A$, in $B a$ prolonged. Measure $F A$. Measure $A B$. If the fence $a B$ is not straight, or is a


Note: Surveyed by A.B. Wood with chain only Oct.s, 8894.

Scate; 2 chains per inch.
Fig. 102.
rough rail fence, so that it is not convenient to measure on the line $A B$, measure along a parallel line offsetting a short distance from the fence, making no note of the offset, but recording merely the length $A B$ and the distance from $A$ to $a$. Measure along the line $B C$. or on a small offset parallel to it toward $C$, until the pond is reached. Note the distance, and erect a
perpendicular offset long enough to permit a line parallel to $B C$ to pass the pond. At the extremity of this offset erect a perpendicular which will be parallel to $B C$, and measure along the perpendicular far enough to clear the pond, and then, by a process like that just used, get back on the line $C B$. When measuring along the parallel line, take offsets to the pond as often as may be necessary, noting the distance to each offset and the length of the offset. Having reached $C$, measure along the line $C D$ to $D$, then along $D E$ to $E$, noting the distance to and the length of each offset that it appears necessary to take to correctly locate the river; and having reached $E$, measure $E F$, noting similarly the offsets and also the distance to the fence at the roadside.

Perhaps the ordinary method of procedure now would be to measure the diagonals $D B$ and $B E$; then the field would be divided into four triangles, $A B E, B C D, B E D$, and $A E F$, the areas of which could be computed, and to their sum, the area between the lines $D E$ and $E F$ and the river (computed as described in Chapter VI.) could be added, and the area of the entire field would thus be obtained. The line $D B$ would be a difficult one to run, because both $D$ and $B$ being lower than the ground between them, the line must be ranged out, and, moreover, the intervening woods make it even more difficult to determine. If the woods were thick, it could be obtained only by running a trial line and correcting that to the true line. Moreover, the method above described gives no check on the work; and the constant thought of the surveyor should be, "Where can I find a check on my work?" Not more than one check on one piece of work is, however, necessary ; though, if more may be obtained without waste of time, they may sometimes prove advantageous.

Having measured the boundary of the field, it is probably best now to measure the line $A C$, finding by trial the points at which perpendiculars to this line will pass through $F, B, E$, and $D$. Measure these perpendiculars, and now four sides of the boundary are the hypotenuses of right-angled triangles, of which the other two sides are known. The other two sides are sides of trapezoids, or may be considered the hypotenuses of right triangles. The computed value of each of the sides of
the boundary should agree with its measured length. If it does not, there is an error in the measurement of either the line $A C$, one or more of the perpendiculars, or one or more of the sides of the boundary. If all is right except one side, the error is in that side. The work should then be remeasured in so far as it may be found wrong. If this latter method is not adopted, a rough check may be had on the former method by measuring the angles made by the sides. These should measure on a drawing the same as found in the field.

The work necessary to obtain the area of the farm is now completed. If it is desired to locate the drives, buildings, and other objects within the inclosure, it may be done by running auxiliary lines at known angles and from known points on the various sides. For instance, a line could be run from $E$, at right angles to $E F$, and at stated points on this auxiliary line offsets could be measured to the corners of the objects it is desired to locate; or if it were the driveway, the offsets could be taken at frequent noted intervals to the sides of the drive. As the point $D$ can not be seen from the line $A C$, a point may be chosen at random, as near as possible to the proper position, and a perpendicular run out to a point opposite $D$, whereupon the length of the perpendicular and the distance that the point on $A C$ must be shifted to be in its proper place become known.
191. Notes. The measurements should be written on the sketch, which must be made large enough to permit this to be done without confusion. It is believed that no form of notes for such work is so good as a sketch on which all information is written. For the auxiliary lines locating drives, etc., the sketch would consist of a straight line, with distances to offsets marked along it, and offsets and objects offsetted to sketched in with dimensions. These need not be to any scale.

## FARM SURVEYS.

192. Classes. All land surveys may be divided into three classes, - original surveys, resurveys, and location surveys. These surveys are made with a compass or transit. The surveys of former years, in the older settled portions of the United

States, were all made with the compass, and almost always with reference to the magnetic meridian.
193. Original surveys. Original surveys are those made for the purpose of mapping a field whose boundaries are marked in some way, for determining its area, and for making a description from which it could be again laid out if the boundaries should be destroyed. Thus, Mr. Brown may own a farm, a portion of which is timber land, which Mr. Black wishes to buy. The boundaries are sufficiently marked by the edges of the growth of timber. After the timber is gone, however, there will be nothing to mark the boundaries, unless the tract is fenced. There is no way in which Mr. Black may know how many acres he is to buy, unless the tract is surveyed. Neither can Mr. Brown give Mr. Black a deed to the property that would contain a definite description from which the tract could be laid out on the ground. A surveyor is called in and shown the tract and asked to make a survey of it, to compute the acreage, and to write a description of the plot.
194. Making an original survey. At the corners that are shown him he sets monuments, preferably of stone. Too many surveyors set mérely small stakes, which soon rot or are pulled out. These monuments are "witnessed" by trees, or other natural objects near by, whose positions relative to the corner are observed and noted. The witness points are marked as indicated in Art. 196. The surveyor then determines the bearing and length of each side, usually beginning at one corner and working round the field in one direction till he closes on the corner from which he started. He keeps notes of the work in a notebook, preferably in the form shown on page 229 , or on a sketch, which is afterwards "written up" in the form just mentioned, and from the notes he "tables" the survey and computes the area as explained in Chapter VI.
195. Making the map. He may, and usually does, make a map of the survey. This map should conform to the requirements stated in the Appendix, page 355. The easiest and most rapid method of plotting the map is by "latitudes and longitudes." Two reference lines at right angles are drawn, and
one is assumed as the meridian and the other as a line of zero latitude. The total latitudes and longitudes of the corners are determined from the tabling work, and are laid off from these base lines. The latitudes are measured from the zero parallel, and the longitudes from the meridian. It will be convenient to make the reference meridian pass through the most westerly point of the survey. This is not necessary. To avoid negative signs for latitude, compute all latitudes as if the reference parallel were through the same point as the meridian; then add to all latitudes a sum equal to the greatest negative latitude; or assume the latitude of the most westerly point to be so large that there sliall be no negative latitudes.

When the corners are all plotted they are connected by right lines, and the outline is complete. It remains to number the corners, to write the bearings and lengths along the sides, and to put on the necessary descriptive matter. The work should all be done with the utmost neatness, the lettering being preferably the simple Roman, the most effective and most difficult letter that is made.
196. Description. Having made the map, the surveyor writes a description, somewhat in the following form:

Beginning at a post marked B.1., at the S.E. corner of the land of Joseph Brown, from which post a hard maple tree, 8 inches in diameter, bears $\mathrm{S} .10^{\circ} \mathrm{W} .10$ links, and a white ash, 12 inches in diameter, bears N. $70^{\circ} \mathrm{W} .50$ links, both of which trees are blazed and marked B.1.B.T. (Black 1 Bearing Tree), and running thence $\mathrm{N} .10^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. along the easterly line of said Joseph Brown, six and forty-two one-hundredths ( $6-\frac{42}{100}$ ) chains to a post marked B.2., from which post a hickory tree, 10 inches in diameter and marked B.2.B.'T. bears S. $68^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$. 30 links ; thence N. $84^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$. seven and fifty one-hundredths $\left(7_{150}^{100}\right)$ chains to a stone about 12 inches long and 6 inches square, set flush with the ground and marked B.3., from which stone a beech tree, 15 inches in diameter and marked B.3.B.T.
 the point of beginning, containing .---------- acres, more or less.

The surveyor usually does his tabling and writes his descrip-
tions in a book which he keeps for the purpose, for future reference. Copies are made, and, with a tracing of the map, are furnished the person for whom the survey is made. This is the simplest kind of land surveying.
197. Resurveys. These are far more difficult than original surveys. A resurvey consists in tracing on the ground an original survey, from a description similar to that just given. The difficulties arise from the destruction of monuments and from errors in original work, from change in declination of the needle (if the surveys were run by the magnetic compass and referred to the magnetic meridian), from insufficient data in the original description, such as failure to state whether the survey is referred to the true or magnetic meridian, failure to state the declination on which the survey was made, lack of bearing trees or other reference points, etc., and from conflicting testimony of interested owners as to where the corners were. It is impossible to point out all the difficulties that will be encountered by a surveyor in his attempt to reëstablish the monuments of an old survey. The more of this work that he does, the more firmly will it be impressed upon him that the only kind of corners to establish are those that will be as nearly as possible permanent, and that minuteness of detail and accuracy in all descriptions are well worth the time they take.
198. Reasons for a resurvey. A resurvey becomes necessary for various reasons. Among others might be the following, referring to the original survey previously described: After Mr. Black has owned the wood lot for a number of years, and perhaps has cleared it, and it has descended to his son and his son's son, and the corners are mostly obliterated, it is sold to Mr. Johnson who, desiring to fence it off, and, moreover, to see whether the land he is paying for is all there, employs a surveyor to "run it out," giving him the description written by the original surveyor as he finds it in his deed, with possibly some errors in copying.
199. Procedure. If the surveyor can recover a single line of the original survey, and the notes are correct, his work will be
comparatively easy. (He simply has to establish a series of lines of given bearing and length.) He therefore endeavors to do this. If this can not be done, the next best thing is to recover any two corners and determine in the field the bearing and length of the line joining them. From the original notes he will then compute the bearing and length of this line, and the angle made with it by one of the sides of the field joining it, and he then can lay off this angle from his field-determined line and locate that side. As there will be four sides joining the line between the two corners, it will be seen that the surveyor has a good beginning for his work.
200. Change of declination. It might seem that if he could find but one corner, he could run out the field, knowing the bearings. This would be true if he knew also the declination on which the original survey was made and the declination at the time of his resurvey.

The following consideration will explain this: Let it be assumed that the original survey was made with reference to the magnetic meridian and that the declination at that time was east $10^{\circ}$. Then, any line that is recorded due north will be $10^{\circ}$ east of north. Any line recorded due south will be $10^{\circ}$ west of south, etc. That is, all the points of the compass are turned $10^{\circ}$ to the right. Let it be assumed that the declina${ }^{\circ}$ tion at the time of the resurvey is $8^{\circ}$ east. A line recorded as due north will be $8^{\circ}$ east of north, and a line recorded as due south will be $8^{\circ}$ west of south. The points of the compass have been turned back two degrees to the left. And hence, if a line were run out with the original bearing, it would lie two degrees to the left of the true place. It would be necessary to run the line with a bearing two degrees to the right of its originally recorded bearing. Thus, if its original bearing were north, it must be rerun with the needle reading N. $2^{\circ}$ E. Hence, the following rule is serviceable:

Rule: To revin lines recorded by their magnetic bearings, change the bearings by an amount equal to the change in declination and in a direction opposite to that change - that is, left or right.

If the compass has a declination vernier, that vernier may
be set so that the compass, when the line of sight is pointing in a known bearing, as magnetic north, shall read a bearing as many degrees to the right or left of the known magnetic bearing as the declination has changed to the right or left. It must be remembered that, in using the declination vernier, the compass box moves with reference to the line of sight. In the above case it should read N. $2^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$., when the sights are pointing to magnetic north. Hence, to be able to retrace the survey with a compass, using the original bearings, the following rule is serviceable :

Rule : Set the declination vernier so that the compass shall read magnetic bearings erroneously by an amount equal to and in the direction (left or right) of the change in declination.

To find the change in declination, if it is not known, determine the bearing of a line of the original survey and compare this with the bearing recorded. The difference is the change in declination in amount and in opposite direction (left or right).

If one line can not be found, but two corners may be, connect the two corners by a random line as described in Art. 186. Find the bearing of the closing line and compare it with the bearing of the same line computed from the original notes.
201. Transit or compass. When a transit is used, or indeed a compass, the angles at the corners of the field may be determined from the recorded bearings and, when one side has been recovered, the angles and distances may be measured, to recover the other sides. This does away with all consideration of, or change in, declination. It is by far the better method to pursue with lands of any considerable value. The angles determined from compass readings can not be depended on to minutes, and may be found to vary five or ten minutes. It would be well if, when a transit is first used on a resurvey, the corrected bearings and distances could be introduced in a correction deed which could be filed with the proper authority. If angles are to be used, and one side can not be directly recovered, but a closing line joining two corners is determined, proceed as follows: Over one known corner, set the line of
sight in the closing line mentioned, and turn off an angle deter. mined, by computation from the description, to be the angle between this line and a side adjacent to the corner occupied.

This should give the direction of that side. Measure the recorded length of that side, and look about over a considerable area for evidences of the corner. Look for recorded witness trees, or their stumps. Carefully shovel off the top of the soil - do not dig it up by spadefuls. A careful shoveling will frequently reveal the hole formerly occupied by a stake, now rotted entirely away, with evidences of the decayed wood. Continue the work till all corners are found or satisfactorily relocated. The only thing that can absolutely insure the correctness of the resurvey is the finding of the old corners.
202. Report. Upon the completion of the resurvey, the surveyor should report to his employer just what he finds. It is not his business to decide controversies. He may advise, just as an attorney would do; but he has no authority to correct errors or to establish corrected corners as the corners. ${ }^{1}$ His business is to make an examination, to reset lost corners in their original positions, if he can find them, and to report his method of procedure and the reasons for his action to his employer, who may then take such action as he chooses. A neat and explicit map should accompany the report. The surveyor may possibly be assisted in his work by an understanding of the principles of Art. 204, deduced from many court decisions. ${ }^{2}$
203. Application of coördinates. In all of this work the coördinate system is very helpful. Usually the true corners of a tract of land can not be occupied by the instrument, nor can the lines be seen throughout their length. If it is known where the corners are, and it is desired to make a survey for a map or a description, a random survey is made with corners as near as practicable to the true corners. . This survey is balanced and the coördinates of its corners are determined. From such of the corners as are near true corners, angles or azimuths,

[^32]and distances to the true corners are noted, and from these the coördinates of the true corners are determined. From these coördinates, lengths and bearings of true lines may be found.

If the survey is for the purpose of relocating lost corners, and the bearings of the lines and at least one point in each are known, the corners may be located even though the lines can not be occupied by the instrument, provided the corners and known points are accessible. This would be done by running a random survey as before with pointings to the known points (and such corners as are known) then finding the coördinates of the known points, and by Problem II., Art. 143, the coördinates of the wanting corners. Knowing now the coördinates of the points in the random survey and those of the true corners, by Problem I., Art. 143, find the bearing and distance from a corner of the random to the nearest wanting true corner, and locate the corner. ${ }^{1}$
204. Principles for guidance in resurveys. I. Construing descriptions. The following principles have been applied to the construing of descriptions that are inconsistent, obscure in meaning, or imperfect.
(1) The description is to be construed favorably to the purchaser, unless the intent of both parties can be certainly ascertained. If that intent can be ascertained, the description will be construed accordingly.
(2) The deed must be construed according to the conditions existing, and in the light of the facts known and in the minds of the parties, at the time the instrument was drawn.
(3) Every requirement of a description must be met, if possible. Nothing is to be rejected if all requirements are mutually consistent.
(4) If some parts are evidently impossible and, by rejecting such parts, the remainder forms a perfect description, such impossible parts may be rejected.
(5) A deed is to be construed so as to make it effectual rather than void.

[^33](6) If land is described as that owned and occupied by an individual, the actual line of occupation is a requirement or call to be met in the location.
(7) A line described as running a definite distance to a definite known line or object, will be construed as running to that object, whatever distance is required. If the known object is uncertain as to position, the written distance may be used.
(8) The terms "northerly," "southerly," "easterly," and "westerly," are to be construed, in the absence of other information, as meaning due north, south, east, and west.
(9) When a definite quantity of land is sold and nothing appears to indicate its form - as, for instance, ten acres in the northeast corner of B's land, the land will be laid out as a square, unless this is manifestly impossible.
(10) A description by "metes and bounds" will convey all the land within the boundaries, be it more or less than the area mentioned in the deed.
(11) Property described as bounded by a highway extends to the center of the highway, unless specifically noted otherwise.
(12) A description by metes and bounds, followed by a statement that the land described is a particular well-known parcel, will be construed to convey the well-known parcel, though the metes and bounds do not fulfill the necessary conditions.
II. Water boundaries. (1) Local laws of different states give different constructions to the word "navigable" and the surveyor must examine the laws of the state in which he works. The United States statutes provide as follows for the streams within the area known as the public lands :
"All navigable rivers, within the territory occupied by the public lands, shall remain and be deemed public highways; and, in all cases where the opposite banks of any streams not navigable belong to different persons, the stream and the bed thereof shall become common to both."
(2) Grants of land bordering on navigable streams carry only to high-water mark, while on non-navigable streams they carry to the center, or "filum aquæ."
(3) The common law holds those streams only to be navigable in which the tide ebbs and flows. The civil law considers a stream navigable that is capable of being used as a commercial highway.

The courts of Pennsylvania, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Alabama follow the civil law, while those of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Maryland, Virginia, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, and Michigan follow the common law.
(4) The bank is the continuous margin where vegetation ceases. The shore is the sandy space between it and lowwater mark.
(5) A description reading "to the bank," or "along the bank," is construed to mean "the bank," and to include no portion of the stream.
(6) Islands in rivers fall under the same rule as the land under water, and belong to one adjoining proprietor or the other-unless previously lawfully appropriated - according as they are on one side of the center or the other. The filum aquae is midway between lines of ordinary low-water mark, without regard to the position of the main channel.
(7) Riparian rights, unless expressly limited, extend to the middle of the navigable channel.
(8) In some states the tide lands are held to belong inalienably to the people of the state and may not be sold to individuals. In others a different policy has been pursued.
(9) A boundary by the shore of a millpond carries to lowwater mark.
(10) Boundary lines of lots fronting on a river extend into the river at right angles to the thread of the stream, without regard to the form of the bank.
(11) Land made by the drying up of a lake or the deposit of alluvium along a river accrues to the adjacent owners and should be so distributed among them that each will receive such a portion of the made area as his former frontage on the water was of the entire former frontage. If, however, the water front is the valuable item, as it would be along a navigable river or lake in a city, the new frontage is to be distributed according to the old frontages.
III. Special field rules. (1) Monuments control courses and distances. That is, if the location of an original monument can be certainly ascertained and the recorded distance does not reach that monument, the line must, nevertheless, be run to the monument. In the absence of sufficient evidence to determine the monument, the description will govern. (The surveyor should use every effort to find evidence as to the location of the lost corner.)
(2) Adverse possession of land for a definite period of time (varying in different states), even without color of title, constitutes title in fee; but the possession must be adverse; that is, the true line must be known to the parties or the line of occupation must be acquiesced in by them. If the true boundary is unknown, and each claims to own only to the true line, no adverse possession can arise.
(3) Boundaries and monuments may be proved by any evidence that is admissible in establishing any other facts.
(4) A resurvey after original monuments have been lost is for the purpose of finding where they were, and not where they should have been.
(5) Purchasers of town lots have a right to locate them according to the stakes which they find planted and recognized, and no subsequent survey can be allowed to unsettle them. The question afterwards is not where they should have been, but where they were planted with authority, and where lots were purchased and taken possession of in reliance on them.
(6) Of two surveys that disagree, made many years apart - the monuments being lost - the original survey will be preferred, particularly if the line of the first survey has remained unquestioned for many years.
(7) When streets have been opened and long acquiesced in, in supposed conformity to a plot, they should be accepted as fixed monuments in locating lots or blocks contiguous thereto.
(8) A beginning corner is of no greater dignity or importance than any other corner.
(9) A call for a lot by a name or number that it bears on a mentioned plot will prevail over courses and distances, and sometimes over monuments.
205. Location surveys. These consist in laying out on the ground lines previously determined by computation or drawing. Such surveys are not infrequently connected with either original surveys or resurveys. Surveys for the partition and division of land are of this class. If Joseph Brown sells to John Black five acres of land in the shape of a square, one corner and the direction of one side being fixed, the location of the sides and corners would be a location survey. Such surveys are comparatively simple, involving sometimes the running of one or more trial lines for data to compute the location. Many complex problems, however, arise.

## UNITED STATES PUBLIC LAND SURVEYS.

206. Value and character of work. The original surveys for the subdivision of the public lands of the United States are location surveys. The method adopted, imperfectly as the work has been done, has been of incalculable value in definitely describing each separate tract or parcel of land sold to individuals, and in providing that lines once established by the United States deputy surveyors shall remain as the lines they purport to be, even though found to be improperly placed. The latter provision has been of particular value in making the land lines permanent. The work of subdividing the public lands is almost completed, and hence the work of the surveyor of the future will be largely resurveying, that is, relocating corners that have been or are supposed to be lost, and dividing into smaller parcels the areas already located.

If the original surveys had been properly executed, the work would not be difficult. In some instances the work was most wretchedly done, either willfully or through ignorance; and the corners, when established, were placed far from their proper positions. The notes have generally been returned in a form indicating correct work; and hence has arisen more or less difficulty in relocating the corners.
207. General scheme of subdivision. Certain points have been selected in different parts of the country through which true north and south lines, called "principal meridians," have been run and marked out on the ground. Intersecting these prin-
cipal meridians at the initial point are run parallels of latitude, known as "base lines." On either side of these meridians the land is laid out in approximately square parcels, six miles on a side, called "townships." A tier of these townships running north and south is called a "range." The townships are described as being "Township No. - south or north of a named base line and range No. - east or west of a named principal meridian." This definitely locates every township.

The lines that divide the ranges are called "range lines," and those that divide a southern from a northern township are called "township lines." Each township is further divided into thirty-six " sections," each approximately one mile square. These sections are numbered from one to thirty-six. Each section, then, is definitely located by its number, township, and range. The sections have been further divided into quarter sections as, the northeast quarter, the southwest quarter, etc. Sometimes the sections have been divided into halves, described as the north half or the east half, etc. The Government does not divide the land into smaller divisions than quarter sections, but it sells less areas than this, and, in such cases, and when original purchasers sell a portion of their purchase, it is usual to sell a quarter of a quarter, or half of a quarter, or even a quarter of a quarter of a quarter section; and the method of describing these fractional portions is the same as that used to describe the quarter sections. The description would be written as follows for the piece described: The N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ of the S. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ of Sec. 26, Tp. 8 N., R. 4 E., Mt. Diablo Meridian.

The positions of the meridians being chosen more or less at random and at different times, as the necessity for surveys in different localities developed, it is to be expected that the surveys extending east from one meridian will not close with regular full sections or townships on the surveys extended west from the next easterly meridian. The same is true of tiers of townships extended north and south from adjacent base lines. The result is fractional townships and sections. Sometimes these are larger than the standard division, sometimes smaller. If very much larger, the surplus in a township is divided into lots which are numbered. These lots are made to contain as nearly as possible 160 acres. There are other
circumstances that will appear, that cause a departure from the ordinary method of subdividing and describing.

The work in a given state is under the direction of a United States surveyor general. The work has all been done by contract, a surveyor taking a contract to perform a definite portion of work for a specified sum per mile. This has been the principal cause of much bad work.

The lands classified as public lands and subdivided according to the method outlined include all land north of the Ohio River and west of the Mississippi River, except Texas, and including Mississippi, Alabama, and Florida, except in all the above-named territory such lands as belonged to individuals at the time the territory became a part of the United States.

The public lands of Texas are, by a provision of the laws admitting Texas into the Union, the property of the state. No general scheme for their subdivision has been developed. They have been sold in parcels as nearly square as may be. The Spanish vara is the unit that has been adopted for measurement. The vara is, in Texas, $33 \frac{1}{3}$ inches. There are 5645 square varas in an acre.

The following is very much condensed from the "Manual of Surveying

| $36^{-}$ | 30 | $24^{-}$ | 18 | 12 | 6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 35 | 29 | 23 | 17 | 11 | 5 |
| 34 | 28 | 22 | 16 | 10 | 4 |
| 33 | 27 | 21 | 15 | 9 | 8 |
| 32 | 26 | 20 | 14 | 8 | 2 |
| 31 | 25 | 19 | 13 | 7 | 1 |

Fig. 103. Instructions" issued by the General Land Office in Washington.
208. Historical note. The first surveying of the public lands was done in Ohio under an act passed by Congress in 1785. The territory included in this early survey is now known as "The Seven Ranges." The townships were divided into thirty-six sections one mile square, numbered consecutively, as in Fig. 103.

In 1796 the method of numbering sections was changed to that shown in Fig. 104, and this method is still in use.

An act of 1805 directs the subdivision of public lands into quarter sections, and provides that all the corners marked in the public surveys shall. be established as the proper corners of sections which they were intended to designate, and that corners of half and quarter sections not marked shall be placed, as

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| 18 | 17 | 16 | 15 | 14 | 13 |
| 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 |
| 30 | 29 | 28 | 27 | 26 | 25 |
| 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 |

Fig. 101. nearly as possible, "equidistant from those two corners which stand on the same line." This act further provides that "the boundary lines actually run and marked . . . shall be established as the proper boundary lines of the sections or subdivisions for which they were intended; and the. length of such lines as returned by . . . the surveyors shall be held and considered as the true lenyth thereof. . . ."

An act of 1824 provides "that whenever, in the opinion of the President of the United States, a departure from the ordinary mode of surveying land on any river, lake, bayou, or water course would promote the public interest, he may direct the surveyor general in whose district such land is situated . . . to cause the lands thus situated to be surveyed in tracts of two acres in width, fronting on any river, bayou, lake, or water course, and running back the depth of forty acres. ${ }^{1}$

An act of 1820 provided for the sale of public lands in halfquarter sections, the quarters to be divided by lines running north and south; and an act of $\mathbf{1 8 3 2}$ provided for the sale of the public lands in quarter-quarter sections, and that the half sections should be divided by lines running east and west. The latter act also provided that the secretary of the treasury should establish rules for the subdivision of fractional sections.
209. Legal requirements inconsistent. Existing law requires that the public lands be laid out in townships six miles square by
${ }^{1}$ Let the student determine the width and depth in chains of such a strip. This provision is carried out where the water front rather than area is the valuable item.
lines running due north and south, and others east and west, also that the township shall be divided into thirty-six sections, by two sets of parallel lines, one governed by true meridians and the other by parallels of latitude, the latter intersecting the former at right angles, at intervals of one mile; and each of these sections must contain, as nearly as possible, six hundred and forty acres. These requirements are manifestly impossible because of the convergency of the meridians, and the discrepancies will be the greater as the land divided is farther north. The law also provides that the work of subdivision shall be so performed as to throw all shortages or surplus into the northern and western tiers of sections in each township. To harmonize these various requirements as much as possible, the following methods have been adopted by the general land office.
210. Principal reference lines. Initial points are established astronomically under special instructions. From the initial point a "principal meridian" is run north and south. Through the initial point a "base line" is run as a parallel of latitude east and west. ${ }^{1}$ On the principal meridian and base line the section and quarter corners, and meander corners at the intersection of the line with all streams, lakes, or bayous, prescribed to be meandered, will be established. These lines may be run by solar instruments, but methods involving the use of the transit with observations on Polaris at elongation are now preferred. ${ }^{2}$
211. Standard parallels. - Such parallels, called also correction lines, are run east and west from the principal meridian as parallels of latitude at intervals of twenty-four miles north and south of the base line. "Where standard parallels have been placed at intervals of thirty or thirty-six miles, regardless of existing instructions, and where gross irregularities require additional standard lines, from which to initiate new, or upon which to close old, surveys, an intermediate correction line should be established to which a local name may be given, e.g., 'Cedar Creek Correction Line'; and the same will be run, in all respects, like the regular standard parallels."

[^34]212. Guide meridians. Guide meridians are extended north from the base line, or standard parallels, at intervals of twentyfour miles east and west from the principal meridian.

When existing conditions require the guide meridians to be run south from a standard parallel or a correction line, they are initiated at properly established closing corners on the given parallel. This means that they are begun from the point on the parallel at which they would have met it if they had been run north from the next southern parallel. The point is obtained by computation, and is less than twenty-four miles from the next eastern or western meridian by the convergence of the meridians in twenty-four miles.

In case guide meridians have been improperly located too far apart, auxiliary meridians may be run from standard corners, and these may be designated by a local name, e.g., "Grass Valley Guide Meridian."
213. Angular convergence of two meridians. This is given


Fig. 105. by the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta=m \sin L \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $m$ is the angular difference in longitude of the meridians, and $L$ is the mean latitude of the north and south length under consideration. The linear convergence in a given length $l$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
c=l \sin \theta \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The derivation of equation (1) is as follows, assuming the earth to be a sphere, which will introduce no error of consequence in this work. In the figure, $R$ is the mean radius, $r$ is the radius of a parallel, $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are tangents to the two meridians. The angle $\theta$ between these is the angular convergence of the meridians in the latitude $L$. $m$ is the difference in longitude.

$$
\begin{align*}
r & =R \cos L .  \tag{3}\\
S & =R \cot L . \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

$S$ and $S^{\prime}$ may be considered as radii of the arc $A B$, which has also the radius $r$. Since a given length of are subtends angles inversely proportional to the radii with which it may be drawn,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\theta}{m}=\frac{r}{S}=\frac{R \cos L}{R \cot L}, \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

whence $\theta=m \sin L$, which was to be found.
Since the distance between meridians is usually given in miles, this must be reduced to degrees. This is done by first finding the linear value of one degree for the mean latitude, using the value of $r$ given in equation (3). To make (3) and (4) strictly correct, the normal at $A$ should be used instead of $R$; but the mean radius will give results sufficiently close for land surveying. See Tables IX. and X., pages 371, 372, for values of $\theta$ and length of $1^{\prime}$ of longitude in various latitudes.
214. Township exteriors. Each twenty-four mile "square" block is, when practicable, subdivided into townships at one time, the work being done as follows:

Beginning with the southwestern township, the meridional boundaries or range lines are first run, and on these are established the section and quarter corners. These are run as true meridians from south to north. Next the east and west lines, or township lines, are run from east to west between corresponding corners of the range lines. On each such township line the section and quarter corners are established at full distances from the eastern range line of each range, the shortage being thrown into the most westerly half mile in each range. A random line is run from east to west, temporary corners being set at correct distances. The distance north or south by which the random line fails to reach the proper corner is observed, and from this and the known length and bearing of the random line a correct bearing is determined and the correct line run eastward, on which are placed the permanent corners. If a random line fails to meet the required corner by more than three chains, it must be rerun. Deviations from the foregoing methods are sometimes made necessary by the topographical features of the territory.
215. Subdivision of townships. Each township is next subdivided into sections as follows:

Beginning on the south line of the township, at the corner common to sections 35 and 36 , run northerly parallel to the eastern range line of the range in question, one mile, setting a quarter corner at the half mile. Establish the corner common


The above plot represents a theoretical township with perfect subdivisions, contiguous to the north side of a Standard Parallel; in assumed Latitude $4215^{\prime} N$., and Longitude $100^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ W. of Gr. Area 23024.16 A.

Fig. 106.
to sections $25,26,35$, and 36 , and run east on a random line to the corner common to sections 25 and 36 on the range line, setting at the half mile a temporary quarter corner. From the observed failure to meet the corner on the range line, compute the bearing of a true line, and run this from the corner west,
setting the permanent quarter corner at the middle point of the line.

Proceed thus with each succeeding section to the north till section 1 is reached. From the corner common to sections $1,2,11$, and 12 , the meridional line is run to the section corner on the next township line, by a random line corrected back ; but the quarter corner is set at forty chains from the south end so as to throw whatever discrepancy there may be into the north half mile. In case the township is the most northerly of a twenty-four mile block, the line between sections 1 and 2 is not run to the corner on the correction line, but is run parallel to the range line, to an intersection with the correction line where a closing corner is established and its distance from the section corner noted.

This process is repeated for each tier of sections until the fifth tier is completed. The east and west lines of the sixth tier are run from east to west as random lines and corrected back, but the quarter corner is set just forty chains from the eastern boundary so as to throw the discrepancies into the most westerly half miles. Fig. 106 represents a township with perfect subdivisions. The directions written along the various lines indicate the directions in which they are run. Probably no townships that have been surveyed are like that in the figure, all of them being more or less distorted by inaccuracies, and some of them being very much distorted. When very bad work is discovered in time to correct it, before such alteration will interfere with acquired rights of individuals, the corrections may be made under rules prescribed by the General Land Office.

When individuals have bought the land, the corners as actually set must remain the corners, however erroneously placed.
216. Meandering a stream. This consists in running lines along its bank to determine its direction and length. The left and right banks of a stream refer to the banks as they would be to one passing down stream.

The "Instructions" provide for the meandering of navigable streams and those whose width is three chains and upward.

They are to be meandered on both banks. Lakes, deep ponds, bayous, etc., of twenty-five acres or more are also meandered. Corners called "meander corners" are established wherever a meander crosses standard base lines, township lines, or section lines.

A meander of tidal waters follows the high water line.
217. Corners. Stones, posts, trees, and earth mounds are used to mark the corners. The kind of corner post depends on the material afforded by the country. The "Instructions" designate the kinds of corners to be established and the method of marking them.

When it is impossible to establish a corner in its proper place, auxiliary corners are established within twenty chains of the true place, on each of the lines approaching the corner. These corners are called " witness corners." The center quarter corner of a section is located by connecting the opposite north and south quarter corners by a straight line, and placing the center corner at the middle of this line. Exceptions that will suggest themselves are necessary in the northern and western tiers of sections.

Any person having to do with surveys of lands that have been subdivided as part of the public lands, should procure the "Instructions" and study them carefully. These instructions have varied from time to time and it is well to consult those in force at the time the original surveys in hand were made. ${ }^{1}$
218. Notes. The following sample page of the field notes prescribed in the instructions is given as an excellent form of notes for any land survey. For field purposes the author prefers a sketch on which all notes are made, and from which each night the field book may be written up in the form given. Variations in items noted and in nomenclature will suggest themselves to the maker of other kinds of surveys.

[^35]6th Guide Meridian East, through Tps. 13 N., between Rs. 24 and 25 E .

Chains.
August 30: At $6^{\text {h }} 30^{\mathrm{m}}$ A.m., I lay off the azimuth of Polaris, $1^{\circ} 49^{\prime} .5$ to the west, and mark the True Meridian thus determined by a cross on a stone firmly set in the ground, west of the point established last night.
The magnetic bearing of the true meridian is $\mathrm{N} .18^{\circ} 05^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$., which reduced by the table on page 100 of the Manual gives the mean mag. decl. $18^{\circ} 02^{\prime} E$.
From the standard cor. I run
North, bet. Secs. 31 and 36.
Descend over ground sloping N. W.
Creek 10 lks . wide in ravine, 45 ft . below the Tp . cor., course N. $32^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$.
To edge of table land, bears N. E. and S. W. ; thence over level land.
Bluff bank, bears N. $58^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$. and S. $58^{\circ}$ E. ; descend abruptly 40 ft .
Bottom of ravine, course S. $58^{\circ}$ E.; ascend 50 feet to
Edge of table land, bears S. $58^{\circ}$ E. and N. $58^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$.; thence over level land.
Difference between measurements of 40.00 chs., by two sets of chainmen, is 18 lks . ; position of middle point
By 1st set, 40.09 chs.
By 2 d set, 39.91 chs. ; the mean of which is
Set a limestone, $16 \times 7 \times 5$ ins., 11 ins. in the ground, for $\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{sec}$. cor., marked $\frac{1}{4}$ on $W$. face, and raise a mound of stone, 2 ft . base, $1 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{ft}$. high, W. of cor.
Stream, 6 lks. wide, in ravine 15 ft . deep, course N. $60^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$.
47.00
53.00
55.20
55.40
60.00
64.00
80.00
Enter heavy oak timber, bears E. and W.
An oak, 30 ins. diam., on line, I mark with 2 notches on E. and W. sides.
Creek, 20 lks . wide, 1 ft. deep, course N. $83^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$.
Kight bank of creek, begin very steep rocky ascent.
Top of ridge, 250 ft . above creek, bears N. $80^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$. and S. $80^{\circ}$ E.
Begin descent.
Difference bet. measurements of 80.00 chs., by two chainmen, is 22 lks .; position of middle point
By 1st set, 79.89 chs.
By 2d set, 80.11 chs. ; the mean of which is
The point for sec. cor., 150 ft. below top of ridge, falls on a flat rock in place, 10 ft . E. and W. by 6 ft . N. and S., on which I
Cut a cross $(\times)$ at the exact cor. point, for cor. of secs. $25,30,31$, and 36 , marked with 5 grooves on N . and 1 groove on S . sides ; from which
An oak, 10 ins. diam., bears N. $22^{\circ}$ E., 54 lks. dist., marked T. 13 N., R. 25 E., S. 30, B. T.
A dogwood, 5 ins. diam., bears S. $64 \frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ E., 40 lks . dist., marked T. 13 N., R. 25 E., S. 31, B. T.
An ash, 13 ins. diam., bears S. $51^{\circ}$ W., 37 lks. dist., marked T. 13 N., R. 34 E., S. 36, B. 'T.
An oak, 9 ins. in diam., bears N. $34^{\circ}$ W., 42 lks. dist., marked T. 13 N., R. 24 E., S. 25, B. T.
Land, level and mountainous.
Soil, gravel and rock ; 4th rate.
Timber, oak.
Mountainous or heavily timbered land, 33.00 chs.

## CITY SURVEYING.

219. Precision required. Surveying to determine land lines in a town or city does not differ in principle from surveying for similar purposes in the country. The difference lies in the degree of precision required. In the country a square foot of land is worth from one cent to, perhaps, in extreme cases, five or ten cents. In the heart of a great city it may be worth many dollars, and a single inch frontage of a lot one hundred feet deep may be worth several hundred dollars. The brick wall of a modern office building of ten or more stories, built an inch over the line of the owner's land, would be a costly wall to move, and an error so locating it would virtually place the owner at the mercy of the possessor of the adjoining property. It is therefore readily seen that an error in closure of one in three hundred, or one in five hundred, which may be tolerated in farm surveying, would be altogether out of the question in surveys in the heart of a great city.

In such situations a precision of one in fifty thousand should be secured. In villages and small towns a precision of one in five thousand will frequently be sufficiently close, though, if the place has "prospects," it may be well to make closer surveys. The methods of making measurements to the various degrees of precision required are noted in Chapter I.

To lay off an angle so that the position of a line may not depart from its true position by more than $\frac{1}{50000}$ of its length, requires that the angle have no greater error than about four seconds. A transit reading to thirty seconds will nearly accomplish this if the angle is measured three times before reading, the reading being divided by three.

An instrument reading to twenty seconds will ordinarily do a little better than the requirement, and an instrument reading to ten seconds will usually accomplish the required result with a single measurement of the angle, though it should always be measured more than once, if for no other reason than to secure a check on the work. Of course the magnifying power of the telescope must correspond to the fineness of the graduations.

It has been stated that angles are read. Bearings are not used, nor are regular traverses run out in city surveys. Bearings are usually worked up from the angles for all the lines of a survey, in order to compute the latitudes and longitudes for determining the error of the survey. Azimuth would do as well.
220. Extent of survey. City land surveys are usually, except where "additions" are being laid out, of small extent, covering perhaps a single lot of 25 feet by 100 feet, more or less. In a well-monumented city the entire survey may be confined to the block in which the lot lies. In more cases, it will be necessary to go several blocks away to obtain monuments for determining the necessary lines. In cities that have been laid out with irregular lines, it may often be necessary to carry the lines and measurements over the roofs of the solid blocks of buildings in order to determine the angle points in the side lines of the lots. Each case involves new difficulties that the surveyor must meet by exercising his ingenuity. Many difficulties are solved by the proper use of the coördinate system, following the general methods outlined in Art. 203.
221. Instruments. A surveyor who undertakes to do city work should be supplied with the best instruments for measuring lines and angles. The tape mentioned in Chapter I., as used in New York City, is a very good tool. It should not be used, however, until it has been tested by the surveyor himself to verify the "pull scale" for various temperatures. The city surveyor should have, in his office, a standard length marked out on the floor, or some other place not subject to change, by which standard he may test his tapes. The United States Coast and Geodetic Survey Department in Washington, D.C., will test tapes sent there for that purpose, and will report the temperature, pull, etc., for which they are standard, and their constants. For this service a very small fee is required.

The city surveyor's transit should be of high magnifying power, and should read to thirty seconds and preferably to twenty seconds or even ten seconds. It should be well made, and of a pattern to insure stiffness and permanency of adjustment. A good form is shown in Fig. 107.


Fig. 107.

The compass being of little use in city surveying, the space usually occupied by the compass box is used to form the base of the horseshoe-shaped standards. The transit is made with either three or four leveling screws. The advantage of three screws is wider leveling base, and therefore, with given pitch of thread, a finer adjustment of the horizontal plate for a given turn of the screw. The author prefers four screws, perhaps because he has never become accustomed to the use of three.
222. Description of a city lot. The description of a city lot as found in a deed is either by "lot and block" or by "metes and bounds."

By the former method it will be described as "Lot No......-- of Block No. .-..-- of the original survey of the city of .---------------"
 addition to the city of.--------------------as the same is shown and delineated on a certain map entitled (Then follows the title of the map) filed in the office of the recorder of county, (month) .-. (day) _-. (year) .-"

By the method of metes and bounds it will be described as :
"Beginning at a point in the..............-(N., S., E., or W.) line of .------------ street distant thereon $\qquad$ (Direction) $\qquad$ (Distance) feet from the corner formed by the intersection of the said $\qquad$ line of
$\qquad$ street, and running thence along the said

 easterly, northerly, etc.)---.---------feet; thence at an angle of $\qquad$ degrees_--------------...(Direction) feet;
thence at an angle of..---------degrees.------------------(Direction) _------------feet to the point of beginning." To this will sometimes be added: "being Lot No...-.-.---of block No...........," etc., as was written above.
223. Finding a city lot. If the description is by lot and block, it will be necessary to refer to the map of the survey mentioned for the data as to the widths of streets, angles in the lines, and positions of lots, before the survey can be begun. The map should also show the character and position of monuments located at the time of the original subdivision of the
tract. This it will rarely do if the survey is an old one, and it may not do so even if the survey is a late one. ${ }^{1}$

It will often happen that even though the map shows the positions of the monuments that originally marked the lines, those monuments are not now to be found. In such cases, the best that can be done is to find any monuments having any bearing on the survey in question, and further to note existing lines of permanent improvements that have been long in place, and to endeavor to reconcile these with the figures shown on the map. This work requires the best judgment of the surveyor, for it will almost always be found that the discrepancies are considerable. This is not so true in the centers of very large cities, for here surveys have been gone over and over by most careful workmen, and the lines have become pretty definitely fixed ; but in smaller and newer cities there is an endless amount of difficulty.
224. Marking corners. When the boundaries of the required lot are finally fixed upon, each corner is marked. If the ground is open, a stake with a small tack may mark each corner, if the marking is for temporary use.

The marking may be a mark made on a building or in the stone flagging of the sidewalk, or otherwise. A sketch of the lot with a note of the marks made and a certificate of survey should be furnished the person for whon the survey is undertaken.
225. Discrepancies. If any discrepancies are discovered, they should not be "fudged in" and hidden, but mention should be made of just what is found. If discrepancies are found, the surveyor's work is doubled, for he must be sure the apparent errors are not in his own work. If the discrepancies found are small, no greater than the surveyor would expect to find in repeating his own work - that is, if they are within the limit of precision required - no note need be made of them. When, for instance, a block that is recorded 500 feet long is found to be 500.04 feet long, and it is required to lay out a lot in any portion of the block, the measurement from one end of the block to locate the lot should be to the recorded

[^36]measurement as 500.04 is to 500 . Such discrepancies may be thus distributed.

If the street lines on both sides of the block are well defined, and the block is found to overrun or fall short of the recorded length, and if the description of the lots sold has been only by lot and block, the error should ordinarily be divided proportionally among the various lots. If the description is by metes and bounds, it is more difficult to say what to do, and the best the surveyor can do is to report what he finds and ask his employer for further instructions. He must, in no case, locate the lot in what he thinks should be its proper place and attempt to defend such an action as the only proper course. Such procedure has proved a source of much litigation for the owner and loss of reputation to the surveyor.

If the description is by metes and bounds only, the surveyor must determine the starting point by finding the street line on which it lies and the other street line which, with the former, forms the intersection from which the beginning point is located. This is frequently difficult to do because of lack of monuments or marks. When it is accomplished, the surveyor's work is clear : he follows the description. If he finds discrepancies, he reports what he finds. If the description is both by metes and bounds and by block and lot, it is more difficult properly to locate discrepancies, and such as are found must be reported. The interpretation of the deed would perhaps usually be the intent of the buyer and seller, if that could be discovered. The surveyor must remember that he has no right to interpret the deed. That is the business of a court. Descriptions in deeds are often inconsistent in themselves and indicate impossible plots.
226. Planning additions. Whenever possible, additions should be so laid out that the streets may be continuations of those in the adjacent subdivided portion of the city. Not enough consideration has been given in the past to this important feature. Unless the ground is very irregular and the addition is a remote suburb, the subdivision should be rectangular. If the ground is irregular and on the extreme outskirts of the city, in a part that will probably never be thickly built
up, it may be laid out in curved lines to conform more nearly to the surface of the ground, involving less work in grading streets and lots, and making the tract more beautiful. In such cases the tract will not be cut up into very small lots. No lot should have less than one hundred feet front, and it may be said that such subdivision should not ordinarily be undertaken if the lots are to be less than one acre in area.

In planning a curved subdivision, the streets should usually be located so as to give good drainage to the lots. This will generally mean that the streets will occupy the lower ground. To do this work most satisfactorily, a contour map of the tract is desirable. This is made as described in Chapter IX.
227. Making the survey and map for an addition. The first step in subdividing an addition is to make a complete survey of the entire tract, using the same care as for city work. Many discrepancies of greater or less amounts will be found. The descriptions of the tract are probably from old farm surveys. If no greater discrepancies are found than might be expected from such work, and the corners are well established, no trouble need arise. The new distances and angles are the ones that will be recorded on the map that is to be made. The surveyor will carefully note the intersection of the boundary with the street lines of the adjoining tract, and the directions of those lines. The survey will be very carefully balanced and mapped.

Probably the best method of making the original map is to divide the sheet into squares of, say, one hundred to one thousand units on a side - the number will depend on the size and scale of the map. One of the lines of division will be assumed as the reference meridian, and another, at right angles, as the base parallel. Their intersection may be taken as the origin or may be given any arbitrary number of hundreds as its coördinates. Each of the corners of the squares will then have for its ordinates quantities expressed in whole hundreds. The coördinates of any point in the survey being determined, it is at once known what square the point falls in, and the point may be measured in from a corner of that square, and be cer-
tainly within reach of a single rule length. If the map is small, this method has no advantage over a single meridian on which latitude ordinates are measured and perpendicular to which longitude ordinates are measured.

A system of subdivision will then be planned and drawn on the map, ${ }^{1}$ and then located on the ground. The data for placing the street lines on the ground will not be scaled from the map, but will always be computed. The coördinate system is recommended for this work.

The location on the ground consists in placing monuments at all intersections of street lines. These are sometimes placed at the intersection of center lines and sometimes at the block corners. Neither practice is good. Probably the best place to locate them is in the sidewalk area, at a given offset, say five feet, from the property line. They are less likely to be disturbed here than elsewhere. If the addition is to be laid out on curved lines, the monuments should mark the intersections of street lines and the points on the arcs where the radii change. For methods of locating curves, see Chapter VIII.

The monuments should be of stone, durable in quality and about two feet long, with the top dressed to about six inches square and the bottom left rough. The top face should be smooth, with a hole drilled in its center, in which is set with lead a copper bolt with a cross marked in its head. The stone should be set below the disturbing action of frost. A piece of iron pipe may reach to the surface of the ground and terminate with a cast cover. Where stone is costly, concrete may be used, formed of sand and cement, inside of a piece of stove pipe. The copper bolt should be set as before. Other forms may suggest themselves to the surveyor.

A carefully constructed map finishes the work. This map should show the position of each monument, preferably by giving its coördinates referred to some origin, the relation of the monuments to the property lines, and such further information as is indicated in the Appendix, page 355. If curves are used, the coördinates of the centers and beginning and ending points of the curves should be noted.

[^37]
## CHAPTER VIII.

## CURVES.

228. Use of curves. When a road, railroad, or canal is built, the center line is laid out on the ground. The center line is, in the case of a railroad, always a series of straight lines connected by arcs of circles to which the straight lines are tangent. In the case of a canal or wagon road, this is not


Fig. 108. always true, as the line is sometimes irregular, following more closely the conformation of the ground than does a railroad. It would be better if canals and wagon roads were always laid out as railroads are. In the case of wagon roads, the radii of connecting curves may, of course, be short. Many park roads and suburban streets are located as ares of circles and straight line tangents. Park drive curves are often irregular and sometimes are successive arcs of varying radii, known as compound curves. Railroad curves are frequently compound curves.
229. Principles. Only the fundamental principles of the laying out of these curves will be here given. "The straight
lines are called technically "tangents." The curves are known by the angle subtended at the center by a chord of one hundred feet. Thus, if such a chord subtends $4^{\circ}$, the curve is known as a $4^{\circ}$ curve. Any two tangents not parallel intersect at some point, and the angle at the point, between one tangent produced and the other tangent, measured in the direction in which the line is to bend, is known as the intersection angle. Curves are measured in chords of one hundred feet. This distance is a "station," whether used on curve or tangent.

A curve four hundred feet long means a curve of four stations. It does not mean that the are is just four hundred feet long, but that there are four chords, each of one hundred feet. In Fig. 108, two tangents, $A V$ and $V B$, are connected with a curve of radius $R . \quad A B$ is known as the long chord, $C . D E$ is the middle ordinate, $M . \quad A V=V B$ is the tangent distance, $T . \quad V E$ is the external distance, $E$. From the figure it is evident that

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
T=R \tan \frac{1}{2} \Delta, & \text { (1) } & M=R \text { vers } \frac{1}{2} \Delta \\
C=2 R \sin \frac{1}{2} \Delta, & \text { (2) } & E=R \operatorname{ex} \sec \frac{1}{2} \Delta . \tag{4}
\end{array}
$$

External secant is a trigonometrical function not commonly mentioned in Trigonometry, but very useful in handling curves. It is the "secant minus one." In the above equations it will be seen that the radius $R$ is used, while it has been said that curves are known by their "degrees." If $A B$ is one hundred feet, $\Delta$ becomes $D$, the degree of the curve, and from (2)

$$
\begin{equation*}
R=\frac{50}{\sin \frac{1}{2} D} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

For any other curve of degree $D^{\prime}$,

$$
\begin{align*}
R^{\prime} & =\frac{50}{\sin \frac{1}{2} D^{\prime}}  \tag{6}\\
\therefore \frac{R}{R^{\prime}} & =\frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} D^{\prime}}{\sin \frac{1}{2} D}
\end{align*}
$$

For small angles it may be assumed that the sines vary as the angles; whence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{R}{R^{\prime}}=\frac{\frac{1}{2} D^{\prime} \sin 1^{\circ}}{\frac{1}{2} D \sin 1^{\circ}}=\frac{D^{\prime}}{D} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

The radius of a $1^{\circ}$ curve is 5729.65 feet. Except in close land
surveys or surveys of city streets, the radius may be taken as 5730.00 feet. In using curves in land surveys, the term "degree" should be abandoned and all circles designated by their radii. Since the values of all the functions given in equations (1), (2), (3), (4), vary directly as $R, \Delta$ remaining constant, these functions will all, assuming the correctness of equation (7), vary inversely as $D$. They would vary exactly in this way if the one hundred feet that measures $D$ were measured on the arc instead of as a chord. This will be clear from the principles of Geometry. The length of a curve for a given value of $\Delta$ and $D$ is in stations,

$$
\begin{equation*}
N=\frac{\Delta}{D} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

and in feet measured in chords of one hundred feet,

$$
\begin{equation*}
L=100 \frac{\Delta}{D} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is frequently required in practice, to know the values $T$ and $E$ for given or assumed values of $\Delta$ and $D$. If a table is made of values of these quantities for a great number of values of $\Delta$ and for $D=1^{\circ}$, the value of $T$ or $E$ for any other value of $D$ would be at once obtained by dividing the value found in the table opposite the given $\Delta$, by the given value of $D$. In practical railroad work this method may be used for curves of less than $8^{\circ}$ or $10^{\circ}$ without serious error. For sharper curves than these the quantities should be computed by equations (1), (2), (3), and (4). If, however, the sharper curves are measured in fifty-foot chords, up to say $14^{\circ}$ to $16^{\circ}$ curves, and in twenty-five-foot chords thereafter, the approximate method may be used up to at least $20^{\circ}$ curves or $24^{\circ}$ curves without serious error. This means that a $14^{\circ}$ curve will be defined as one in which a chord of fifty feet subtends at the center an angle of $7^{\circ}$. A $20^{\circ}$ curve is one in which a twenty-five-foot chord subtends an angle of $5^{\circ}$; etc.
230. Laying out the curve. The point at which the curve is to begin is known when the point $V$ and the tangent distance $T$ are known. For the latter, $\Delta$ and $D$ must be known. Let the point of beginning, called the P. C. (point of curve), be $A$. A transit is set at $A$, Fig. 109, an angle $=\frac{1}{2} D$ turned from the
tangent $A V$ to $C$. The chain or tape is stretched from $A$ and the farther end made to coincide with the line of sight at $C .{ }^{1}$

From the line $C A$ an angle equal to $\frac{1}{2} D$ is laid off, and the chain stretched from $C$ and the farther end put in the line of sight at $D$. Thus the points one hundred feet apart are located. The final deflection angle $V A B$ is $\frac{1}{2} \Delta$. If the curve is not of a length expressed by a whole number of stations, there must be turned off for the "subchord" a de-


Fig. 109. flection usually made proportional to the length of the subchord; thus in the figure, if $E B$ is fifty feet, the deflection $E A B$ is one half of $\frac{1}{2} D$, etc. This again assumes that the curve is measured on the arc, and the method is practically correct for curves of less than $10^{\circ}$. For sharper curves than this a computation should be made. Thus, since $\Delta$ is known, there remains to turn off from $A E$ an angle equal to $\frac{1}{2} \Delta-V A E$. This being half the angle subtended by the chord $E B$, that chord may be computed. If the curves of higher degree are laid out with short chords as before described, the proportionality of chord to deflection angle may still be assumed.

If the whole of the curve can not be seen from the beginning, the transit may be moved to a point on the curve already located and the work continued as follows: Let it be assumed in Fig. 109 that there is an obstruction in the line $A E$ so that $E$ can not be seen from $A$. Move the transit to $D$, and with the verniers set at zero, with the lower motion, turn the line of collimation on $A$. Now lay off to the right an angle equal to $D$ (the deflection from $A$ to $D$ ) and the line of collimation will

[^38]lie in the tangent to the curve at $D$. Transit the telescope and deflect to the right for the station $E$, etc., as usual. Not much more than $90^{\circ}$ of an are should be located from one point. ${ }^{1}$

Points occupied by the transit are usually solid "hubs" driven flush with the ground with a small tack to mark the exact point. The other points are, in railroad and common road surveys, merely marked with stakes. In close land surveys and city work, each point should be marked with hub and tack.
231. Location by chain alone. A method for locating ares approximately by the use of the chain or tape is as follows, and is known as the method by "chord off-


Fig. 110. sets":

In Fig. $110, A V$ is a tangent to which a curve of degree $D$ is to be joined at $A$. If $A B$ is one station,

$$
B b=100 \sin \frac{1}{2} D
$$

Imagine the curve continued back one station to $E . \quad e E=B b$, and $f$, in $E A$ produced, is distant from $b$ by an equal amount, therefore

$$
f B=2 B b
$$

$B b$ is known as the tangent offset $t$, and $f B$ is the chord offset $=2 t$. To locate the curve, swing the chain from $A$ and place the farther end of it a distance $t$ from the tangent. Stretch the chain from $B$ in line with $A B$ and make a mark at $c$. Swing the chain about $B$ till $c C$ equals $2 t$. Proceed in the same manner for the remainder of the curve. If the curve begins with a fractional station, the tangent offset for the fractional station may be computed and laid off ; and for the remainder of a full station back of $A$, the same thing may be done. The direction of the chord of a full station on the curve is now determined, and the work may proceed as usual.

[^39]232. Compound curves. These are used in railroad and other locations to bring the line of the work to conform more nearly to the shape of the surface along which it lies. Fig. 111 shows such a curve of two arcs only. Compound curves have frequently several arcs of different radii. In compound curves the tangent distances are always unequal, and in the case of two arcs the shorter tangent will be adjacent to the arc of shorter radius. The two ares must have a common tangent at their junction $P$. The sum of the central angles will, of course, be equal to the angle $\Delta$. The arcs are


Fig. 111. laid out as are simple curves, one at a time. The arc $A P$ is laid out from $A$ to $P$, and the transit is then moved to $P$, and the arc $P B$ is laid out. The problems in simple and compound curves are merely exercises in the Geometry of the circle, often solved by Trigonometry.

One element of curves is of much assistance in solving the problems that arise in laying them out and changing them to better fit the ground where they are located. This element is:

Proposition : If two circular arcs begin at a common tangent point and end in parallel tangents, their long chords are coincident in direction and vary only in length.

In Fig. 112 let $A V$ and $V B$ be the tangents to the curve $A B$; and $A V^{\prime}$ and $V^{\prime} C$, the tangents to the curve $A C$. $A$ is a common tangent point. Since $A V$ and $A V^{\prime}$ are coincident, and $V B$ and $V^{\prime} C$ are parallel, $\Delta=\Delta^{\prime}$. The deflection angles from the common tangent to the points $B$ and


Fig. 112. $C$ will each equal $\frac{1}{2} \Delta$. Therefore, $A B$ is coincident with $A C$.

## CHAPTER IX.

## TOPOGRAPHICAL SURVEYING.

## TOPOGRAPHY.

233. Methods of representing surface form. A topographical map is a map showing the conformation of the surface of the area of land mapped.


Fig. 113.
A topographical survey is a survey conducted for the purpose of obtaining information for the production of a topographical map of the area surveyed.

There are two common ways of representing the conformation of any small portion of the earth's surface.
(1) By means of hachures or, as more commonly called, hill shading or hatching. Fig. 113 is an example of this method. It is evident that it is little better than sketching, since it gives no definite notion of the height of the hills or the rate of slope of the surface. It is now employed only for the


Fig. 114.
purpose of making pictures to be intelligible to those not acquainted with technical methods for representing surfaces, and to convey to them as well as to trained surveyors, a general notion of the conformation of the surface where no definite information is required.
(2) By means of contours, or lines of equal elevation. Fig. 114 is an example of this methor.

The word "contour" as used in surveying means a line all
points of which have the same elevation above or below some assumed level surface, as sea level. Let the student imagine some section of country with which he is familiar covered with water so deep that the tops of the highest hills are just in the surface of the water. Let it be imagined that the water flows away till the surface has dropped five feet vertically. The intersection of the water surface and the land surface would be a five-foot contour line. Let the surface drop five feet more, and there would result another five-foot contour line. The contour line may then be said to be a level line lying wholly in the surface of the earth.

The contours of a theoretically perfect conical hill would be a series of circles having their centers in the axis of the cone. A contour map of such a hill would be a series of concentric circles. This is seen from Fig. 115. If it is assumed


Fig. 115. that the base of the hill has an elevation of one hundred feet above some datum, then the contour map showing "ten-foot contours" would be as in the lower part of the figure. The horizontal distance between any two contours shown will indicate the rate of slope of the surface. The direction of steepest slope is always in the direction of the common perpendicular to two consecutive contours. If two contours of the same elevation were to be found on a map running together and continuing as a single line and then separating again, there would be indicated a perfect knife-edge ridge or hollow. Since such a thing does not exist in nature, no such representation can be found on a correct contour map. Moreover, except in the case of an overhanging bluff or a cave, contours of the same or of different elevations could not cross, and hence a correct contour map will not show contour lines crossing. A contour line that closes upon itself indicates a peak higher than the surrounding
ground or a hole without an outlet. Since any contour line, except one that closes on itself as above described, must continue indefinitely, closing on itself somewhere, to be sure, no contour line can begin or end within the border of a map unless it closes on itself. With the exception noted, all contours must appear first in the border of the map and disappear in the same or another edge. When contours cross a stream, it is customary in mapping to run them up to one bank and stop them, beginning again on the opposite bank. This merely means that the portions that run up the banks of the stream and unite in the bed, are omitted. In some cases, however, the contours are carried across the stream.

A contour map is thus seen to show with definiteness the conformation of the surface.
234. Field methods for small area. There are various ways of making topographical surveys, according to the use to which the information obtained is to be put, or the extent of territory to be mapped. A more or less precise and extensive topographical survey is required when a large and important building is, to be erected, when a park is to be laid out, or any landscape gardening done, when a railroad, canal, or road is to be built, or when a system of irrigation or drainage is to be planned.

When the area to be mapped is small, as a city lot, or block, or a very small farm, the following method is used :


Fig. 116.

The area is divided into squares or rectangles of from twenty feet to one hundred feet on a side, stakes being driven at each corner. The stakes along one edge will usually be lettered and along another edge they will be numbered. Any interior stake would then, be known by its number in its lettered row : thus, stake $X$ (Fig. 116) would be known as stake $D_{3}$. Levels are now taken at all corners and any points of abrupt change of slope not at a corner. From the level notes the contours are obtained, as described below. Contours are
usually named with their elevations above the assumed datum. Thus, there would be the 110 -foot contour, the 112 -foot contour, etc. In work covering small areas it will usually be necessary to locate contours with vertical intervals of from one foot to five feet. In one map the interval between contours will be uniform.
235. Contour map. To draw the contour map from the notes that have been taken, lay out in pencil, on paper, to scale, a map of the squares that have been used in the field. Note lightly in pencil the elevations of the points where levels have been taken. Assume that the slope along any line is uniform from one known elevation to the next. If the contours are being drawn with an interval of two feet, for instance, and if either of the known elevations is an even two feet, as 112 feet or 114 feet, then a contour line passes through the known elevation point. If not, and this will be the usual case, the point where the contour crosses the line between the two points of known elevation must be found by interpolation. When found, the point is numbered with the elevation of the line passing through it, and other points are found. This is done over the whole map, and finally points of equal elevation are connected, giving contour lines.

The lines will not usually be drawn straight between points, but will be curved, either from a knowledge of the ground or, in the absence of such information, so as to form no angles, but to make smooth, curved lines. Sometimes a profile of each line is drawn in pencil, as indicated for line $G$, and on this profile are noted the points having elevations of required contours. These are projected down on to the line, giving the points on the line intersected by the given contours. The contour lines are inked in in black or brown or red, according to the purpose of the map. The outside lines of the square are inked in black. The contour lines are numbered with their elevations usually at every fifth contour or at the even tens.
236. Field methods for large area. When the area is large, as a farm of twenty or more acres, or even less, or a city or county, or a portion of a given valley, the following method is adopted:

Points are located, more or less at random, over the area to be mapped, and their elevations are obtained. The points are then mapped, and it is assumed that the slope is uniform between those that are adjacent; and the positions of contours between points are determined by interpolation, as was done with the squares. Equal elevations are then connected by curved lines, which are the contour lines. Sketches are made in the field to assist in shaping the contours.
237. Transit and stadia method. In the field the points are located by "polar coördinates"; that is, by direction and distance from a known point. This work, as well as the determination of elevations, is best done with a transit and stadia.

The field work is as follows: A starting point, as the intersection of two streets, the corner of a farm, or simply an arbitrary spot, is established by driving a firm stake that will not be easily disturbed. The transit is set over this point with vernier reading zero, and the instrument is pointed, by the lower motion, in the direction of the meridian. This may be the true meridian previously determined, the magnetic meridian as shown by the needle, or an arbitrary meridian assumed for the purpose of the survey. If either of the latter, a stake is driven a distance away, so that the direction may be again accurately found. It is assumed that the true meridian will have been so marked as to be found again. The elevation of the point over which the instrument is set, if not known, is assumed and written in the notebook. A traverse line is now run, noting the azimuths of all courses, as described in Chapter V.

The distances are measured with the stadia and recorded in the book. The vertical angles are also noted. Vertical angles and distances are read from both ends of any course as a check. The traverse line is chosen with a view to obtaining from each station the largest possible number of pointings to salient features of the area to be surveyed, and, while the instrument is set at any station and before the traverse line is completed, these are taken. These additional pointings are usually called "side shots." For each pointing the distance, azimuth,
and vertical angle are read. These readings will locate the point and determine its elevation.

After the instrument has been oriented at any station, a rod is held alongside and the height of the axis of the telescope is noted in the book as a heading to the notes taken from that station. While this is being done, another rodman (there are usually two or more) selects, by the direction of the person in charge of the survey or by his own judgment, a second point to be occupied by the transit. He drives a stake and marks it $\square_{1}$ (Stadia Station 1). The rodmen are provided with hatchets for the purpose of making and driving stakes and clearing away trifling obstructions to sight. If there is much clearing to do, axmen are employed.

The rodman holds his rod vertical and just behind the stake from the instrument, with its edge turned toward the observer. The observer directs, by the upper azimuth motion, the line of collimation to the edge of the rod, making the exact bisection by the tangent screw. He then reads the azimuth and calls it to the recorder, who records it. He also reads the needle, and this is likewise recorded, to serve as a witness should an error be discovered in mapping the work. Having read the azimuth, the observer signals the rodman, who turns the graduated side of the rod toward the observer. The latter turns the middle horizontal wire to a point on the rod corresponding to the height of the instrument, using the clamp and slow motion screw of the vertical motion. He then notes the lower wire to see whether it is near a fifty or hundred graduation, makes it coincide with such graduation, and reads the distance. He again brings the horizontal wire to the proper height and signals that he is through. He then reads the vertical angle, which is recorded.

While this is being done, the rodman who was at the instrument selects by direction or judgment a point for a side shot, and stands there with the graduated side of the rod toward the observer. The observer now unclamps the upper motion, and does not, as a rule, clamp it again till he leaves the station. He turns the line of sight on the rod, and after reading the distance he reads the azimuth - the needle is neglected on side shots and vertical angle as already described for the stadia station,
and signals that he is through. The rodman who set the station has now found a point, and his rod is observed as last described, and the work continues in this way, observing first on one rod and then on another, according to which is first ready.

The points that are selected for side shots are such as will enable contours to be well drawn on a map on which those points are plotted. They should be therefore along ridges and hollows at all changes of the slope. They should be taken frequently along a stream to locate its course. It is usually required to obtain information for the mapping of artificial structures, as roads, fences, houses, etc. Therefore pointings should be taken to all fence corners and angles, to enough corners of all buildings to enable the building to be mapped, and to a sufficient number of points in all roads. If it is desired to indicate wooded lands, then pointings must be taken around the edges of timber. While all this is being done, the recorder is recording the notes and endeavoring to keep a sketch on the right-hand page of the book to assist the memory in mapping.

After all the side shots from $\square_{0}$ have been taken, the instrument is moved to $\square_{1}$ and a rodman goes to $\square_{0}$. The instrument is oriented on $\square_{0}$, the edge of the rod being first sighted. The needle is read and recorded, as well as the distance and vertical angle. After one of the rodmen, who has come up to the station, has noted the height of the instrument, he goes ahead to select a new stadia station, which is established and located as was $\square_{1}$, and the work proceeds. Instead of requiring a rodman to be at the instrument each time a new point is occupied, the recorder or observer may carry a light graduated rod with which to determine the height of the transit. It is convenient to have the five-foot point of the stadia painted red to expedite the setting of the wire on the proper point for the determination of the vertical angle.

The form of notes used in stadia surveying is given on page 252. The left page of the notebook is represented. The right page is used for sketching and for additional notes descriptive of the stations occupied or observed. The sketch should be as full as possible and neatly drawn.

Rens. Poly. Inst. Practice Survey. June, 1894.
Inst. on $\square_{0}$. Elev. 830.0. H. I. 4.90. Saturday, 14 . Adey, Observer. Dayis, Recorder.

| Station. | Azimuth. | Distance. | Vert. <br> Angle. | Diff. Elev. | Elev. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\square_{1}$ | $331^{\circ} 39^{\prime}$ | 556 | $-1^{\circ} 41^{\prime}$ | $-16.3$ |  |
| W. side road | 3430 | 61 | $-050$ | $-0.9$ | 829.1 |
| Beginning slope | 24308 | 80 | $-022$ | $-0.5$ | 829.5 |
| C. P. (Contour point) | 3121 | 119 | +105 | + 2.2 | 832.2 |
| C. P. . | 28648 | 110 | -2 00 | $-3.8$ | 826.2 |
| C. P. . | 1939 | 141 | +110 | + 2.9 | 832.9 |
| Top slope | 31326 | 45 | $-120$ | $-1.0$ | 829.0 |
| C. P. west road | $\begin{array}{ll}356 & 20\end{array}$ | 123 | $-300$ | $-6.4$ | 823.6 |
| C. P. on hill | $347 \quad 32$ | 94 | $-347$ | $-6.2$ | 823.8 |
| C. P. . | $\begin{array}{ll}331 & 24\end{array}$ | 103 | $-5 \quad 20$ | $-9.4$ | 820.6 |
| C. P. . | 33405 | 120 | -5 40 | - 11.7 | 818.3 |

Inst. on $\square_{1}$. Elev. 813.7. H. I. 5.0.

| $\square 0$ | 15139 | 556 | +141 | +16.3 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\square_{2}$ (described on rt. p.) | 35205 | 69 | +255 | + 3.5 |  |
| C. P. on hill | 15245 | 436 | +0 31 | + 3.9 | 817.6 |
| C. P. | 15156 | 289 | $-100$ | $-5.1$ | 808.6 |
| C. P., W. side road | 14111 | 191 | +0 35 | + 2.0 | 815.7 |
| C. P. | 15116 | 198 | -1 26 | - 4.9 | 808.8 |
| C. P., E. side road | 14133 | 305 | +0 35 | + 3.6 | 817.3 |
| Beginning of cross rd.W. | 14547 | 97 | $-055$ | $-1.6$ | 812.1 |

Inst. on $\operatorname{Q}_{2}$. Elev. 817.2. H. I. 4.9.


The elevations of the stadia stations are not written in the sixth column, but in each heading. It sometimes happens that the vertical angles do not check so well as in the example given. When this is the case, the mean value of the difference of elevation is used for determining the elevation.

An instrument that has poor plate bubbles is not suitable
for stadia work. To secure good work with such an instrument it is necessary to use the telescope bubble for leveling it.

If it is necessary to correct the horizontal distance, it is done by the use of the table in Appendix, page 380. The differences in elevation are obtained from the same table, a diagram, or Colby's slide rule.

## SIMPLE TRIANGULATION.

238. When used. If the area to be surveyed covers several square miles, or is an elongated strip, as a narrow valley, it is best to hang the topography on a system of triangles. Unless this area is extensive, as a large county or a state, these triangles may be considered plane triangles, the curvature of the earth being neglected. In case the triangles are to be considered as plane, it will be best to assume for the meridian of the survey a true meridian near the middle of the area, east and west. The process of laying out such a system of triangles is as follows :
239. Measuring the base line. A fairly level stretch of ground is selected, if possible, near the middle of the area to be mapped, and a line of from one thousand feet to a half mile long, or longer, is measured very carefully. This line is called the base line. Its ends are marked with substantial monuments of stone or with solid stakes. If the survey is of sufficient importance to warrant the permanent preservation of the system of triangles for future reference, the monuments that mark the base line, and those that mark the apexes of triangles, should be stones not less than six inches square in cross section and two feet long. In the top face, which should be dressed, there is drilled a hole large enough to take a half-inch copper bolt, which is leaded in. The head of the bolt is marked with a cross to determine the exact point, and the stone is set deep enough to be beyond the disturbing action of frost. The point may be carried to the surface by "plumbing," and a temporary point set for use. The location of each monument should be fully described with reference to surrounding objects of a permanent character, so that it may be readily found at a future date. If no permanent objects that
can be used are to be found, then constructions of stone, brick, or timber are built nearly on the surface of the ground, and the point is described with reference to these. Such precautions are usually necessary only for extensive geodetic surveys.

The measurement of the base line for the surveys of smaller areas, which are the only surveys to be described here, should be made with a precision of from one in five thousand to one in fifty thousand, according to the scale of the map that is to be made, the area surveyed, and the importance of the work.

The two ends of the base line being determined and marked, the transit is set over one end, and a line of stakes ranged out between the two ends. The alignment is made as perfect as possible, and the stakes are set as nearly as practicable at single tape lengths apart, center to center, or at half or quarter tape lengths. These stakes are made quite firm in the ground, and should be not less than two inches square in section. For high-class work the stakes should have on their tops tin or zinc strips on which to mark the measurements with fine scratches.

The measurements are then made, the temperature, pull, and grade elements being noted, and the distance between supports. The requisites for securing the required degree of precision are mentioned in Chapter I. If the absolute length of the tape at some standard temperature and pull is unknown, of course the absolute length of the line remains undetermined. For a precision of one in one million, which is attempted in the measurement of base lines for extensive geodetic surveys, as of a state or continent, much more refined methods than those described are necessary. These methods properly belong to the subject of geodetic surveying.
240. Measuring the angles. After the base line is established and measured, or even while it is being measured, prominent points in the area are chosen as "triangulation stations," that is, apexes of triangles. These are so chosen that no angle shall be less than 30 degrees, nor more than 120 degrees. The first point is chosen, as nearly as possible, in a line at right angles to the base line at its middle point. A second point may be chosen opposite the first one, and the others are then
located with reference to these and to one another. When these stations are established, signals are erected over them. For work of the magnitude here considered, these may be simply wooden poles, about one and one half inches in diameter, to which a flag of some white and dark cloth is tacked to make the signal more easily found. Such signals are usually called flags. A transit is then set over one extremity of the base line, and the angles formed at that point by lines to the adjacent stations are measured. When all of these angles have been measured, the transit is moved to the other extremity of the base line, and similar measurements are made there, and subsequently at each triangulation station. There are two methods for measuring angles, called respectively the method by repetition and the method by continuous reading.

In the first method, each angle is measured separately a number of times, and the mean result is taken. The process is as follows: With vernier at $0^{\circ} 00^{\prime},{ }^{1}$ set by lower motion on the left-hand station.

> Unclamp above, set on right station. Unclamp below, set on left station. Unclamp above, set on right station.

Continue as many times as may be necessary to use practically the whole circle of $360^{\circ}$, and finally read. Divide the reading by the number of repetitions for the value of the angle. Reverse the telescope and repeat the above operation from right to left. The readings are taken in both directions to eliminate errors due to clamping and unclamping and personal mistakes in setting. They are taken with the telescope both direct and reverse, to eliminate errors of adjustment. They are made to include the whole circle to eliminate errors of graduation. Both verniers are usually read to eliminate the effect of eccentricity of verniers.

When such an instrument as the engineer's transit is used, this method is the simplest and probably the best.

The second method, by continuous reading, differs from the first in that each angle is not measured independently of

[^40]the others at the point occupied. The telescope is pointed at each of the distant stations consecutively, and the vernier is read for each pointing, - the difference between the consecutive readings being the angle between the corresponding points. Thus, in Fig. 117, the instrument being at $I$, the telescope is first pointed to $A$ and the vernier


Fig. 117. is read, then to $B$ and the vernier is read, then to $C, D, E, F$, and $A$ in succession. The reading on $A$ subtracted from the reading on $B$ gives the angle $A I B$. In this method it is necessary to read both to the right and left, and with the telescope both direct and inverted. Moreover, since each angle is measured on only one part of the limb, it is necessary, after completing the readings once around and back, to shift the vernier to another part of the limb and repeat the readings both forward and back, with telescope both direct and inverted. This is done as many times as there are sets of readings. Each set of complete readings to right and left, with telescope direct and inverted, gives one value for each angle. If it is desired to measure each angle three or five times, then three or five sets of readings must be taken. The amount that the vernier is shifted between each two sets is $\frac{180^{\circ}}{n}$, where $n$ is the number of sets. ${ }^{1}$
241. Notes. A good form for keeping the record of the notes of the triangulation, assuming that it is done by the repeating method and with an engineer's transit reading to thirty seconds, is shown on page 257.

The notes of one set of readings are given. As many sets as may be desired are taken. For the purposes of a small topographical survey, one, or at most two, sets will be sufficient. The check marks indicate the number of times the angle is measured, a check being made after each measurement. Three hundred and sixty degrees must be added to the reading to the right each time the vernier passes the zero of the limb, or must

[^41]Saturday, June 24, 1894. a.m.
Instrument on $\Delta^{1}$ A.

| Station Observed. | Vernier A | B | Mean Reading. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Computation } \\ & \text { Meand Angle. } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\triangle \mathrm{B} \cdot .$. | $0^{\circ} 00^{\prime} 00^{\prime \prime}$ | $-30^{\prime \prime}$ | $359^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 150145 \\ & 360 \end{aligned}$ |
| Inst. direct . | $\begin{gathered} \checkmark \vee \vee \vee \vee \checkmark \\ 360 \end{gathered}$ |  |  | 360 |
|  |  |  |  | 7350145 |
|  |  |  |  | 3595945 |
|  |  |  |  | $6 \longdiv { 3 7 5 0 2 0 0 }$ |
| $\triangle \mathrm{C} \cdot .$. | $15^{\circ} 02^{\prime} 00^{\prime \prime}$ | 01' $30^{\prime \prime}$ | $15^{\circ} 01^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime}$ | $62^{\circ} 30^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$ |
| $\triangle \mathrm{C} \cdot .$. | $15^{\circ} 02^{\prime} 00^{\prime \prime}$ | $01^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ | $15^{\circ} 01^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime}$ | 150145 |
|  |  |  |  | 360 |
|  | $\checkmark \checkmark \checkmark \checkmark \checkmark \checkmark$ |  |  | 360 |
| Inst. reversed | 360 |  |  | 7350145 |
|  | 360 |  |  | 3595815 |
|  |  |  |  | $6 \longdiv { 3 7 5 0 3 3 0 }$ |
| $\triangle \mathrm{B} \cdot . \cdot$. | $359^{\circ} 58^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ | $58^{\prime} 00^{\prime \prime}$ | $359^{\circ} 58^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime}$ | - $62^{\circ} 30^{\prime} 35^{\prime \prime}$ |

be subtracted from the readings to the left. The latter process brings the same result as adding to the initial reading.

If the method of continuous reading is used, the form of record shown on page 258 is considered good.

The readings are begun on the line $A B$ of the triangulation system, and carried to the right and then back, the readings taken to the right being recorded down the page, and the reverse readings up the page. Such a series, when complete, forms a set from which a value of each angle is determined. Provision is made in the form given, for three sets of readings, while but one complete set is shown. The mean of the three determinations of each angle would be taken. The errors are purposely shown large. With a transit reading to thirty seconds, there will usually be no appreciable difference in vernier readings, and it is always possible with a little practice to read the vernier by estimation to one half of its least count.

A third method of measuring angles, which may be called a combination of the first two, saves some time, and gives results as good as the class of work warrants. It consists in

[^42]Saturday, June 24, 1894 . a.m.
Instrument on $\triangle \mathrm{A}$.

| Trlebcope. | Station Observed | Vernitr a | B | $\underset{\text { From } \Delta b .}{\substack{\text { Mran Reading }}}$ | Mean Angle with $A B$. | Mean anolr. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Direct . <br> Inverted. | $\begin{array}{r} 1\{ \\ \text { B } 2\{ \\ 3\{ \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 000^{\circ} 00^{\prime} 00^{\prime \prime} \\ & 359 \quad 59 \quad 30 \end{aligned}$ | $\left.\begin{gathered} -00^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime} \\ 5900 \end{gathered} \right\rvert\,$ | $\left\|\begin{array}{lr} -000^{\circ} 00^{\prime} & 15^{\prime \prime} \\ - & 45^{\prime \prime} \end{array}\right\|$ | $-000^{\circ} 00^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ |  |
| Direct . . <br> Inverted. | $\begin{array}{r} 1\{ \\ \text { C } 2\{ \\ 3\{ \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{lll} 62 & 30 & 30 \\ 62 & 30 & 00 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3000 \\ & 2930 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 62 \quad 30 \quad 15 \\ & 62 \quad 29 \quad 45 \end{aligned}$ | 623030 | $62^{\circ} 30^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ |
|  | 1 D $2\{$ 3 | $\begin{array}{lll} 111 & 06 & 30 \\ 111 & 06 & 30 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0600 \\ & 0600 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{lll} 111 & 06 & 15 \\ 111 & 06 & 15 \end{array}$ | 1110645 | 483615 |
|  | $\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ \text { E } 2\{ \\ 3\{ \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1834800 \\ & 1834800 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 4730 \\ & 4730 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1834745 \\ & 1834745 \end{aligned}$ | 1834815 | 724130 |
|  | $\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ \text { F } \\ 2\{ \\ 3\{ \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{lll} 278 & 12 & 00 \\ 278 & 12 & 30 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1130 \\ & 1200 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{ll} 278 & 11 \\ 278 & 12 \\ 15 \end{array}$ | 2781230 | 942415 |
|  | $\begin{array}{r} 1\} \\ \text { B } 2\{ \\ \\ 3\{ \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{lll} 359 & 59 & 30 \\ 359 & 59 & 30 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 5900 \\ & 5900 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 359 \\ & 35 \\ & 359 \\ & 59 \\ & 15 \end{aligned}$ | 3595915 | $\begin{array}{r}814645 \\ \hline 3595915\end{array}$ |

measuring each angle a stated number of times, reading, measuring the succeeding angle the same number of times, reading, and continuing. After all the angles are read successively to the right, the telescope is inverted and pointed on the right-
hand station, and the operation is repeated to the left. Three repetitions of each angle are considered sufficient. This provides for all errors except those of graduation, which are usually too small to affect work done to the degree of precision required.

The form of notes to be taken with this third method is :
Saturday, June 24, 1894.
Instrument on $\triangle \mathrm{A}$.

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{\[
\begin{aligned}
\& \text { 要 } \\
\& \text { H } \\
\& \text { 感 }
\end{aligned}
\]} \& \multirow{2}{*}{No.} \& \multicolumn{3}{|c|}{READINGS.} \& \multirow[t]{2}{*}{\begin{tabular}{l}
Mean \\
Angle WITH \(A B\).
\end{tabular}} \& \multirow{2}{*}{Mean Angle.} \\
\hline \& \& Vernier \(A\). \& \(B\). \& Mean. \& \& \\
\hline B \& \begin{tabular}{l}
\[
\checkmark v v
\] \\
\(\checkmark \vee v\)
\end{tabular} \& \[
\begin{aligned}
\& 000^{\circ} 00^{\prime} 00^{\prime \prime} \\
\& 000 \quad 0030
\end{aligned}
\] \& \[
\begin{gathered}
+00^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime} \\
0100
\end{gathered}
\] \& \begin{tabular}{|ccc} 
\& \& \\
000 \& \(15^{\prime \prime}\) \\
\& 00 \& 30 \\
\& 45
\end{tabular} \& \(000^{\circ} 00^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}\) \& \\
\hline C \& \begin{tabular}{l}
\[
\checkmark v v
\] \\
\(\checkmark \vee v\)
\end{tabular} \& \[
\begin{aligned}
\& 1873100 \\
\& 1873130
\end{aligned}
\] \& 3130 3200 \& \(187 \quad 315\) \& 1873130 \& \(\frac{3) 187^{\circ} 31^{\prime} 00^{\prime \prime}}{623020}\) \\
\hline D \& \begin{tabular}{l}
\[
\checkmark v v
\] \\
\(\checkmark \vee \vee\)
\end{tabular} \& \begin{tabular}{l}
\(398 \quad 5100\) \\
\(398 \quad 5130\)
\end{tabular} \& \begin{tabular}{l}
5130 \\
5200
\end{tabular} \& \(\begin{array}{rr} \& 15 \\ 398 \quad 5130 \\ \& 45\end{array}\) \& \(398 \quad 5130\) \& \(3 \lcm{211 \quad 2000}\)
\(70 \quad 2640\) \\
\hline E \& \(\checkmark \vee \vee\)
\[
\checkmark \vee v
\] \& \[
\begin{array}{lll}
567 \& 59 \& 30 \\
567 \& 59 \& 30
\end{array}
\] \& \[
\begin{aligned}
\& 0000 \\
\& 00 \quad 00
\end{aligned}
\] \& \(\begin{array}{rr} \& 45 \\ 567 \quad 5945 \\ \& 45\end{array}\) \& \(567 \quad 5945\)

- \& $3 \lcm{169 \quad 0815}$
$56 \quad 2245$ <br>
\hline
\end{tabular}

242. Adjusting the triangles. All the angles of a given triangle are measured. If but two were measured and the third computed, the entire error of measurement of the two angles would be thrown into the third angle. It will be found almost invariably, on adding the measured angles of a triangle, that the sum of the three angles is less or more than $180^{\circ}$. The error should be less than one minute, using the engineer's transit. If there is no reason to suppose that one angle is measured more carefully than another, this error is divided equally among the three angles of the triangle, and it is the corrected angles that are used in computing the azimuths and the lengths of the sides. This distribution of the error is called "adjusting"
the triangle. With the large systems of extensive geodetic surveys, very much more elaborate methods are employed, since a large number of triangles must be adjusted simultaneously so that they will all be geometrically consistent, not only each by itself, but one with another.
243. Computing the triangles. When all the angles are measured and adjusted, and the azimuth of the base line, or any other line of the system, is determined, the azimuth of each of the sides may be found by computation. It is to be remembered that the azimuth of any line $x y$ is the azimuth of the line $y x+180^{\circ}$. From the measured base line and angles, the lengths of each side of the system may be computed by the ordinary sine formula.

The computations can be much facilitated if systematically arranged. The following arrangement of the computations


Fig. 118. of the system of triangles shown in Fig. 118 is suggested. $A B$ is supposed known. The adjusted angles are used. $A C$ is determined before $B C$, because $B C$ is to be used in the triangle $B C D$.
$\log A B$ $\log \sin C_{1}$
 $\log A C$ (value). $\log B C(\quad) . \quad$ Cologs can be used if preferred. $\log \sin D_{1} . . . \quad$ Write the values found for $A C$, $\log \frac{B C}{\sin D_{1}}$ $\log \sin C_{2}$ $\log \sin B_{2}$. Etc.
$\log A B-\log \sin C_{1}=\log \frac{A B}{\sin C_{1}}$.
$\log \frac{A B}{\sin C_{1}}+\log \sin A=\log B C$, etc. $B C$, etc., in the brackets.
$\log \frac{A B}{\sin C_{1}}$ may be written between $\log \sin B_{1}$ and $\log \sin A$ if preferred.
244. Use of triangles. The elevation of each triangulation station is determined by leveling from some bench mark. Any
station may now serve as a beginning point for the topographical survey. The transit being set over Station X is oriented on Station $Y$ by bringing the vernier to read the azimuth of the line $X Y$, and setting the line of collimation on $Y$ by the lower motion. The stadia traverse and work then begin. The azimuth work may always be checked in the field by occupying each triangulation station as it is reached, and determining the azimuth of one of the triangle sides radiating from the station occupied. If this agrees with the known azimuth, the work is correct. If it does not agree within one or two minutes, the work should be rerun.

The elevations also serve to check the vertical angles.

## MAPPING.

245. The triangles. If the topographical survey has been based on a system of triangles, these triangles are first drawn. To draw them, assume one station as the origin of the survey, and, knowing the lengths and azimuths of all the sides, compute the latitude and longitude of each station with reference to the assumed origin. Proceed then to plot the stations by latitudes and longitudes. It will be usual to assume one end of the base line as the origin, and the direction of the base line as that of the reference meridian. If, however, the work is referred to another meridian, that should be chosen as the meridian of reference for the computing and plotting.

The lines may also be drawn by means of a protractor ; but this, while quicker and sufficiently precise, if a large protractor is used, for much work, is of course not so accurate as latitudes and longitudes.

Another method is to use the dividers and the lengths of the triangle sides, describing ares whose intersections locate the triangulation stations.
246. Outline of method for topography. A stadia line is first plotted to see that it closes properly. When this has been satisfactorily done, the side shots are plotted. Then the contours are drawn and all other objects that it is desired to map. If preferred, of course the detail work can begin before the
completion of the mapping of the side shots, and it is perhaps better to draw in buildings and other structures as soon as the points locating them are plotted.
247. The stadia line. The best method for plotting the stadia lines is by latitudes and longitudes, the computations for which are made with sufficient exactness by a diagram or by the trigonometer shown in Fig. 119. The arm is set to the


Fig. 119.
proper azimuth and the length of sight is noted on the arm. The latitude and longitude differences are then read on the cross-section scale. ${ }^{1}$

If the latitudes and longitudes of the triangulation stations have been determined, it will be known on the completion of computations for any one stadia line whether or not that line is correct. If it does not close on the proper triangulation station, and the error is small, that error may be distributed

[^43]among the various courses, as in a land survey. If the error is great, it must be found. If the azimuths were checked in the field, the error must be in distance. Note the direction of the closing line and see whether it corresponds to any course. If it does, the error is probably in that course, and it should be remeasured. If it does not correspond to any one course, there is probably more than one error. In case of error of geographical position due to mistakes in measurement, the elevations will not check unless the error is made on practically level ground; hence if no field check of azimuths has been possible and the elevations check while geographical positions do not, the error is in azimuth.


The stadia line may also be drawn by the use of a protractor. The protractor should be large, either one of the expensive vernier protractors, like that shown in Fig. 120, or a paper protractor, such as may be had from any dealer in surveyors' supplies. The paper protractor should be about fourteen inches in diameter and graduated to quarter degrees.
248. Side shots. It may be prepared for use in mapping side shots as follows, see Fig. 121 : ${ }^{1}$

Number the graduations from zero to the right $360^{\circ}$. Draw through the zero and the $180^{\circ}$ points and the center a straight line, and continue the line to the end of the sheet. The edges are trimmed true and square, and not less than an inch of paper is left outside the printed circle. With a pair of dividers

[^44]set to the length of the longest average shots, when measured to the scale of the map, describe an arc $a c b$ with the center of the protractor as a center. With a radius equal to the radius of the inner circle of the graduations, and with a center on the zero $-180^{\circ}$ line a little nearer the center than the inner circle of the graduations, describe an arc $a d b$. With a sharp knife cut out the crescent thus formed. Cut out also a small triangle, the middle of one side of which shall be the center of the cir-


Fig. 121.
cle. Midway between $d$ and $I$ erect a perpendicular to $d I$, as ef. With the knife, cut along the lines ea and $f b$. Fold the flap eabf thus made on the line ef. A protractor with so much material taken from its center is good only for mapping side shots.

Perhaps a better way to prepare the protractor for side shots is to cut out about three quarters of the circle acb, Fig. 121, leaving a trifle more than a quadrant which will contain the center and which may be folded back after the protractor
is oriented on a point. This form will give a somewhat larger opening for plotting the shots. If a field map is to be made from which a finished map is to be traced, it may be made on the protractor sheet, or larger sheets may be had with a protractor printed on them. The azimuths may be transferred over the sheet with a parallel ruler.

To use the protractor, draw a meridian through each stadia station. With the flap unfolded, center and orient the protractor, weight it down, and fold back the flap. Paste under the zero of the scale that is to be used, a small piece of drawing paper, or other firm paper, through which, at the zero graduation, a fine needle is passed. The needle is stuck into the drawing at the station, and the rule may then be revolved about it as a center. The edge of the scale is brought to each azimuth in succession, and the distance is scaled at once and marked on the paper. If the point is merely taken for the purpose of obtaining elevations, its elevation is noted on the map when it is plotted. Otherwise, the name of the object is marked or the object is sketched in. In case the distance is so great that the point falls under the paper of the protractor, a mark is made with the name or elevation of the point and, when all the other points are plotted, the protractor is lifted and this point put in. With the aid of the sketches and the assumption that the slope is regular between adjacent plotted points, the contours and other objects are now drawn in. The triangulation stations, if there are any, should be inked in before any stadia plotting is done. The stadia lines are not drawn nor are the stadia stations inked. Buildings, fence lines, etc., should be inked before the contours are drawn, to prevent confusion. It is not customary, except in maps of small scale, to run contours across a road, or stream, or through a building.
249. Colby's protractor. A very convenient form of protractor for this work is Colby's, shown in Fig. 122. It is made in three pieces. The largest piece is the limb $L, L, L$, graduated from $0^{\circ}$ to $360^{\circ}$, with fifteen-minute divisions ; $E, E$, are projections, upon which weights are placed. The limb has four indexes $B, B, B, B, 90^{\circ}$ apart, by which the protractor is oriented. $A, A, A$, is the alidade, fitted to revolve inside the
limb. $C, C$, are indexes carried by the alidade, $180^{\circ}$ apart. To the bar $D$, of the alidade is attached the scale $S$, by the small screws and nuts $N, N$. The scale has its zero mark in


Fig. 122.
the middle, and is graduated both ways. It can be taken off by unscrewing the nuts $N, N$, and a scale of different denomination may be substituted when desired.
250. Ockerson's protractor. Another cheaper form is shown in Fig. 123. It is centered with a needle point, about which it will revolve. A meridian is drawn through the point over which the protractor is to be set, and the graduations are such that, if a given azimuth is brought to the meridian line, the diameter, on which is a scale for plotting the points, is in the given azimuth. The protractor was designed by Mr. J. A. Ockerson for use in the Mississippi River surveys.


Fig. 123.
251. Finishing the map. If the map is to be finished in black, it may be finished as shown on Plate I., at the end of the book. If it is to be finished in color, a very effective result. will be obtained by following the example given in Plate II., which shows the scheme in use by the United States Geological Survey. Plate III. shows a more effective and more elaborate scheme. The contours are brown, being a mixture of crimson lake and burnt sienna. The red is vermilion. Streams and all water will be blue. Roads may be black and dotted or full lines. ${ }^{1}$
252. Requirements for maps. It must be remembered that no map is complete without the following items :
(1) A neat, explicit title, preferably in Roman letters.
(2) Scale, both drawn on the map and given by figures.
(3) The date of the survey.
(4) Name of surveyor and draughtsman.
(5) Direction of meridian.
(6) A key to any topographic symbols that are used.
(7) A neat line border. ${ }^{2}$

[^45]If contours are drawn, these should be numbered, to make the map intelligible. It is necessary to number only every fifth or tenth line, which should also be drawn a little heavier than the others.
253. Scale. The scale of the map will depend on the territory covered and the use to which the map is to be put. A survey of a city lot may be mapped on a scale of, say, fifty feet per inch. The topographical maps of the United States Geological Survey are on a scale of about one mile per inch. A railroad preliminary survey may be mapped on a scale of from one thousand feet per inch, for ordinary purposes, to one hundred feet per inch, for close detailing. The maps of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey and of the United States Geological Survey are mapped to a "natural scale," that is, a given distance on the map is some round fraction of the distance it represents, as $\frac{60}{6000}$ or $\frac{1}{10 \frac{1}{000}}$, etc. Maps of land surveys, or others made to show to non-technical persons, should be made at so many feet, or chains, or miles, to the inch; and the top of the map should be north. Maps of large territories, mainly for the use of those who are conversant with surveying methods, may be made with advantage to the natural scale. The original map may be copied by tracing on cloth or on paper, and transferring to other drawing paper.

## THE PLANE TABLE.

254. Description. Detail topographical surveys are sometimes made with the plane table, indeed, this is the standard instrument of the United States Coast Survey for such work, and is also largely used by the United States Geological Survey.

The plane table consists essentially of a drawing board with a suitable leveling device, mounted on a tripod, and a ruler for drawing. The ruler is attached to a line of sight, usually telescopic, but sometimes merely open sights, like those of the compass. The combined ruler and telescope is called the alidade. Fig. 124 is a complete plane table. Clips for holding the paper are shown, as well as the alidade, compass box, and levels, and a device for setting a point on the paper over a point on the ground. The plane table is, in its ordinary
form, a very awkward instrument, and is used very little outside the two surveys mentioned. A much simpler form of leveling head than that generally used is one invented by Mr.


Fig. 124.
W. D. Johnson, and this device has been approved by the topographers of the United States Geological Survey. It is shown in Fig. 125. By loosening the wing nut d, the table may be leveled, and when leveled, the nut $d$ is tightened.

When the nut $g$ is loosened, the table may be turned in azimuth without disturbing its horizontality. The whole arrangement is very light. It does not permit of as close leveling as does the ordinary form with leveling screws, and should not be used where contours are to


Fig. 125. be carefully determined by vertical angles. In making a map of a park showing the location of each tree, bush, etc., for planning new work, and when work may be, without loss, performed on pleasant days and omitted on wet or damp days,
the plane table may be used with advantage, and, aside from the United States Coast and Geological Surveys, it is for this class of work that it is most used. The author prefers for contour work to use the transit and stadia. If the advantage of mapping at once in the field is desired, it may be obtained by having an assistant and a light drawing board. It is believed that a lack of notes is rather a disadvantage than, as is generally assumed, an advantage.
255. Use. The plane table is used for the immediate mapping of a survey made with it, no notes of angles being taken, but the lines being plotted at once on the paper. The simplest case is the location of a number of places from one point by azimuth and distance. The table is set up so that some convenient point on the paper is over a selected spot on the ground, and clamped in azimuth. The ruler is then brought to the point on the paper and swung about it till the line of sight which is parallel in azimuth to the ruler ${ }^{1}$ is directed toward a point that is to be located. A scale for the drawing is determined, and a line is drawn along the ruler and made to scale, equal to the distance to the desired point, which distance is found by measurement or by the stadia. The point is then located. A similar procedure locates other points. This is called the method of radiation. If a plane table is set up in the interior of a field all of whose corners are visible from the position of the table, the corners may be thus located and connected and a map of the field is at once obtained. There is evidently nothing by which to determine the area except to scale the map for additional data or to use a planimeter.

Traversing may be performed with the plane table as follows : If it is a field that is to be "run out," set the table over one corner, choosing a point on the paper to represent that corner in such position that the drawing of the field to the scale selected will come on the board. In the four-sided field shown in Fig. 126, it would be necessary to occupy but two corners to map the field, though it would be better for a check to occupy the third. The figure shows the field and, to a very exaggerated scale, the plane table.

[^46]The table is first set over $B$ and a point $b$ marked on the paper directly over $B$. The instrument being clamped, the alidade is brought to bear on $A$, and a line is drawn to scale equal to $B A$, which is found by measurement or by stadia. The alidade is then directed to $C$, and the line $b c$ is drawn to scale. The table is then removed to $C$, and so set up that the point $c$ shall be over the point $C$ and the line $c b$ in the direction $C B$. This is hard to do with the plane table. If


Fig. 126.
the scale is large, it must be done; but if the scale is very small, the following is a sufficiently close approximation: Set the table level, with $c$ over $C$ and with $c b$ approximately in line with $C B$. Loosen the azimuth motion and, with the alidade on the line $c b$, bring the line of sight on $B$. Clamp in azimuth, and the table is set. The point $c$ is not exactly over $C$, but the error will be inappreciable.

The table being set over $C$ and oriented on $C B$, turn the alidade toward $D$ and draw $c d$. da may now be connected, giving the entire field. It will be better to occupy $D$ and see whether the line $D A$ will pass through $a$ on the paper, and whether the length $d a$ equals to scale the length $D A$.

Another method very much used with the plane table is known as the method of intersections. Let it be required to locate the points $A, B, C$, Fig. 127, from the points $D$ and E. Measure $D E$, and lay off to scale on the paper a line equal to $D E$, in proper position so that the points desired will fall on the paper. Set the table over $D$ and orient on $E$. Swinging the alidade about $d$, draw lines toward $C, B$, and $A$. Set the table over $E$ and orient on $D$. Swinging the alidade about $e$, draw lines toward $C, B$, and $A$, and note the intersections of these lines with those drawn from $d$ to corresponding points. These intersections locate the points.
256. The three-point and two-point problems. In filling in topography that is hung on a system of triangles, it is common to complete the triangulation and map it. There will usually be drawn on a single sheet on the plane table only the


Fig. 127. topography adjacent to one or two triangulation stations, the work being carried on precisely as in the use of the transit and stadia, except that it is mapped at once. The first sheet will ordinarily have plotted on it at least one triangulation station and a line toward another. These, indeed, might be drawn at random, so that they be located conveniently on the sheet for the work to be done. Usually there will be two or more triangulation stations, or previously occupied plane table stations, mapped on a new sheet. The table may be set over one and oriented on another. It not unfrequently happens that the table can not conveniently be set over any one of the stations mapped on the sheet. Then, if the table is set over any point at random and
properly oriented (assuming that the latter could be done by the needle or otherwise) and the alidade is then revolved separately about each plotted point and directed toward the place in the field thereby represented, a line being drawn on the paper in this direction, the lines so drawn from the various points should all intersect at one point, which would be the properly mapped point over which the instrument is set. In Fig. 128, if points $A, B, C$, have been properly mapped in $a, b$, and $c$, and if the table is set up so that $a b$ is parallel to $A B$, and consequently $b c$ is parallel to $B C$, and lines are drawn through $a, b$, and $c$ in the directions $A a$, $B b$, and $C c$, they should intersect in the point $d$ which is over $D$ over which the table is set. The difficulty is to orient the table. This is done (when three points are mapped) by what is called


Fig. 128. the "three-point problem" and, when two points are mapped, by the "two-point problem," or "location by resection on the known points." There are several solutions of these problems. The following are perhaps the simplest and most satisfactory.
(1) Three-point problem. If three points are mapped and may be seen from the position of the table, place a piece of tracing paper on the table, and, assuming any convenient point on the tracing paper, draw lines from this toward the three field points. Remove the alidade and shift the tracing paper till the three lines pass through the three mapped points. Prick through the intersection of the three lines. This is the point required. Now orient the table on any one of the points.
(2) Two-point problem. In this problem two points are mapped on the paper, and a third is occupied on the ground ; the position of this third point is to be correctly mapped, and the table oriented so that work may proceed from the third point. To do this, a fourth point is occupied temporarily. In Fig. 129 the field points have been mapped and are shown on the table in $a$ and $b$. The point $C$ is to be occupied. Place a piece of tracing paper on the table and set the table over a fourth point $D$, conveniently chosen. Through the point on R'M'D SURV. - 18
the tracing paper that is over $D$ draw lines toward $A, B$, and $C$. Estimate the distance $D C$, and lay it off to scale to $c^{\prime}$. Set $c^{\prime}$ over $C$ and orient on D. Draw lines toward $A$ and $B$, and note the intersection of these lines with those already drawn from $d^{\prime}$. The figure $a^{\prime} b^{\prime} c^{\prime} d^{\prime}$ will be similar to the figure $A B C D$. It will, however, not be drawn to the proper scale since the distance $D C$ was only estimated. Therefore, $a^{\prime} b^{\prime}$ will be


Fig. 129. longer or shorter than it should be to represent properly the line $A B$ to the scale that it is proposed to use. Let it be supposed to be shorter. Remove the alidade and shift the


Fig. 130. tracing paper till $a^{\prime}$ is over $a$, and the line $a^{\prime} b^{\prime}$ is coincident with $a b$. Construct a quadrilateral on $a b$ similar to $a^{\prime} b^{\prime} c^{\prime} d^{\prime}$. This will give the quadrilateral $a b c d$, and $c$ is properly located relatively to $a$ and $b$. The point is pricked through into the drawing, and the table is set up with $c$ over $C$ and oriented on any one of the other points, and the work proceeds. The tracing paper may be dispensed with, the drawing work being thereby somewhat increased. This method is seen to be merely a modification of the three-point problem.
257. Adjustments. The bubbles for leveling the table are adjusted to be parallel to the base of the alidade. This is done by the method already given for adjusting a level having a plane metallic base. See Art. 51.

The line of collimation and the axis of the telescope bubble are made parallel by the "peg" adjustments as applied to the transit.

The horizontal axis is adjusted like that of the transit.

## CHAPTER X.

## EARTHWORK COMPUTATIONS.

## ORDINARY METHODS.

258. Occurrence of problem. The surveyor is frequently called upon to measure the volume of earth moved or to be moved in connection with various grading operations. These may consist of the grading of a city block to conform to the bounding street grades, the simple excavation of a foundation pit or cellar, the grading of a street, the building of a reservoir, the dredging of material from the bottom of a river, lake, or bay, etc.

Payment for earthwork is usually by the cubic yard; sometimes, for small quantities, by the cubic foot. The measurement of earthwork is based on the geometrical solids, the prism, wedge, pyramid, and prismoid.
259. Prisms. The volume of any doubly truncated prism is $V=A h$, in which $A$ is the area of a right section, and $h$ is the element of length through the center of gravity of the right section or is the length of the line joining the centers of gravity of the two ends.


Fig. 131.

In any prism having a symmetrical right base, the center of gravity of that base is at its center of form. This is true of all the regular polygons and of all parallelograms.

In such prisms the length of the element through the center
of gravity is the mean of all the edges. This is further true of a triangular prism.

This may be shown as follows :
In the truncated triangular prism shown in Fig. 131, the area of the right base is $A=\frac{1}{2} b p$, and $p=\frac{2 A}{b}$. The volume is $V=\frac{\left(h_{2}-h_{1}\right)+\left(h_{3}-h_{1}\right)}{2} b \frac{p}{3}+\frac{3 h_{1} A}{3}$. Substituting for $p$ its value $\frac{2 A}{b}, \quad V=\frac{h_{1}+h_{2}+h_{3}}{3} A .{ }^{1}$

A truncated parallelopiped may be divided into two truncated triangular prisms in two ways, as


Fig. 132. shown in Fig. 132, and each set may be treated as above and the resulting volumes added. This gives twice the volume of the solid, which divided by two gives

$$
V=\frac{h_{1}+h_{2}+h_{3}+h_{4}}{4} A
$$

A prism having for its right base a regular pentagon may be divided into three triangular truncated prisms in five ways and treated as the parallelopiped, when the result $V=\frac{h_{1}+h_{2}+h_{3}+h_{4}+h_{5}}{5} A$ is obtained.
260. Prismoids. Many of the forms dealt with in earthwork are more nearly prismoids than either prisms, wedges, or pyramids, and when this is the case the prismoidal formula gives more correct volumes.

A prismoid is a solid having two parallel polygonal bases connected by triangular faces. This is equivalent, if the faces are conceived small enough, to the following, which somewhat better defines the forms dealt with in earthwork :

A prismoid is a solid having parallel plane ends with sides formed by moving a ruled line around the perimeters of the ends as directrices. Such a solid may be conceived as made up of a combination of prisms, pyramids, and wedges.

[^47]261. Prismoidal formula. If a single expression can be found giving the volume of a prism, pyramid, and wedge, it will give the volume of a prismoid, since such a solid is made up of the above three elementary solids, all having, in any given case, equal heights.

In the right
prism
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { pyramid } \\ \text { wedge }\end{array}\right\} V=\left\{\begin{array}{c}\frac{A h}{3} \\ \frac{A h}{2}\end{array}\right\} \begin{gathered}\text { which may be } \\ \text { written }\end{gathered}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\frac{h}{6}\left(A_{1}+A_{2}+4 A_{m}\right) \\ \frac{h}{6}\left(A_{1}+A_{2}+4 A_{m}\right)\end{array}\right.$
in which $A_{1}$ is one base, $A_{2}$ is the other base, and $A_{m}$ is a section midway between the two end bases and parallel to them.

The single expression thus found is called the prismoidal formula, and is the correct formula for finding the volumes of prismoids.
$A_{m}$ is not a mean of $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$, but each of its linear dimensions is a mean of the corresponding dimensions of $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$.

This formula is applicable to the sphere and all the regular solids of revolution. ${ }^{1}$
262. Approximations. To avoid the labor involved in computing the volume of prismoids by the prismoidal formula, one of two assumptions is frequently made. These are :
(1) The volume of a prismoid is $\frac{A_{1}+A_{2}}{2} h$, called the method of average end areas.
(2) The volume of a prismoid is $h A_{m}$, called the method of mean areas.

The error of the first assumption is twice that of the second and of the opposite sign. To show this, let $a_{1}, a_{2}$, and $a_{m}$ be homologous sides of the similar end and middle sections of a given prismoid. ${ }^{2}$ Then since the areas of similar figures are as

[^48]the squares of their homologous sides, there may be written the following expressions for the volume of the prismoid, based on the true and approximate formulas. In these expressions $K$ is any constant ratio by which $a^{2}$ is to be multiplied to give area. Remembering that $a_{m}=\frac{a_{1}+a_{2}}{2}$,

By prismoidal formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{p}=2 K \frac{h}{6}\left(a_{1}^{2}+a_{1} a_{2}+a_{2}^{2}\right)=\frac{4}{12} K h\left(a_{1}^{2}+a_{1} a_{2}+a_{2}^{2}\right) . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

By average end areas

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{e a}=\frac{K h}{2}\left(a_{1}^{2}+a_{2}^{2}\right)=\frac{6}{12} K h\left(a_{1}^{2}+a_{2}^{2}\right) . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

By mean areas

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{m}=K \frac{h}{4}\left(a_{1}^{2}+2 a_{1} a_{2}+a_{2}^{2}\right)=\frac{3}{12} K h\left(a_{1}^{2}+2 a_{1} a_{2}+a_{2}^{2}\right) . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Subtracting (1) from (2),

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{e a}-V_{p}=\frac{2 K h}{12}\left(a_{1}-a_{2}\right)^{2} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Subtracting (1) from (3),

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{m}-V_{p}=-\frac{K h}{12}\left(a_{1}-a_{2}\right)^{2} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is seen that equation (5) is half of equation (4) and of opposite sign. From equations (4) and (5) it is also seen that the average end area method gives results too great, while the mean area method gives results too small. There are certain peculiar cases when the end areas are not similar figures in which the average end area method gives results too small.

By the prismoidal formula, or one of the approximations mentioned, the volume of all masonry work or earth work may be computed.

It is seen from equations (4) and (5) that the errors of the assumptions given vary with the square of the difference in dimensions of the two end areas, and therefore it may be concluded that in cheap work, such as earthwork, if successive end areas are nearly alike, the simpler method of average end
areas may be used, while if the areas are quite different, the prismoidal formula should be used; and in costly work, such as masonry, the prismoidal formula should always be used.
263. Area grading. When a large area, as a city block, is to be filled or excavated, the area may be divided into rectangles of such size that the four corners of each may be assumed to be in one plane. The lines of division will be so referenced that their intersections can be again found after the grading is done. Elevations of the corners of the rectangles will be found before grading and after the grading is done. The difference in elevation at any one corner is the depth of cut or fill at that corner.


Fig. 133. The depth of cut or fill is marked on the stakes set at the corners to guide the workmen. The total volume is thus divided into a number of prisms of equal bases and known altitudes. The volume in cubic yards of one prism is, letting $A$ be its base and $a, b, c, d$, its four corner heights,

$$
V=\frac{A}{27} \cdot \frac{a+b+c+d}{4}
$$

The student may show that the volume of all the prisms is given by

$$
V=\frac{A}{4 \times 27}\left(\Sigma h_{1}+2 \Sigma h_{2}+3 \Sigma h_{3}+4 \Sigma h_{4}\right)
$$

in which $\Sigma$ is the sign for "sum of " and $h_{1}, h_{2}$, etc., are the corner heights of the several prisms, the subscript numeral indicating the number of prisms of which the $h$ to which it is affixed is one corner. Thus $c$ would be an $h_{4}, b$ an $h_{2}$, etc.

The rectangles may be made larger by conceiving a diagonal as drawn in each rectangle. This would be drawn in the correct direction by inspection in the field, so that the assumed plane tops of the triangular prisms thus formed would most nearly correspond with the ground surface.

Assuming that $A$ is still the area of a rectangle, the student should show that the volume of the series of prisms is given by.

$$
V=\frac{A}{6 \times 27}\left(\Sigma h_{1}+2 \Sigma h_{2}+3 \Sigma h_{3}+4 \Sigma h_{4}+5 \Sigma h_{5}, \text { etc. }\right)
$$

and that the highest subscript may be 8 .
The sides of such rectangles as have been mentioned may vary from twenty feet to one hundred feet, according to the character of the ground surface.
264. Street grading. In grading streets the sides are usually cut down or filled up vertical where possible, the principle being that the adjacent property must look out for itself. The best way to get the volume in street grading is to make cross profiles of the section to be graded, at such intervals as may be necessitated by the character of the ground, say from fifty to one hundred feet apart. On these cross profiles will be drawn the cross profile of the finished street, and the area between the two profiles will be the area in cut or fill at that section. The volume between any two adjacent sections is computed as a prismoid. The areas may be drawn to scale on cross-section paper, and measured with a planimeter, or they may be computed.


Fig. 134.

Some engineers work with the grade of the center of the street, some with the grade of the curb lines, and some with the grade of the property lines. Stakes are usually set at the center and sides on which are marked the depths of cut or fill as a guide to the workmen. Where this is not possible, a list of cuttings may be furnished the contractor. Assuming the grade of the property line to be used in Fig. 134, the depths of cut to the line $A B$ will be determined at such points in the cross section as may be necessary to give a correct area. The area above the line $A B$ is computed from the field notes and used
in getting the volume. The volume of the cutting below the line $A B$ is a constant per unit of length of street, and may be readily computed for any given stretch. The slide rule is very useful in saving time in all volumetric computations.
265. Excavation under water. When excavation under water is to be measured, it may be done by sounding on known lines, both before and after the excavating is done, and the volume is computed as in surface grading. This is not always the best method. The material is usually measured after removal. If it is placed in scows, the displacement of the scow for each load is obtained, and this, divided by the specific gravity of the material, gives the volume in the scow. It is necessary to observe the displacement of the scow for no load, and subtract this from the observed displacement for a given load.

The displacement is obtained by measuring the model lines of the vessel at varying depths, and computing the volume for these depths by the prismoidal formula. These volumes may be plotted on cross-section paper by laying off the depths to scale on one side of the paper, and at these points laying off the computed volumes to scale perpendicular to this axis of depths. A curve may now be drawn through the points thus plotted. Ordinates to this curve, at any scaled depth, will be to scale the volume for that depth.

To observe the displacement correctly, the water in the hold must be at the level obtaining when the displacement of the empty vessel was noted. The depth of the vessel in the water is best noted at four symmetrically situated points, and the mean is taken.

## estimating volumes from a map.

266. A reservoir. Fig. 135 is a contour map of a portion of a valley or ravine that it is proposed to convert into a storage reservoir by the construction of a dam across the narrow part shown. It is required to determine the capacity of the reservoir. At the location of the dam, its top width and side slopes being determined, the lines representing the top, and
what will be contour lines of the finished surface, may be drawn on the map as indicated. The intersection of any contour with the corresponding contour of the finished dam will be a point where the dam will join the side of the valley, and a line, $a b c$, connecting such points of intersection will indicate the edge of the proposed structure, or will be a line of no cut or fill, that is, a "grade line."

The storage space may be conceived to be divided into a series of horizontal layers whose top and bottom areas are the closed fig츤 ures formed by corresponding contours of surface and dam. These areas may be measured with a planimeter. The volume of any layer is obtained by averaging its two end areas and multiplying by its height, which is the contour interval. If $h$ is that interval, the volume of a series of layers would be given by

$$
V_{c y}=\frac{h}{27}\left(\frac{A_{1}}{2}+A_{2}+A_{3}+\text { etc. } \frac{A_{n}}{2}\right) .
$$

If it is preferred to use the prismoidal formula, the height of each prismoid will be twice the contour interval, and every other area will be a middle area, and the volume of the whole, assuming an even number of layers, will be

$$
V_{c y}=\frac{h}{6 \times 27}\left(A_{1}+4 A_{2}+2 A_{3}+4 A_{4}+2 A_{5}+4 A_{6}+\text { etc. } \cdots A_{n}\right)
$$

If there is an odd number of layers, the final layer may be computed separately, either by average end areas or by interpolating $a<$ middle area on the map and measuring it with the planimeter.

The volume of material in the dam may be obtained in the same way. ${ }^{1}$
267. Application to surface grading. This method is applicable also to the measurement of irregular earthwork in general.

Let Fig. 136 represent a rectangular area that it is proposed to surface as indicated. The full irregular lines represent contour lines of the original surface. The more regular curved full lines represent contours of the surface as it is proposed to have it. The figures represent elevations above some datum surface. Conceive the original and graded surface to exist at the same time, and imagine the contour planes passed into the hill at their respective elevations, and consider particularly the 82 -foot plane. The areas $a, c, b$ and $n, o, p$ will be in excavation, while the areas $b, s, n$ and $p, q, r$ will be in embankment. The points $a, b, n, p$, and $r$ are "at grade," being neither in cut nor fill.

Connecting corresponding grade points, there result the dotted grade lines $84, f, b, 81 ; t, n, w ; u, p, v$, which are bounding lines of bodies of cut and fill.

Thus, the whole central portion of the figure is in excavation, while the upper left corner is in embankment.

The horizontal area in excavation or embankment at any level is the area included between original and finished surface contours at that level.

[^49]To get the volume of any single body of cut or fill, measure successive areas with the planimeter, and assume these to be end areas of figures that are as nearly prismoids as anything else, with altitudes equal to the contour interval. If the prismoidal formula is to be used for computing the volume, the


Fig. 136.
altitude of a single prismoid is taken as twice the contour interval, that is, two layers are taken to make one prismoid. The volumes may be computed by the formulas of the last article. Assuming average end areas, the small body of cut on the right is found to have areas :

At elevation 81, 00.
At elevation 82, acb.
At elevation 83, def.
At elevation 84, 00.

$$
\text { Volume }=\frac{1}{27}\left(\frac{00}{2}+a c b+d e f+\frac{00}{2}\right)=\frac{1}{27}(a c b+d e f) .
$$

The portion of fill between this cut and the large central body of cut has areas:

At 88 -foot level, 00.
At 87 -foot level, $g h i$.
At 86 -foot level, $k l m$.
etc., etc.
268. Application to structures. One example of the application of this method of estimating volumes to regular structures built on irregular ground will be given. The form of the


Fig. 137.
structure is not presented as an example of good engineering, but merely to show the method of estimating volumes.

A small reservoir is to be built on a hillside, and will be partly in excavation and partly in embankment. Fig. 137 shows such a case. The contours, for the sake of simplicity, are spaced five feet apart. The top of the reservoir (shown by
the heavy lines making the square) is 10 feet wide, and at an elevation of 660 feet. The reservoir is 20 feet deep, with side slopes - both inside and outside - of two to one, making the bottom elevation 640 feet, and 20 feet square, the top being 100 feet square on the inside. The dotted lines are contours that would be invisible if both original surface and completed reservoir were supposed to exist at the same time. The areas of fill all fall within the broken line marked abcdefghik, and the cut areas all fall within the broken line marked abcdefgo. These broken lines are grade lines. The areas of fill and cut are readily traced by following the closed figures formed by contours of equal elevation:

At 640-foot level area in fill is pst.
At 650 -foot level area in fill is lmnuvxl.
At 650 -foot level area in cut is $123 u x 1$.
The other areas are easily traced. In the figures given, the lines have all been drawn in black for printing. In practice they should be drawn in different colors to avoid confusion.

## CHAPTER XI.

## HYDROGRAPHIC SURVEYING.

269. Definition. A hydrographic survey is a survey having to do with any body of water. A topographic survey may be, and frequently is, partly a hydrographic survey.
270. Objects. A hydrographic survey may be undertaken for any one of the following purposes :
(1) To determine the topography of a portion of the bed of the sea, a bay, or harbor, or river, in order that it may be mapped for the information of seamen. In this case it is necessary merely to locate the channels, dangerous rocks, and shoals.
(2) To determine definitely the configuration of a small portion of the bed of the sea, a bay, harbor, or river, for the purpose of planning works to rest on or in the bed, such as lighthouses, sea walls or docks, bridge piers, etc., or to estimate the quantities of materials to be moved by dredging or blasting, for the improvement of the channels or harbor.
(3) To determine the flow of a given river or estuary and the direction of the currents, for the purpose of studying the physics of the stream or for planning waterworks or drainage systems.
(4) To secure the necessary information for planning the improvement of marshy shores of a lake or stream by lowering the water level or otherwise.
271. Work of the surveyor. The survey ends with the determination of the required information. The planning of the works and their execution is hydraulic engineering. The laying out of the plan on the ground requires the methods of the surveyor. The work of the surveyor, then, is to make a
topographical map of the area to be covered, to compute material moved, to determine cross sections of streams, their velocities, their discharge, the direction of their currents, and the character of their beds, and to lay out projected improvements.
272. General statement of methods. The configuration or topography of the bed of a body of water is determined by sounding, that is, measuring the depth of water. If many points are observed, a contour map of the bottom may be drawn, the water surface being the plane of reference.

The cross section of a stream is determined by taking soundings along a fixed transverse line.

The velocity of flow of a stream is determined by noting how long a float requires to drift a known distance, or by the use of a current meter.

Since the velocity is not the same at all parts of a given cross section, many determinations for velocity must be made before an average for the whole cross section can be obtained.

The discharge of a large stream like the Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, or Hudson River is determined by measuring a cross section and finding the velocity of flow past it. The discharge of a small stream, like any one of the thousands of creeks, is obtained by weir measurements. A weir is a notch cut in a dam. A dam is constructed across the stream, and a notch is built in it, through which the water flows. From the known size of the notch and the depth of water flowing over it, the flow may be calculated by methods that are explained in full in any work on hydraulics. Insignificant streams may be measured by any simple means that may occur to the surveyor.

The direction of surface currents may be determined by means of floats. Subcurrents are best determined by means of the direction meter.

The character of the bed of a body of water may be ascertained by securing samples in a cup attached to the sounding lead, or by putting tallow in a cavity in the bottom of the lead. Some of the bottom will adhere to the tallow. If the character of the bed for some distance below the bottom is required, as when bridge piers are to be founded on firm bottom which is
at an unknown depth, various methods are resorted to, according to the depth of water, the soil below, and the difficulties to be overcome. Simple cases may be handled with gaspipe rods driven through the bottom by hammers to a hard layer of material. In other cases drills driven by pile drivers are used, or diamond drills if rock is encountered, and it is necessary to determine its character and depth.

The method of making weir measurements, being properly a part of the study of hydraulics, and requiring considerable space to treat adequately, will not be given here; but such methods as require the use of surveying instruments and meters will be described in sufficient detail to enable the student to undertake such work.

## SOUNDINGS.

273. Making soundings. Deep-sea soundings are made with special elaborate apparatus which will not be described.

Soundings in moderately deep water are made with a weight, known as a lead, attached to a suitable line.

For depths of less than fifteen or twenty feet a pole is best.
The lead may be any heavy weight. It is preferably of lead, molded about an iron rod. The form is shown in Fig. 138. The cup at the bottom is for collecting samples of the bottom. There is a leather washer that slides up and down the rod between the bottom of the lead and the top of the cup. This keeps the soil that is collected, in the cup, while the lead is being raised. Very often the cup is omitted, and if samples of the bottom are required, tallow is used as already described.

The line for very deep work may be of wire, but must be used with a reel. For ordinary work, a hemp line or a chain is best. A line must be stretched, but not too much, as it may shrink. It


Fig. 18. must be frequently tested.

For soundings for navigation charts, the depths are taken in feet to four fathoms, and thereafter in fathoms. The party required to make soundings consists of a leadsman, a recorder, one or more oarsmen, and, when soundings are located from a
boat, one or two observers to read the angles. If the boat is located by angles read on shore, there must be one or more observers on shore.

The leadsman casts the lead and announces the depths. For this purpose the line is graduated by suitable tags, so that the depths can be readily determined. In still, deep water the boat may be stopped while the sounding is being taker and recorded, but more often it is not stopped. The leadsman stands in the bow of the boat and throws his lead ahead, so that, as he judges, it will be on the bottom and the line will be vertical when the boat is over it. He will become expert at this after a time. The recorder notes the number of the sounding and the depth that the leadsman gives him.

The method of using rods will be obvious.
The reference plane for depths is the surface of the water, and as this is continually changing, except in still ponds or lakes, it is necessary to know the stage of the water at the time the soundings are taken. This is done by establishing a gage in the vicinity of the work. The soundings on all navigation charts are referred to mean low tide. The zero of the gage should be set, if possible, at this elevation. The gage may be a graduated board nailed to a pile in a pier in the vicinity of the work and read at hourly intervals during the progress of the sounding. Gages for rivers are frequently inclined, being laid along the shore at right angles to the stream, and the points of equal differences of altitude are determined by leveling. A tide gage that is to remain permanently in place should be self-registering. Such a gage may consist essentially of a float protected by a surrounding house or tube, and attached by suitable mechanism to a pencil that has a motion proportional to the rise and fall of the float. The pencil bears against a piece of graduated paper fastened to a drum that is revolved by clockwork. There will thus be drawn on the paper a profile in which the horizontal units are time, and the vertical units are feet, rise, and fall. The stage of the tide for any instant can be read from the profile.
274. Locating the soundings. (1) The soundings may be located by two angles read simultaneously from the opposite
ends of a line on shore, the recorder in the boat signaling the observers on shore when a sounding is about to be taken, and again when it is taken.
(2) The soundings may be located by establishing two flags on shore in a line nearly normal to the shore line and taking the


Ftg. 139.
soundings in line with the range thus formed, the position of the boat being determined by an angle read on shore, or by time intervals. A series of such ranges is laid out, and soundings are taken along each range. The point selected for occupation by the anglemeasuring instrument on shore should be so chosen that the angles of intersection with the range lines will be large enough to give good locations. If the shore is narrow and precipitous, the range may be established by placing a flag on shore and a buoy in the


Fig. 140. water. The position of the buoy is determined as was described in the first method for locating soundings. The distances between the shore points will be measured for base lines, and the angles will be measured from these base lines. Fig. 139 will explain the method. The buoys may be any visible float, anchored in place by any heavy weight attached to the buoy by a rope. The rope must be sufficiently long to permit the buoy-to
be seen at high tide. At low tide the position of the buoy will not be certain, for obvious reasons. A good kind of buoy is a tapering spar of wood. If it is not readily visible, a flag may be set in the end.
(3) If many soundings are to be taken at different times on one cross section of a river, they may be located by taking them at the intersection of a series of ranges so laid out as to have their intersections on the required cross section. Fig. 140 will sufficiently explain.
(4) Again, the soundings may be located by stretching a rope or wire across the channel and taking them at marked


Fig. 141.
intervals along the line. This method is adapted to narrow channels, and is used somewhat in connection with measurement of materials dredged in such channels.
(5) Again, they may be located by measuring in the boat, at the time the soundings are taken, two angles to three known points on shore. The angles are measured with a sextant. There are several methods of obtaining from the data thus secured the location of the point where the sounding is taken. The problem to be solved is known as the "three-point problem."

The most convenient way to plot the point on a map on which have been already plotted the known shore points, is by the use of a three-arm protractor, shown in Fig. 141. The two
measured angles are set on the protractor and the arms are made to coincide with the plotted points. The center then gives the required position of the sounding.

If no three-arm protractor is available, draw three lines on a piece of tracing paper so that the two measured angles are included between the lines. Shift the paper over the map till the three lines pass through the three points. The point from which they radiate is now over the position of the sounding, and may be pricked through.

The position of the point may be found algebraically as follows: In Fig. 142, the known points are $A, B, C$, determined by the angle $\Delta$, and the sides $a$ and $b$.


Fig. 142. The measured angles are $\alpha$ and $\beta$, and the required point is $P$. From the triangles $A P B$ and $C P B$ there is obtained

$$
\begin{equation*}
P B=\frac{a \sin l}{\sin \alpha}=\frac{b \sin m}{\sin \beta} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also,

$$
\begin{equation*}
l+m=360^{\circ}-(\Delta+\alpha+\beta)=S \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

whence,

$$
m=S-l
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin m=\sin S \cos l-\cos S \sin l \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (1) and (3) determine $l$, which being found, the triangle $A P B$ may be solved and $P$ located. To solve for $l$, substitute in (1) the value of $\sin m$ found in (3), reduce to common denominator, divide by $\sin l$, transpose, and get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cot l=\frac{a \sin \beta+b \sin \alpha \cos S}{b \sin \alpha \sin S}=\cot S\left(\frac{a \sin \beta}{b \sin \alpha \cos S}+1\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

275. Occurrence of methods. The fifth method is used almost exclusively in locating soundings in bays, harbors, and
off the seacoast. The others are used in connection with river and small lake surveys.
276. Survey of a harbor, river, etc. In making a complete map of a harbor, coast, or river, a system of triangles of greater or less extent is laid out. The triangulation stations thus locate the prominent points. These points are then used as a basis for locating the soundings. If too far apart, other points are located along shore by running a traverse between triangulation stations. Such a traverse is usually run in any event to determine the detail configuration of the shore line and the topography adjacent thereto. This work is best done with the transit and stadia or with the plane table.

The map is finished like any topographical map. The contour lines of the bottom are frequently drawn as dotted lines to a depth of four fathoms, and beyond that depth the soundings are given in figures expressing fathoms and quarters. Charts of the various harbors and many portions of the coast of this country are published by the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, and may be purchased for a small price. On these charts are located buoys and beacons. These are established to denote shoals and rocks, and are so arranged that in entering a harbor a red buoy with even number is to be passed on the right; a black buoy with odd number is to be passed on the left, and buoys with red and black stripes may be passed on either the right or the left. Buoys in channels are painted with black and white vertical stripes.

Beacons and buoys are different things. A beacon is a permanent fixed signal, usually on a shoal or dangerous rock; while a buoy is a float of some kind, anchored by a chain. It is used to denote either danger or channel.

## THE SEXTANT.

277. Description. It has been said that when the angles are read in the boat, they are measured with a sextant. The sextant is shown in Fig. 143. It consists of an are of sixty degrees, but, from the principle of the instrument, reading angles up to one hundred and twenty degrees. $I$ is a mirror attached to the movable arm that carries the vernier $V$. The
arm is centerod under the mirror. This mirror is called the index glass. The vernier reads to ten seconds. $H$ is another glass, called the horizon glass. Its lower portion is a mirror, and its upper portion is unsilvered. $G G$ are colored glasses to protect the eye when making observations on the sun. They may be turned back out of the way when not needed.
278. Use. To use the sextant to measure an angle between two terrestrial objects, hold the plane of the are in the plane of


Fig. 143.
the observer's eye and the two points. The telescope should be directed toward the fainter object. It may be necessary to hold the sextant upside down to do this. Swing the vernier arm till the image of the second point reflected from $I$ to $\Pi$ to the telescope is seen superimposed on the fainter object seen directly. Clamp the vernier, bring the images into exact coincidence, using the tangent screws, and read the vernier. The reading is the angle sought. It will be observed that the angle read is not horizontal, unless the distant points are in the same level with the observer. It requires some practice
to become expert in the use of the sextant. The eyepieces shown in the figure are of different kinds. There is usually one astronomical eyepiece, one for terrestrial work, and one without magnifying power.

The instrument is that used by seamen for observing for latitude and longitude.
279. Theory. The principle on which the sextant is constructed is as follows: If a ray of light is reflected successively


Fig. 144.
from two plane mirrors, the angle between the incident and finally reflected ray is twice the angle of the mirrors.

Referring to Fig. 144, since the angles of incidence and reflection are equal, $i=r$ and $i^{\prime}=r^{\prime}$, and from Geometry

$$
E=(i+r)-\left(i^{\prime}+r^{\prime}\right)=2\left(r-r^{\prime}\right),
$$

and

$$
V^{\prime}=\left(90^{\circ}-i^{\prime}\right)-\left(90^{\circ}-r\right)=\left(r-r^{\prime}\right)
$$

Therefore $E=2 V^{\prime}$, which was to be shown.
To show that the angle read by the vernier on the are or limb is the angle $V^{\prime}$, suppose the two mirrors to be parallel and the telescope to be directed to an object infinitely distant, so
that the rays from it are parallel. An image of the object will be seen in the same line as the object, or will appear superimposed on the object. This will be evident from the equality of the angles $a$. The vernier will then be in the position $V$ and this point of the are is graduated zero. If now the vernier is moved to another point $V^{\prime}$ for the purpose of getting the reflection of a second point to cover the direct image of the first point, the angle $V I V^{\prime}$ will equal that at $V^{\prime}$, the angle of the mirrors. It is, however, the angle at $E$ that is required, and this is twice the angle through which the vernier has moved. Hence the are $V V^{\prime}$, instead of being numbered to give the angle $V^{\prime}$, is numbered to give at once the angle $\boldsymbol{E}$. That is, each degree is marked two degrees, etc.
280. Adjustments. There are four adjustments of the sextant:
(1) To make the index glass perpendicular to the plane of the limb.
(2) To make the horizon glass perpendicular to the limb.
(3) To make the line of collimation of the telescope parallel to the plane of the limb.
(4) To make the vernier read zero when the mirrors are parallel.
(1) Bring the vernier to about the middle of the arc. Hold the eye at about the upper $G$ of Fig. 143, and observe the arc near the zero point directly, and the reflected image of the other end of the are in the index glass. If the glass is perpendicular to the plane of the limb, the reflected and direct portions will seem to form one continuous arc. Adjust the glass, if necessary, by means of the screws at its base. It may be necessary to place slips of thin paper under the base.
(2) Direct the telescope toward a star or other very distant object and note whether the direct and reflected images seem, when the vernier is moved, to separate or overlap laterally. If they do not, the horizon glass is in adjustment. The adjustment is made, when necessary, by the screws of the glass.
(3) Place the sextant on a plane surface and direct the telescope to a point not far away. Place the two peep sights shown in Fig. 143 on the extreme ends of the limb and note whether the line of sight through them coincides in elevation
with the line of sight of the telescope. If not, adjust the telescope by the screws in its collar. Any other objects of equal


Fig. 145. altitude will serve as well as the peep sights.
(4) Bring the direct and reflected images of a very distant point to coincide, and read the vernier. It should read zero. If it does not, note the error as an index correction to be applied to all angle readings. The error may be corrected by adjusting the horizon glass, but this is not usually done.

## 281. Other forms.

 By a double sextant, Fig. 145, two angles can be measured quickly by one observer, one sextant measuring one angle and the other sextant, the other.
## MEASURING VELOCITY AND DISCHARGE.

282. Position of maximum velocity. The velocity of a stream varies in different portions of a cross section and in different cross sections. The maximum in a cross section is, when there is no wind, at about one third the depth in the middle of the channel. The surface velocity may be greater if the wind is favorable. To determine the mean velocity in a given cross section, the velocity in many parts of the section must be found. This is best done with a current meter.
283. Current meters. These are of various patterns. Those shown in Figs. 146-148 are considered good forms. Fig. 146 is a meter devised by W. G. Price, United States assistant engineer. There is an electric connection with a register that


Fig. 146.

indicates the number of revolutions of the wheel. The number of revolutions per second is a function of the velocity of the current through the meter.

Fig. 147 is a modification of the Price meter, called an audible, or acoustic, meter, and for streams is probably as convenient as any form yet devised. It is so constructed that at each tenth or twentieth revolution a small gong is struck, and the sound is carried through a rubber tube to the ear of the observer above in a boat. This meter requires no registering apparatus at all. It is not recommended for deep-sea work, in which a strong, heavy instrument is needed, since it is very light.

Fig. 148 is a different form of meter with electric registering attachment.
284. Use of the meter. In use the meter is simply held in different positions in a cross section whose velocity is required, and in each position the number of revolutions per second is noted. The position of the meter is located by any one of many possible methods that will suggest themselves to the surveyor. The number of revolutions per second bears some relation to the velocity of the current going through the propeller-like wheel of the meter, and the determination of this relation is called "rating the meter." Every meter must be rated before the velocity of current corresponding to an observed velocity of wheel can be told.
285. Rating the meter. The meter is rated by moving it through still water at a known rate and noting the revolutions per second. By moving it at different velocities it will become apparent that the velocity is not strictly proportional to the speed of the wheel but bears a relation that must be expressed by an equation. From a number of observations at different velocities, a diagram may be drawn that will give the velocity corresponding to any observed speed of the wheel. This is done as follows: The meter is moved over a known distance and a stop watch is used to determine the time occupied. The distance divided by the time in seconds gives the velocity in feet per second. The number of revolutions made during the time is recorded, and this divided by the time gives the number
of revolutions per second. The following observations were made by Mr. Price, all on a distance of two hundred feet.

In the table, $R$ is the whole number of revolutions in the two hundred feet, $T$ the whole time, $r$ the revolutions per second, and $v$ the velocity per second.

| No. | $R$ | $T$ | $r$ | $v$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | :---: |
| 1 | 100 | 53 | 1.886 | 3.774 |
| 2 | 101 | 44 | 2.295 | 4.544 |
| 3 | 101 | 41 | 2.464 | 4.878 |
| 4 | 96 | 124 | 0.774 | 1.613 |
| 5 | 94 | 152 | 0.618 | 1.316 |
| 6 | 90 | 193 | 0.466 | 1.036 |
| 7 | 91 | 181 | 0.503 | 1.105 |
| 8 | 103 | 28 | 3.678 | 7.142 |
| 9 | 100 | 53 | 1.886 | 3.774 |
| 10 | 98 | 73 | 1.342 | 2.740 |
| 11 | 193 | 29 | $\frac{3.552}{}$ | 6.896 |
|  |  |  | $11 \lcm{19.464}$ | 38.818 |
|  |  |  | 1.769 | 3.529 |

The average speed of the wheel is seen to be 1.769 revolutions per second, and the average velocity of flow, or current, is 3.529 feet per second.

Two axes at right angles are now drawn. On one of these axes are laid off the several values of $r$, and parallel to the other are laid off the corresponding values of $v$. In Fig. 149, the horizontal axis is that of $r$, and the vertical axis is the velocity axis. In the first observation, $r$ is 1.886 and $v$ is 3.774. Assuming suitable scales the observations are plotted in the same way as a point by latitudes and longitudes. Thus, the latitude of the first observation is 3.774 and its longitude is 1.886. If cross-section paper is used the work will be facilitated. Each observation being plotted, it is observed that they all fall nearly on a straight line. It may be assumed that they should all fall on the straight line and that they do not because of small errors in the observations. If the mean values of $r$ and $v$ are plotted it may be assumed that the line should pass through the point thus found and that it must then be swung to average the other points as nearly as may be. A piece of fine thread is stretched through the point of average $r$ and $v$, and swung
around till it seems to the eye to average the other points. This line is that on which it is most probable that the observa-


Axis of Revolutions per Second.
Fig. 149.
tions should all fall, and hence if it is drawn and the meter is held in a running stream and the revolutions per second are
noted, the corresponding velocity may be determined by laying off the observed $r$ on its axis and measuring the corresponding $v$ up to the line. If a horizontal line is drawn on the diagram through $b$, where the line cuts the axis of $v$, it will be seen that for any value of $r$ the corresponding value of $v$ is $r \tan \alpha+b o$. If $b$ represents $b o$, we may write

$$
v=r \tan \alpha+b
$$

From the values of the average $r$ and $v$ in the example given

$$
v=1.904 r+0.16
$$

In its general form this equation is

$$
v=a r+b
$$

and this is known in Analytical Geometry as an equation of a straight line. This equation is the general equation of the relation between $v$ and $r$. The rating of the meter then consists in finding values for $a$ and $b$ from observations that give $v$ and $r$. Since there are two unknown quantities, two independent observations should be sufficient ; but since no observation can be perfect, many are taken, and mean values are determined for $a$ and $b$. This may be done analytically by the method of Least Squares.
286. Rod floats. A very good method of obtaining velocities, when a current meter is not available, is to observe the velocities of rod floats in various parts of the stream. For this purpose two ranges are established on shore, one above and one below the section in which it is desired to measure the velocity. The ranges are laid out normal to the stream. A transit is placed on each range, and the rod is started just above the upper range. The transit man on the upper range signals the lower observer when the rod is about to cross the upper range, and just as it crosses ; and the lower observer reads an angle to the rod at the instant it crosses the upper range. The operation is repeated when the rod crosses the lower range, the lower observer making the signals, and the upper observer reading the angle to the rod. Each notes the time of crossing the range on which he is stationed. In this way the path of the rod and the time it takes to travel that path are known. The rod may be of wood, or it may be a long cylindrical tin can. In either case it should be weighted so as to remain
vertical and just clear the bottom. The velocity of the float will then be approximately that of the vertical filament of the stream in which it floated. The immersion of the rod should be about nine tenths of the depth of the stream. If this rule is observed, the mean velocity in the vertical filament will be given by $V_{m}=V_{\rho}[1-0.116(\sqrt{D}-0.1)]^{1}$ in which $V_{o}$ is the observed velocity of the rod, and $D$ is the ratio of the depth of the water below the bottom of the rod to the total depth of the water.

In small streams, wires or ropes graduated with tags may be stretched across the stream at the upper and lower ends of the stretch of river to be observed, and the time of passing of the float under each wire or rope may be observed.

By observing the velocities in many vertical filaments, the mean velocity of the section may be determined. It would not be a mean of the several observed velocities unless all "filaments "had equal areas. The mean velocity is that which multiplied by the area will give the discharge, hence it is $\frac{\text { Discharge }}{\text { Area }}$.
287. The discharge. To get the discharge, simply multiply the mean velocity of each filament by its cross-sectional area, and add the products. If the velocity is determined by meter, the work need be done in but one cross section; if by rod floats, it will usually be best to measure two or more sections, preferably at the quarter points of the stretch, from which to get a mean section.

## DIRECTION OF CURRENT.

288. How determined. It is sometimes necessary to know the direction of both surface and subsurface currents. The necessity may arise in the determination of the proper place to discharge sewage, or in surveys for the improvement of harbors and the approaches thereto. The surface currents may be determined by watching floats. The subsurface currents are best found by a direction meter. This is a form of meter that not only gives velocities, but also shows the direction of the current in which it is placed. It was devised by Messrs. Ritchie and Haskell. It is said to be one of the best forms of meters for measuring currents alone.
[^50]
## CHAPTER XII.

## mine surveying.

## SURFACE SURVEYS.

289. Coal mines. The surface surveys in connection with coal mining operations consist in making land surveys of the property that may be owned by the mining company, and locating all shafts, tunnel openings, buildings, railways, roads, and other structures. In addition to this it is well, if the area owned is extensive, to make a complete topographical survey of the property. Frequently a mining company mines coal under the lands of many small holders and pays a royalty for the coal so mined. It is therefore necessary to know the positions of the land lines of all owners under whose land it is probable that operations may extend. The location of these lines is best performed by careful stadia surveys - reading the stadia to the smallest possible unit. (There may be cases of sufficient importance to warrant most careful transit and tape work.) The topographical survey may be carried on at the same time. Indeed, the location of the land lines becomes merely an incident in the topographical survey. The positions of the corners are determined by computing their latitudes and longitudes.

Among other points that will be located in the topographical survey or land survey will be the positions of exploration drill holes that have been put down in advance of mining operations for the purpose of locating veins, or beds, as they are frequently called. The entire survey may or may not be hung on a system of triangles. If it is of any considerable extent, it is best to reference it thus for the sake of the checks it gives on the field work, even though not more than two or
three triangles are used. The whole work, except the side shots, is best plotted by latitudes and longitudes, these being computed with sufficient accuracy for this purpose by the aid of a trigonometer. The side shots, except those to land corners, may be plotted with a protractor. The surface map should show all outcroppings of mineral.
290. Metal mines. Surface surveys for metal mines may be of the same character as those for coal mines, but in the United States there are certain laws governing the size and form of mining claims that are located on public land, and the method of surveying them.
291. Form of mining claim. By the provisions of these laws, a mining claim may not exceed fifteen hundred feet in length along the vein nor six hundred feet in width (three hundred feet each side of the vein). It may be of any length or width less than these limits, according to local custom; but no rule may be made that will compel the claim to be less than twenty-five feet on each side of the vein. The side lines need not be straight or parallel, but the end lines must be both. The miner has the right to follow the vein he has discovered into the ground to any depth, even should it depart so much from the vertical as to pass beyond the vertical planes through the side lines ; but he may not mine beyond the vertical planes through the end lines.

When claims intersect, the subsequently located claim is said to conflict with the previous one and carries with it only the area that is not in conflict. The foregoing rules apply to what are called lode claims.

A "lode" is the name sometimes given to a vein of ore.
A "placer" claim is a claim taken for the purpose of obtaining gold or silver or other metal from the surface materials, as in washing gold from a river bed or from gravel in the mines worked by hydraulic process in California. Such a claim may not exceed twenty acres, and, if located on surveyed lands, its lines must conform to the legal subdivisions. A placer claim carries no right to mine beyond the vertical planes through its bounding lines. It carries the right to mine a vein discovered within
its boundaries after the claim is located, but not if the vein is known to exist when the claim is located, unless specially mentioned.
292. Surveying the claim. When a miner has found a vein of ore, he has a claim staked out on the ground, conforming to the legal requirements, using a width and length that he thinks best. He also posts the notices required by law. This survey may be made by any surveyor. After the miner has expended five hundred dollars in working his claim he is entitled to have it deeded to him by the government. This deed is called a "patent," and the claim is said to be "patented." For the purpose of this patent, a survey is made, from which to write a description. This final survey, on which the deed to the miner is based, must be made by a United States officer, known as a United States deputy mineral surveyor. Such officers are under bonds of ten thousand dollars, and are required to pass an examination before receiving their licenses. They make the final survey* and tie it to a corner of the public surveys or to a special mineral survey monument, and return to the surveyor general of the state the notes, with an affidavit that the required five hundred dollars have been expended on the mine.

The form of field notes and the instructions issued to United States deputy mineral surveyors by the surveyor generals of the various mining states may be had on application to the surveyor general's office.
293. Surface monuments. The surface monuments of a mine that is to be worked for any length of time should be of a permanent character. At least two of them should be located near the entrance to the mine, and these two should be particularly permanent, for use in connecting the underground and surface surveys. These may be auxiliary monuments located for the express purpose of connecting the two surveys. They may be built of stone or brick, with a properly centered copper bolt to mark the exact spot. The bolt may be removable for the purpose of substituting a signal. These monuments must be constructed with a view to being proof
against disturbance by frost, or travel, or by the operations about the mine. A true north and south line permanently monumented is perhaps the best base for all surveys.

## UNDERGROUND SURVEYS.

294. General statement. Underground surveys consist of traversing, leveling, and sometimes measuring volumes. The necessary traverses are run to determine the location of the various portions of the mine, so that a map or a plan of the mine can be made. Leveling is done to determine the relative elevations of the different parts of the mine, the grade of the tunnels or drifts, the direction and amount of dip of the vein, etc. The quantity of ore mined is sometimes determined by measuring the volume excavated in the mine, and the measurement of the quantity of ore "in sight" is usually by the volumetric method. The ore mined is usually measured by weight after it is brought out of the mine.

The only differences between underground and surface surveys are due to the difficulties encountered in working in dark, cramped passages. These necessitate certain modifications in surface methods to make them applicable to underground work.
295. Definitions. The following are a few definitions of technical terms used in mining. ${ }^{1}$ There are many others that the mining surveyor must know.

Shaft. A pit sunk from the surface.
Adit. A nearly horizontal passage from the surface, by which a mine is entered and through which the water that collects in it is removed. In the United States an adit is usually called a tunnel, though the latter, strictly speaking, passes entirely through a hill, and is open at both ends.

Drift. A horizontal passage underground. A drift follows the vein, as distinguished from a cross-cut, which intersects it, or a level or gallery, which may do either.

Level. A horizontal passage or drift into or in a mine. It

[^51]is customary to work mines by levels at regular intervals in depth, numbered in their order below the adit or drainage level.

Cross-cut. A level driven across the course of a vein.
Winze. An interior shaft, usually connecting two levels.
Strike. The direction ${ }^{1}$ of a horizontal line, drawn in the middle plane of a vein or stratum, not horizontal.

Dip. The inclination of a vein or stratum below the horizontal. The dip is necessarily at right angles ${ }^{2}$ with the strike or course, and its inclination is steeper than that of any other line drawn in the plane of the vein or stratum.

Pitch. The inclination of a vein, or of the longer axis of an ore body.

Incline or Slope. A shaft not vertical; usually on the dip of a vein.

Stope. To excavate ore in a vein by driving horizontally upon it a series of workings, one immediately over the other, or vice versa. Each horizontal working is called a stope (probably a corruption of step), because when a number of them are in progress, each working face being a little in advance of the next above or below, the whole face under attack assumes the shape of a flight of steps. The process is called overhand stoping, when the first stope is begun at a lower corner of the body of ore to be moved, and, after it has advanced a convenient distance, the next is commenced above it, and so on. When the first stope begins at an upper corner, and the succeeding ones are below it, it is underhand stoping. The term "stoping" is loosely applied to any subterranean extraction of ore except that which is incidentally performed in sinking shafts, driving levels, etc., for the opening of the mine.
296. Location and form of station marks. In underground work, stations can not be stakes driven in the floor of the mine. The reasons are obvious. Where the roof is solid rock, holes may be drilled in it and wooden plugs inserted, in which may be driven a nail or tack. A good form is a horseshoe nail with flattened head, in which is cut a triangular hole with an apex of the triangle toward the head end of the nail. Such a nail

[^52]driven in the roof insures that a plumb line suspended from it will always hang from the same point. A small round opening about one eighth inch in diameter is preferred by some. When the roof is soft and the drift timbered, temporary stations may consist of nails driven in the timbers. It is probably better in such cases to reference the station by two points on the side of the drift. If the two points are properly located, and the distance from the vertical through the station to each of them is recorded, the station may be recovered at any time.

When about to occupy a station, transfer it to the floor with a plumb line and set there a temporary mark consisting of a piece of slate with a cross scratched on it, or a small metallic cone carried for the purpose. Stations underground should be plainly marked. White paint is good if kept bright. The stations in a mine should be consecutively numbered, and the same number should not be used twice. They should be numbered at the station points as well as in the notebook. Probably as good a way to do this as any is to drive roundheaded nails or tacks in the timbering near the station, locating them all in the same position relative to the station. The tacks may be driven in a small board or plug fastened to the side of the drift near the station. The nails are arranged to give the number of the station, thus $::$ for $32 \pm$ and $: 0:$ for 302 , a washer being used for the 0 . Practically this method was followed in the New Almaden mine in California. The nail heads can be felt and read, even though not clearly visible.

As the mine is extended and new stations are added, they should receive their proper numbers and be permanently located. There is no branch of surveying where method and system count for so much as in mine surveys.
297. Instruments used. For all angle work in mine surveys, except the location of short tortuous passages, the transit is the only suitable instrument. The work must be done with great precision. Results need not be so precise, perhaps, as in high class city work, but a precision of one in five thousand should certainly be secured. It is best to use azimuths and perform the traverses as already described under traversing with the transit.

The transit should be a complete transit or tachymeter, so that leveling may be done either directly or by vertical angles. The vertical angle method is the better ordinarily, as it saves much time in the mine. The tripod should be either short or adjustable in length. A diagonal eyepiece is desirable for pointings at high inclinations. The wires are made visible by means of a reflector described in Art. 90, or by a hollow axis and reflector within the telescope. Often enough light is secured by having an assistant flash a candle near the objective. It is sometimes necessary to point upward or downward at a considerable inclination, as when an incline is to be traversed. Pointing up is accomplished by means of an auxiliary diagonal eyepiece, but pointing down can not be done when the angle is so great that the line of sight cuts the plates of the instrument.

Various devices have been invented to overcome this difficulty. Sometimes an auxiliary telescope is mounted above, and parallel with, the main telescope of the transit, as in Fig. 150. In some transits, the auxiliary telescope is mounted on the end of the horizontal axis, as in Fig. 151. Some transits are made with the standards leaning forward far enough to permit the line of sight to clear the


Fig. 150. plates when turned vertical. Others are made with double standards, one as usual, and one bracketed to the ordinary standards. The telescope is made so as to be readily changed from one bearing to the other. If the side telescope is used, the transit should be set over a point to one side of the station occupied, or the line of collimation of the auxiliary telescope should be directed to a point as much to one side of the true station as the auxiliary telescope is to one side of the main telescope. This is conveniently done by having the object sighted to, as a candle, fastened to a flag at the proper distance from it. The flag is held on the true station.


Fig. 15 1.

For tortuous passages in which a transit can not be set up, so crooked that one end can not be seen from the other, resort is had to what is sometimes called a German dial, and a hanging clinometer. One of the best forms of the dial is shown in Fig. 152. ${ }^{1}$

The compass is hung on a wire or line stretched from one station to the next, and as it levels itself like a mariner's compass, it may be properly read. The bearings are not depended on, but angles are read. Passages so tortuous as to require the use of such methods are not usually of great length, and the resulting errors are small. They are not likely to occur in coal mines, but occur frequently in quicksilver mines, and sometimes in gold and silver mines. Coal mines usually


Fig. 152. involve fewer irregularities of alignment than any other class of mines.

The linear measurements are made with a steel tape. In some cases of long, straight drifts, a long tape, two hundred feet, or three hundred feet, may be used to advantage; but usually a tape either fifty feet or one hundred feet long is best. The tape should be as long as possible, and no more stations should be used than seem necessary. It is very necessary to expedite work in a mine, because mining work in a drift must be largely suspended while the survey is in progress. The flat wire tapes are best for mine work, since they are not so easily broken as the ribbon tapes. A pocket tape, graduated to hundredths of feet, may be carried for the necessary plus measurements at stations.

If a level rod is used, it must be a short rod. Bench marks are best placed on the side of the drifts where they will not be disturbed.
298. Devices for making stations visible. The object observed at a station is usually a plumb line made visible by holding a piece of oiled paper or milk glass behind it and a candle behind the transparency. The plumb line may be illu-

[^53]minated by holding a light in front of it, shielded from the observer.

Another method is to sight the flame of a candle or lamp, properly centered over the station. Another way is to use


Fig. 153. a plummet lamp, which is a lamp made in the form of a plummet. Perhaps the neatest method, at least in coal mines, is to use a second and third tripod on which can be mounted a target lamp, such as is shown in Fig. 153. The lamp is behind the target from the observer, and the target may be accurately centered over the station point. The target and "transit are interchangeable on the tripods, the particular form shown being used with a special transit that is interchangeable above the leveling screws. The method of use is somewhat as follows: The back station is occupied by a target, as is also the forward station, and that at which the observation is to be made is occupied by the transit. When the observation is complete, the tripod at the back station is carried to the next forward station, the others remaining in place. The back lamp is placed on the tripod that was occupied by the transit while the latter is being carried to the tripod occupied by the previous forward lamp, which in turn is carried to the next forward station. The lamps should neither of them be moved till the observations at the station occupied by the
transit are complete. This is a very expeditious method of work. ${ }^{1}$

The entire angular work may be done first, and the linear measurements made afterward, or vice versa, or the two may be carried on at the same time. The latter method will probably consume more of the miner's time, since the linear work would retard the angle work. The linear work may be carried on without seriously interfering with the work of the mine. The extent or character of the work will guide the surveyor in choosing his methods. When lateral drifts depart at frequent intervals from one long tunnel or drift, the stations at the angle points of the main drift should be first located and the substations to be used in running the lateral drifts should be set in the line of the main drift. This may be done at the time the angles of the main drift are measured. In this case, the angle work should be done first.

When an extensive survey of a mine is to be made, the surveyor should go through the mine and lay out his programme of work as closely as may be. It will almost always be possible to mark out the main stations before taking the transit into the mine, or at least before setting it up.
299. Notes. In an underground traverse in which notes are to be taken at intervals along each course to objects on the sides, a good form is as follows: Prepare the page of the notebook by ruling a column down the center, in which to write distances and azimuths, and leave the sides to note the objects measured to, and such other information as need be recorded. The form would be similar to that shown on page 229 , except that the column for distances would also contain the azimuths and would be in the middle of the page instead of at one side. Notes taken on the right of a line that is run out should be noted on the right of the column, and those taken on the left should be recorded on the left.

[^54]A line should be drawn across the page between each two courses.

For the purpose of computation of latitudes and longitudes, the azimuths and distances may be copied in more compact form in the office notebook.

If elevations are carried by vertical angles, a good form is that given in Art. 127 for traversing with the transit and stadia, with sufficient vertical space given each course to write the details of the line along the side or right-hand page under remarks. The center line up the middle of the right-hand page may be used to represent the transit line, and the objects may be sketched to scale on this page. There should always be two sets of notes in existence, kept in different places, and when not in use they should be stored in fire-proof vaults.

## CONNECTING SURFACE AND UNDERGROUND WORK.

300. When the mine is entered by a tunnel. In order that the underground workings may be plotted with reference to the surface lines, or even so that they may be properly oriented, it is necessary to connect the underground surveys with those on the surface. The simplest case occurs when the mine is entered by an adit or drift. From a point in the surface survey, located conveniently for the purpose, run a traverse into the drift.
301. When there are two shafts. If the mine is entered by shafts, and there are two or more of these some distance apart, the surface and underground surveys are connected by running a traverse on the surface and another underground between the shafts. The azimuth of the line joining the shafts is computed from the surface survey; and that of the same line underground, from the underground survey, a zero azimuth being assumed for this purpose. The two computed azimuths will differ by the angle between the true zero and the assumed zero, and the assumed underground azimuths may be corrected accordingly. The precise points at the shafts are made the same by using plumb lines. In deep shafts the lines are best made of piano wire, and the plummet must weigh from ten to twenty-five pounds.

The line is first lowered with a light bob, and the heavy one is attached at the bottom. The line may be lowered by a reel. Signals may be given for lowering or raising by tapping on the guides or pipes in the shaft. Wherever possible, this is an excellent method, since small errors of position of the bobs are not multiplied.

Another method, that may be applied in shallow mines, is to use the transit and auxiliary telescope, either setting the points in the bottom in line with a given line on top, or setting the transit in the bottom by trial, so that the line of collimation may be in line with a surface line. Perhaps a better way than the latter is to set the transit on the bottom and, with the horizontal motion clamped, set two points in a line on opposite sides of the shaft at the surface, which line is produced into the mine as the first course of the traverse. The points located on the surface are afterward connected with the surface survey. This method of using the transit and auxiliary telescope is adapted only to shallow shafts that are tolerably free from smoke. The better method is that using the plummets. Work may be carried from one level to another through winzes and air shafts by the same method. As high vertical angles occur in this work, double centering is an absolute essential to correct work.

Levels are carried down the shafts by measuring with a steel tape, or, what is the same thing, by lowering a weighted wire and then measuring the wire. If the tape is used, and is shorter than the shaft, it is first hung on a nail near the surface, the elevation of the nail being determined by leveling. The reel and observers are then slowly lowered in the cage until the tape is all paid out, when a second nail is driven at a measured distance from the first. A piece of white cloth is fastened to this second nail, to make it visible; and the cage is raised, the tape unhooked, the cage again lowered to the second nail, and the operation repeated from there down. A nail is left for a bench mark opposite each level.
302. When the mine is entered by one shaft. To connect a surface survey with an underground survey through a single
deep shaft is the most difficult task the mining surveyor will encounter. If the mine is of small extent and the shaft shallow, it may be done with the transit and auxiliary telescope, as already described under the preceding article. But if the shaft is deep, it can not be done this way. The method is to use two plumb lines. The utmost care is necessary in their use, for from a base line from six to twelve feet long must be produced a survey one or two or more miles long. It may be necessary to drive a second shaft a mile or two distant, and it must be driven to meet an underground drift. An error of one tenth of an inch in a base line ten feet long will cause a shaft two miles distant to be driven nearly nine feet out of place. Two methods of using two plumb lines have given satisfactory results.
(1) In Fig. 154, $M$ and $M^{\prime}$ are surface monuments, and $A B$


Fig. 154. the two plumb lines. The distance $A B$ is carefully measured, and the distance $M A$ and $M B$ and the angles at $M$. The azimuth of $A B$ is then determined. $\quad T$ is the transit set in the mine below. The angles at $T$, and the distances $A T$ and $B T$ are measured. The triangle $T A B$ is then solved, from which the azimuth of $T D$ becomes known.
(2) This method is probably not so good as the second, which consists in suspending the plumb lines so that the transit may be set up in line with them below. The difficulty in all this work is that the plumb lines are never still, but continually oscillate. The mean position of the line is best determined by placing a fine scale behind it and noting the amplitude of the vibrations. The transit is pointed to the
mean position. The oscillations are not in a straight line, but are more or less elliptical; hence the scale must be .placed a little behind the wire, but should be as close as possible to it, in order to avoid parallax. The transit is set up in the mine as close to the nearest line as possible (this will be from ten to fifteen feet distant), and each line is separately observed and the transit gradually brought by trial into line with the mean positions of both wires. The two plummets should hang in water, or, better, in some more viscous liquid, as oil, or even molasses. The oscillations will be slow, a line three hundred and twenty-five feet long requiring about ten seconds for one complete vibration in air. Of course the cages can not be in use during the operation.

The points from which the bobs are suspended must be as firm as possible and as well defined, so that the line joining them may be connected with the surface surveys. Two transits are really required to insure good work. One is left on the surface with an observer to see that there is no movement of the points of suspension during the operation, and to note what change, if any, takes place. It must be known that the lines do not hang against any projections on the sides of the shaft. This may be told, in some instances, by looking up the shaft; in others, by passing a candle or other light slowly around the wire at the bottom, and observing from the top that it is visible throughout the motion. In case neither method is practicable, a system of movements of the wire may be arranged. When the observer below is ready, he will signal by rapping on the pipes or guides, and the observer above will, at agreed intervals of time, move the wire out one inch, two inches, etc. The observer below notes whether corresponding movements take place there.

On account of the stoppage of machinery this connection of surface and underground surveys is an expensive operation. It should nevertheless, in important cases, be performed several times, and a mean of the results taken for the first course of the underground traverse. When the bottom of the shaft can be seen from the top, a method used at the Severn tunnel will give good results. A wire is stretched from one side of the shaft, about one hundred or more feet into the drift, and accu-
rately aligned for the few feet visible by a transit on the surface. In the case of the Severn tunnel the wire was stretched over horizontal screws, the wire lying in the groove between the threads. The wire was then moved laterally for aligning by turning the screws.

## MAPPING THE SURVEY.

303. Metal mines. Three maps are necessary for a complete representation of a mine with many levels running in different directions - (1) the plan; (2) a longitudinal section ; (3) a transverse section. Such a set of maps is shown in Plate IV. at the back of the book. The notes taken by the surveyor should be such as to enable him to make these three maps. These maps may be in addition to one of the surface survey, and, if so, there would be four maps necessary for a complete representation of a mining property. It is usual to tint the portions shown on the plans as worked, and the different levels are sometimes tinted with different colors to distinguish them. If several lodes are shown on one map, it will be better to color each lode, working with a single color to distinguish it from the other lodes.
304. Coal mines. The representation of a coal mine is usually a simpler matter than the mapping of a metal mine. The coal ordinarily lies in beds nearly horizontal, and the workings may often be represented by a plan alone, the different levels being distinguished by colors, and the elevations being written in. It is customary to show on the map the direction and amount of dip of the seams. There are a number of symbols used to represent various objects; but the practice is not uniform. Arrows may be used to show the direction of air currents, blue for inlets, and red for outlets, etc. The plan should show all the details of the mine, all stop walls, all doors, all sumps or reservoirs, all pumps or machinery, the location of faults, etc.

It is extremely necessary that complete, correct maps should be kept up, so that if any connections are to be made, they may be correctly directed. Very serious accidents have occurred from incorrect maps of mines.
305. Scale. The state of Pennsylvania provides that there shall be kept at each mine a plan on a scale of one to twelve hundred, or one hundred feet per inch, for the use of the state inspector. The English law requires the plan to be on a scale of twenty-five inches per mile, or about one half that required in this country. Other countries require different scales. The maps of the mining claims made by the deputy mineral surveyors are to a scale of two hundred feet to the inch. This would seem to be large enough for working drawings, except for details of structures.

As in the case of notes, two maps should be in existence and kept in different places. A good example of a coal mine map is shown in Plate V. at the back of the book.
306. Problems. The problems that arise in mining surveying call for some ingenuity in handling Trigonometry and Descriptive Geometry, although they may all be solved without a knowledge of the latter subject by name.

Some problems, such as seeking a lost vein, require more the principles of Geology than those of Mathematics.

The commonest problems are the following :
(1) The determination of the course and distance from a point in one compartment of a mine to a point in another compartment. By course is meant azimuth and vertical angle. This includes such problems as the determination of the distance and direction to run a tunnel to tap a shaft.
(2) Knowing the strike and dip of a vein, to determine the length of a shaft or drift started at a given point and run in a given direction to meet the vein, or to determine the direction to run a tunnel from a given point so as to cut the vein in the shortest possible distance, and to find the distance required.

It is believed that the student can solve such problems as are given in the Appendix, page 340, if he remembers that the pitch or dip is always measured in a vertical plane normal to a horizontal element of the vein, and that the strike is the direction of such horizontal element.

$$
\text { R'M'D SURV. }-21
$$

## APPENDIX.

## I. PROBLEMS AND EXAMPLES.

## CHAPTER I.

The problems in the use of the chain may be solved on the blackboard with string and chalk.

1. To range out a line between two points on opposite sides of a lill: Mark the points so that they will be visible from the top of the hill. Two men with range poles then place themselves near the top of the hill, facing each other, so that each can see one end of the line. They then alternately align each other with the visible ends of the line until both are in the line. The same principle is used in "fudging" one's self into line between two distant visible points.
2. To range a line across a deep ravine or valley: The inability to do this by eye alone arises from the fact that the eye can not carry a vertical line on a hillside, nor can it be sure of transferring a point vertically downward, even in level country. The observer stands on one side of the valley, swinging a plummet over a point in the line to be ranged. He places his eye in line with the plumb line and a distant point in the line to be ranged, and, casting his eye down the plumb line, directs the placing of a flag held by an assistant in the valley.
3. 'To erect a perpendicular to a line: A triangle whose sides are in the ratio $4,5,6$, is a right triangle. Hence, fasten one end and the thirty-link division at one poiut in the line and the ten-link division at another point. Carry the eighteen-link division out till the three portions of the chain used form a triangle. If the line is to be erected at a given point, the method will suggest itself to the student.
4. Using the chain and pins in the way a string and pencil or a pair of dividers would be used on the drawing board, perform the above problem in a different way.
5. To drop a perpendicular on a line from a given point: Run an inclined line from the point to the given line, erect a perpendicular to the latter, and produce it till it intersects the inclined line. The required
perpendicular is parallel to the perpendicular erected, and the consideration of the similar figures will enable the student to solve.
6. To run a line parallel to a given line: Erect two equal perpendiculars to the given line. If the parallel is to pass through a given point, drop a perpendicular from the point to the line and erect a perpendicular to this at the point. Otherwise: The diagonals of a parallelogram bisect each other.
7. To measure an angle with a chain: In an isosceles triangle of legs $a$, included angle $A$, and base $b, 2 a \sin \frac{1}{2} A=b$.
8. To lay out a given angle : Reverse the process just suggested.
9. A line is measured with a chain that is afterward found to be one link too long, and is found to be 10.36 chains long. What is its true length?
10. A line is measured with a 100 -foot tape and found to be 723.36 feet long. The tape is afterward found to be 0.02 foot short. What is the true length of the line?
11. A triangular field is measured with a chain that is afterward found to be one link too long. The sides as measured are 6 chains, 4 chains, and 3 chains, respectively. What is the resulting area and what is the true area?
12. An irregular field is measured with a chain three links short. The area is found to be 36.472 acres. What is the true area?
13. A 100 -foot tape is standard length for a pull of 10 pounds, when supported its entire length, and at a temperature of $62^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$. A line is measured and found to be 1000.00 feet long. The tape is of steel, has a cross section of 0.002 square inch, and weighs 0.00052 lb . per inch. In the measurement it is at a temperature of $80^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$., and is unsupported except at the ends. The pull is 25 pounds. What is the true length of the line?
14. A steel tape weighs 0.0061 pounds per lineal foot. It is 100 feet long and is standard for no pull when entirely supported, at $62^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$. It has a cross section of 0.002 square inch. What pull must be exerted to keep the tape standard length if it is supported only at its ends, the temperature remaining unchanged?
15. A line is measured along the surface on a hillside. The first 300 feet has a vertical angle of $3^{\circ}$, the next 250 feet has a vertical angle of $4^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$, and the last 700 feet has a vertical angle of $1^{\circ}$. What is the true length of the line?
16. A similar line, of equal surface lengths, is measured, and the rise per hundred feet of each stretch is found to be respectively 5 feet, 8 feet, and $1 \frac{3}{4}$ feet. What is the true length of the line?
17. Measure a line of about 1000 feet or more in length, at least twice with a chain and twice with a tape, and determine the difference of measurement. Do this, if possible, over two lines of about equal length, but offering very unequal difficulties to measurement, and note the differences.

## CHAPTER III.

1. Determine the angular value of one division of each bubble available in the school collection of levels. The method is in brief as follows: Hold a rod at a known distance; read the rod and bubble with the bubble near one end of its tube, and then read with the bubble near the other end. By the differences of readings and the known distances, determine the value of one division. If there are any striding levels, use these as described for the level with metal base.
2. Other exercises with the level will suggest themselves to the student or teacher. A considerable amount of differential and profile leveling should be done, and profiles drawn. The leveling should always be checked by rerunning in the opposite direction.

## CHAPTER IV.

1. Radiating from a point $A$, are eight lines of bearings as follows :

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
A B, \mathrm{~N} .53^{\circ} 45^{\prime} \mathrm{W} . & A F, \mathrm{~S} .86^{\circ} 45^{\prime} \mathrm{E} . \\
A C, \mathrm{~N} .36^{\circ} 42^{\prime} \mathrm{W} . & A G, \mathrm{~S} .24^{\circ} 36^{\prime} \mathrm{E} . \\
A D, \mathrm{~N} .18^{\circ} 34^{\prime} \mathrm{E} . & A H, \mathrm{~S} .20^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{W} . \\
A E, \mathrm{~N} .34^{\circ} 28^{\prime} \mathrm{E} . & A I, \text { S. } 36^{\circ} 20^{\prime} \mathrm{W} .
\end{array}
$$

Required the angles between the following bracketed lines - always considering the smaller angle:

| $\{A B$ | $-\{A B$ | $\{A B$ | $\{A B$ | $\{A B$ | $\{A B$ | $\{A B$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\{A C$ | ( $A D$ | $\{A E$ | $\{A F$ | $\left\{{ }^{\prime} G\right.$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { AH }\end{array}\right.$ | AI |
| $\{A C$ | $\{A C$ | $\{A C$ | $\{A C$ | $\{A C$ | $\{A C$ |  |
| $\{A D$ | $\{A E$ | $\{A F$ | $\{A G$ | $\{A H$ | $\{A I$ |  |
| \| $A D$ | $\{A D$ | $\{A D$ | $\{A D$ | $\{A D$ |  |  |
| 1 AE | ( $A F$ | $\left\{A^{\prime}\right.$ | $\{\mathrm{AH}$ | \| AI |  |  |
| $\{A E$ | $\{A E$ | $\{A E$ | $\{A E$ |  |  |  |
| $\{A F$ | $\{A G$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { A }\end{array}\right.$ | $\{A I$ |  |  |  |
| $\{A F$ | $\{A F$ | $\{A F$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\{A G$ | $\{A H$ | $\{A I$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\{A G$ | $\{A G$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { A }\end{array}\right.$ | $\{A I$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\left\{\begin{array}{l} A H \\ A I \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |

2. A traverse is run with the following bearings: N. $42^{\circ}$ E., N. $36^{\circ}$ E., S. $1^{\circ}$ W., N. $50^{\circ}$ W. Determine the interior angles. If the traverse is of a closed field, what should be the sum of the interior angles?
3. A traverse is run with the following azimuths, zero azimuth being north : $42^{\circ}, 144^{\circ}, 181^{\circ}, 230^{\circ}$. What are the bearings?
4. Another is run with the following azimuths : $306^{\circ} 15^{\prime}, 18^{\circ} 34^{\prime}, 93^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$, $200^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$. What are the bearings?
5. What are the azimuths of the following lines of Example 1: $A C$, $A E, A G, A I$ ?
6. Determine the exterior or deflection angles in Example 4.
7. Let the eight lines of Example 1 be the first eight consecutive courses of a traverse. Determine the deflection angles.
8. The magnetic declination at a given place is found to be $10^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$. What will be the bearing of the true north? the true south? the true east? the true west?
9. The magnetic declination is $7^{\circ} 10^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. What will be the bearings of the four true cardinal points?
10. A line of an old survey is recorded as N. $18^{\circ}$ E. mag. bear. It now reads N. $16^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ E. What has been the change in declination in direction and amount?
11. A line of an old survey is recorded as N. $36^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ E. mag. bear. It now reads N. $34^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ E., and the magnetic declination is now $10^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. What was the declination at the time of the original survey?
12. A line of an old survey is recorded as N. $36^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ E. mag. bear., and the declination is recorded as having been $10^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. at the time of the survey. The declination is now $12^{\circ} 00^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. What magnetic bearing should the line now show?
13. A line of an old survey is recorded as $\mathrm{S} .26^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ E. mag. bear., declination $10^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. The declination is now $9^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$. What magnetic bearing should be used to retrace the line?
14. The magnetic declination is $10^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$. If the declination vernier is attached to the south side of the compass box, in what direction and by what amount should it be moved so that true bearings may be read by the needle? With sights pointed to the magnetic north, what would the needle read after moving the vernier?
15. A line of an old survey is recorded as N. $30^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ E. mag. bear. The declination is now $4^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$., and the same line reads $\mathrm{N} .30^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. It is desired to set the declination vernier so that the remainder of the survey may be retraced by the recorded bearings. The vernier being attached to the south side of the compass box, what is its movement in amount and direction?
16. Suppose, in the above example, the former bearing had been S. $26^{\circ}$ W., and the present bearing S. $26^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. What would be the movement of the vernier?
17. Is it necessary in the foregoing examples to know the present declination?
18. Determine the angular value of the plate bubbles and the telescope bubble of each transit in the school collection. Do this work as suggested
for the level, and also for the telescope bubble, by the use of the vertical circle.
19. Determine the meridian by an observation on Polaris and by the solar transit, and compare the results.
20. Measure all the angles of a polygon that has been laid out on the ground and note whether they sum up properly.
21. Set over each station in succession and run the polygon as a traverse, using azimuths, and, reoccupying the first station, redetermine the azimuth of the first course from that of the last, and note whether the azimuth found agrees with that first used.

In fairly good transit work, the error in a perimeter of a mile or more should not exceed one minute.
22. The adjustments of the transit should be made by the student.

## CHAPTER V.

1. Determine for the transits in the school collection the value of $\frac{f}{i}$ and $(f+c)$.
2. Reduce the horizontal distances and differences of elevation in the set of notes shown on pages 337-338.

## CHAPTER VI.

Find the error of closure, balance the survey, plot, and compute the areas of the following fields:
Sta. Bearing. Chains.
1.

| A | S. $51^{\circ} 10^{\prime}$ E. | 5.05 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| B | S. $58^{\circ} 10^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. | 4.63 |
| C | N. $29^{\circ} 15^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. | 4.16 |
| D $^{\prime}$ | N. $45^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$. | 2.87 |

Area, $1.676+A$.
2.

| A | N. $84^{\circ} 00^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. | 9.04 |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
| B | S. $21^{\circ} 15^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. | 12.34 |
| C | N. $72^{\circ} 1 \overline{5}^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$. | 12.92 |
| D | N. $9^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ E. | 6.68 |

Area, $9.264+A$.

| 3. | S. $7^{\circ} 25^{\prime}$ W. | 4.35 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | S. $62^{\circ} 05^{\prime}$ W | 6.94 |  |
|  | 2 | N. $2^{\circ} 35^{\prime}$ E. | 4.01 |
|  | 4 | N. $34^{\circ} 25^{\prime}$ E. | 3.64 |
|  | 5 | N. $83^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ E. | 4.51 |

Area, $3.124+A$.

|  | Sta. | Bearing. | Chains. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4. | S. $62^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ E. | 5.12 |  |
|  | 1 | S. $71^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ E. | 4.66 |
|  | 2 | S. $5^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ W. | 12.00 |
|  | 3 | S. $80^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ W. | 12.46 |
|  | 4 | N. $2^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ E. | 9.46 |
|  | 5 | N. $25^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$ E. | 9.40 |
|  | 6 |  | Area, $17.683+A$. |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | Azimuth. |

6. The latitudes and longitudes of a series of points are as follows, measured in chains :
A $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Latitude }+13.63 \\ \text { Longitude }+10.20\end{array}\right.$
$\mathrm{B}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Latitude }+1.26 \\ \text { Longitude }+5.10\end{array}\right.$
$\mathrm{C}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Latitude }-3.30 \\ \text { Longitude }+7.20\end{array}\right.$
$\mathrm{D}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Latitude }-3.30 \\ \text { Longitude - } 6.60\end{array}\right.$
$\mathrm{E}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Latitude + 7.10 } \\ \text { Longitude - } 10.20\end{array}\right.$

Find the area included by the broken line joining the points. (Shift the coördinate axes so that the coördinates are all positive.)
7. The following offsets were taken on the sides of a line indicated, at points 100 feet apart. Required the area between extreme boundaries.

| L. | Dist. | R. |
| ---: | :---: | :---: |
| 137.4 | 0 | 55.1 |
| 93.5 | 100 | 76.5 |
| 49.3 | 200 | 83.3 |
| 78.2 | 300 | 79.9 |
| 102.0 | 400 | 69.7 |
| 100.5 | 500 | 59.5 |
| 96.6 | 600 | 83.3 |
| 144.2 | 700 | 70.5 |
| 111.9 | 800 | 54.4 |
| 71.4 | 900 | 101.2 |
|  |  | Area, 153,085 square feet. |

8. The following offsets were taken on one side of a base line, to determine the area between it and an irregular boundary line. The distances are all from zero:

| Distance, | Offset. |  |
| ---: | ---: | :--- |
| Feet. | Feet. |  |
| 0 | 20.7 |  |
| 202 | 31.5 |  |
| 358 | 42.6 |  |
| 825 | 53.2 |  |
| 984 | 36.1 |  |
| 1223 | 40.7 | Area, $49,698.25$ |
|  |  |  |

9. In Example 1, let it be supposed that the second course is wanting. Supply it.
10. In Example 2, let it be supposed that the bearing of the second course and the length of the third course are wanting. Supply them.
11. In the third example, let it be supposed that the bearings of the second and fourth courses are wanting. Supply them.
12. In the fifth example, let it be assumed that the lengths of the second and fourth courses are wanting. Supply them.
13. The wheel of a planimeter has a circumference of 2.26 inches. What should be the length of tracer that the number of revolutions multiplied by 10 shall give in square inches the area circumscribed?
14. An area is circumscribed by a planimeter with the fixed point inside, and the resulting reading is found to be 11.26 square inches. The area is known to be 120 square inches. What is the area of the zero circumference?

## coördinates. ${ }^{1}$

## Model Example.

1. To determine the coördinates of the corners $A b c d e f$ (Fig. 155) and plot the survey, the corner $e$ and bearing $f e$ being unknown, but point $e^{\prime}$ in prolongation of $f e$ and bearing of $d e$, as well as other corners, known :

Run the random traverse $A B C D E F$. Make a rough sketch of the traverse and place on it lengths of lines and angles measured. (Note that angles and not azimuths or bearings are read. This is careful work where angles are repeated several times, and hence it is impracticable to read azimuths.) Balance the angles so that their sum will be "twice as many right angles less four as the figure has sides," distributing any error equally among the various angles. In the example the angles "close."

[^55]

Fig. 155.

Following a previous survey in this district, assume bearing of $D E$ to be S. $9^{\circ} 31^{\prime}$ E., and compute bearings of remaining lines and place them on the sketch.

Assume coördinates of point $A 200 \mathrm{~N}$. and 100 E . to bring all coördinates positive.

Compute the coördinates of the other corners of the traverse as shown on page 331. The student should note the systematic layout of the work. The error of closure, 0.05 E . and 0.14 N ., is distributed as in balancing a survey, and the balanced coördinates are used in all subsequent work.

Plot the traverse as shown in Fig. 155. Check the plotting by scaling the lengths of the lines.

To locate the property corners;
Corner $A$ is a corner of the random.
Course $A f$ was actually run on the ground.
Calculate from the recorded angles the bearings of the lines joining random corners and true corners, and compute the latitude and longitude differences of these lines, and from these the coördinates of the corners. They will be found to be:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b, 597.42 \mathrm{E} ., 282.05 \mathrm{~N} . \\
& c, 585.10 \mathrm{E} ., 353.95 \mathrm{~N} . \\
& d, 881.69 \mathrm{E} ., 403.66 \mathrm{~N} . \\
& f, \\
& f, \\
& \hline
\end{aligned}
$$

The computations are systematically arranged as follows, the computations for $c, d$, and $f$, being shown:


By Prob. 1, Art. 143, find the length and bearing of the courses the coördinates of whose ends are known. They will be found to be as indicated on the figure. The arrangement of the work for a single course is shown on page 332 .
$+200.00 \mathrm{~N}$.


+100.00 E . $\qquad$
 $+$
 .

Coördinates of $A$
N. $80^{\circ} 52^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$.
515.63

Coördinates of $B$
N. $8^{\circ} 27^{\prime} 00^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$.
48.19
Coördinates of $C$
N. $75^{\circ} 41^{\prime} 00^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$.
300.53
Coördinates of $D$
S. $9^{\circ} 31^{\prime} 00^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$.
183.60
Coördinates of $E$
S. $79^{\circ} 01^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$.
819.96
Coördinates of $F$
N. $7^{\circ} 54^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$.
134.85
Coördinates of $A$
Error $~ . ~ . ~ . ~$

| cd 353.95 | 585.10 |
| :---: | :---: |
| 403.66 | 881.69 |
| 49.71 | $\overline{296.59}$ |
| 1.696444 |  |
| 12.472156 | N. $80^{\circ} 29^{\prime} 07^{\prime \prime}$ E. |
| 9.224288 | $\tan 9^{\circ} 30^{\prime} 53^{\prime \prime}$ |
| $\checkmark 9.993984$ | cos do. |
| 2.478172 | 300.73 |

To find the corner $e$ find the coorrdinates of $e^{\prime}$, then the bearing of $e^{\prime} f$ by Prob. I., Art. 143. The bearing of $d e$ is known to be S. $9^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ E. By Prob. II., Art. 143, find the coördinates of $e$, the intersection of $d e$ and $f e^{\prime}$. The quantities found appear on the sketch. Prob. II. is arranged thus :

|  | $403.66 \mathrm{~N}$ | $881.69 \text { E. }$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 70.33 N . | 118.59 |  |
|  | 333.33 | 763.10 |  |
|  | 2.522874 |  |  |
|  | $\dagger 2.882581$ | N. $66^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime}$ E. |  |
|  | 9.640293 | $23^{\circ} 35^{\prime} 46^{\prime \prime}$ |  |
|  | - 9.962081 |  |  |
|  | 2.920500 |  | 2.920500 |
| $75^{\circ} 48^{\prime} 44^{\prime \prime}$ | 9.986547 | $13^{\circ} 49^{\prime} 04^{\prime \prime}$ | 9.378097 |
| $89^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 48^{\prime \prime}$ | 0.000009 |  | 0.000009 |
|  | 2.907056 |  | 2.398606 |
|  | 807.34 ef |  | 198.88 |

From the length and bearing of $d e$ and coördinates of $d$ find coördinates of $e$, and from coördinates of $e$ and $f$ find bearing of $f e$.

Plot the three corners as the randoms. In close work it is best to use seconds, but on the final map the nearest half minute may be recorded. Minutes and tenths will serve as well as minutes and seconds.

If the area is required, it is obtained as follows, making the computations by logaritnms. The work is here carried to a needless number of decimals.

$200.00 \times 597.42=119484.0000$
$282.05 \times 585.10=165027.4550$
$353.95 \times 881.69=312074.1755$
$403.66 \times 914.20=369025.9720$
$207.46 \times 118.59=24602.6814$
$70.33 \times 100.00=\frac{7033.0000}{997247.2839}$
$100.00 \times 282.05=28205.0000$
$597.42 \times 353.95=211456.8090$
$585.10 \times 403.66=236181.4660$
$881.69 \times 207.46=182915.4074$
$914.20 \times 70.33=64295.6860$
$118.59 \times 200.00=\frac{23718.0000}{746772.3684}$
746772.3684
$250474.9155 \div 2=125237.4577$ square feet $=2.875$ acres.

## Examples.

1. In Fig. 155 determine whether the line $f d$ passes to the north or south of the corner $b$; and how far $b$ is from $f d$, measured on a line at right angles to $f d$.
2. In Fig. 156 the line $A B C D E F$ represents a portion of a survey which has been made to locate a street or railroad. It has been decided to connect the lines $A B$ and $E F$ by a circular curve of radius 716.779 feet, and it is required to find how far from $B$ the curve will start and how far from $E$ it will end. The method in outline is as follows: Assume coördinates for

the point $B$, and by means of the connecting courses work up coördinates for the point E. By Problem I., Art. 143, find the bearing of $B E$ and the logarithm of its length. Then by Problem II. find the distances from $B$ and from $E$ to the intersection $I$ of $A B$ and $E F$ produced. Then the radius multiplied by the tangent of $\frac{1}{2}$ the angle $G O H$, which angle is equal to the angle at $I$, gives the "tangent distance" $H I$, and this subtracted from $I B$ and from $I E$ gives the required distances $G B$ and $I I E$.
3. Fig. 157 illustrates the location of two piers, $B$ and $C$, for the approach to a bridge. The piers were on a curve and were located by the usual method of running railway curves, the necessary deflections and
 distances being shown in the figure. As the points $B$ and $C$ would have to be removed during

the construction of the piers, it became necessary to so "reference" them that they could easily and quickly be recovered at any time. This was done by placing two or more points on the radial lines through the centers of the piers, since the intersections of these lines with the lines $A B$ and $A C$ would determine the points $B$ and $C$. If the ground had been solid, the instrument could have been set at $B$ and at $C$, and, by turning off the proper angles from
$A$, the radial lines $B O$ and $C O$ could easily have been established. This, however, it was impossible to do, as the ground was so swampy as to render the instrument too unsteady for good work. The following method was therefore adopted: Beginning at $A$, a random traverse Abcf was run on firm ground, and the angles and distances were measured as shown. The distances from $b$ and from $c$ at which the radial lines $B O$ and $C O$ would intersect this traverse were then calculated, points were set at $e$ and $d$, and the angles $b e B$ and $c d C$ were measured to see whether their actual and calculated values agreed. This having been done, the instrument was set at $e$ and at $d$, and by backsighting on $B$ and $C$ and reversing, any mumher of points could be established on the radial lines $B O$ and $C O$. The points $B$ and $C$ are thus referenced. The problem for the student is therefore to calculate the distances be and $c d$. It will be well to use the tangent $A X$ as a meridian and to make the coordinates of $A 00 N$ and 00 E . (Problem II., Fig. 157.


Fig. 158.
4. From the data given on Fig. 158 calculate the depths $a c$ and $b d$ of lot number 4.

Center
Radius $=240.00$

## CHAPTER VIII.

1. A $4^{\circ}$ curve begins at station $36+50$, and the central angle is $16^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$. Tabulate the deflection angles from the P.C. to the several stations and determine the station of the P. T.
2. In the above example what is the tangent distance? the external distance? the long chord? the middle ordinate?
3. In the above example what is the true length of the circular are?
4. Two tangents intersect at station $182+75$, with a deflection angle of $26^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$. It is required to connect them with a $3^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ curve. What will be the station of the P. C. and, if the station numbering is changed to read around the curve instead of along the tangents, what will be the station of the P. T.? (The stationing usually reads along the curve.)
5. Tabulate the deflections to each station on the curve.
6. It is required to connect the tangents named in Example 4 by a curve that shall pass approximately 39 feet inside the vertex. What degree curve should be used, and what will be the station of P. C. and P. T.?
7. A $24^{\circ}$ curve is to be located by 25 -foot chords. What is the correct deflection for each chord?
8. If the $24^{\circ}$ curve is to be so located that four chord lengths shall cover the are subtended by a 100 -foot chord, what is the length of each chord and what the deflection?
9. A $4^{\circ}$ curve begins at station $376+50$, and at station 381 is compounded to a $6^{\circ}$ curve which ends at station $387+25$. It is required to find the central angle of each arc, the total central angle, and the two tangent distances P. C. to intersection, and intersection to P. T.
10. Find all the offsets necessary to lay out a $3^{\circ}$ curve, with the chain alone, by offsets from the chord produced; the curve beginning at station $367+30$ and ending at station $372+60$.
11. What is the degree of the curve shown in Fig. 156? That shown in Fig. 157?

## CHAPTER IX.

1. By leveling, the elevations given in the following table were found at the points indicated. The tract is in the form of a square six hundred feet on a side and divided into one-hundred-foot squares. Draw the map to a scale of 100 feet per inch, locating five-foot contours.

| Station. | Elevation. | Station. | Elevation. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{A}_{0}$ | 153.0 | $\mathrm{B}_{0}$ | 154.5 |
| $\mathrm{A}_{1}$ | 155.5 | $\mathrm{B}_{1}$ | 159.6 |
| $\mathrm{A}_{2}$ | 158.0 | $\mathrm{B}_{2}$ | 163.7 |
| $\mathrm{A}_{3}$ | 158.5 | $\mathrm{B}_{3}$ | 166.5 |
| $\mathrm{A}_{4}$ | 156.4 | $\mathrm{B}_{4}$ | 165.5 |
| $\mathrm{A}_{3}$ | 152.8 | $\mathrm{B}_{5}$ | 156.0 |
| $\mathrm{A}_{6}$ |  |  | 155.5 |
| $\mathrm{C}_{0}$ | 155.4 | $\mathrm{D}_{0}$ | 155.3 |
| $\mathrm{C}_{1}$ | 162.1 | $\mathrm{D}_{0}+80$ | 160.5 |
| $\mathrm{C}_{2}$ | 169.0 | $\mathrm{D}_{1}$ | 160.0 |
| $\mathrm{C}_{3}$ | 173.7 | $\mathrm{D}_{2}$ | 170.2 |
| $\mathrm{C}_{3}+50$ | 175.5 | $\mathrm{D}_{3}$ | 180.1 |
| $\mathrm{C}_{4}$ | 170.4 | $\mathrm{D}_{3}+50$ | 192.2 |
| $\mathrm{C}_{4}+20$ | 166.0 | $\mathrm{D}_{4}$ | 178.5 |
| $\mathrm{C}_{4}+60$ | 167.0 | $\mathrm{D}_{5}$ | 168.7 |
| C $\mathrm{C}_{6}$ | 164.8 159.4 | $\mathrm{D}_{6}$ | 161.5 |
| $\mathrm{E}_{0}$ | 158.2 | $\mathrm{F}_{0}$ | 157.5 |
| $\mathrm{E}_{1}$ | 164.2 | $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ | 162.3 |
| $\mathrm{E}_{2}$ | 168.8 | $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ | 165.5 |
| $\mathrm{E}_{3}$ | 175.0 | $\mathrm{F}_{2}+50$ | 166.0 |
| $\mathrm{E}_{3}+20$ | 176.0 | $\mathrm{F}_{3}$ | 165.5 |
| $\mathrm{E}_{3}+60$ | 172.5 | $\mathrm{F}_{3}+50$ | 164.0 |
| $\mathrm{E}_{4}$ | 172.5 | $\mathrm{F}_{4}$ | 164.9 |
| $\mathrm{E}_{5}$ | 166.0 | $\mathrm{F}_{5}$ | 163.1 |
| $\mathrm{E}_{6}$ | 161.5 | $\mathrm{F}_{6}$ | 158.5 |
| $\mathrm{G}_{0}$ | 154.5 | $\mathrm{G}_{3}+40$ | 155.5 |
| $\mathrm{G}_{1}$ | 159.6 | $\mathrm{G}_{4}$ | 159.0 |
| $\mathrm{G}_{2}$ | 161.0 | $\mathrm{G}_{5}$ | 157.5 |
| $\mathrm{G}_{3}$ | 159.5 | $\mathrm{G}_{6}$ | 155.0 |
| $0_{c}+50$ | 154.0 | $3_{D}+15$ | 181.8 |
| $2_{D}+40$ | 167.5 | $4_{B}+75$ | 170.8 |
| $3{ }_{C}+80$ | 182.0 | $4{ }^{\prime}+10$ | 170.0 |

2. Plot a contour map with five-foot contours from the following notes of a stadia survey, all pointings being taken from one position.

Inst. at $\square^{\circ}$ on Summit of Brown's Hill.
Zero Az. $=$ Mag. North. Elev. $\biguplus_{\circ}$ assumed 100.00 .

| Station. | Azimuth. | Dist. | Vert. $\angle$ Diff. Elev. Eleiv. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | $357^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | 1025 | $-2^{\circ} 12^{\prime}$ | 40.0 | 60.0 |
| 2. In ravine running $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { northerly. }\end{array}\right\}$ | $355^{\circ} 10^{\prime}$ | 885 | $-2^{\circ} 28^{\prime}$ | 38.0 | 62.0 |
| 3. | $3{ }^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ | 860 | $-2^{\circ} 20^{\prime}$ | 34.8 | 65.2 |
| 4. In ravine running $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { northerly. }\end{array}\right\}$ | $1^{\circ} 25^{\prime}$ | 720 | $-2^{\circ} 47^{\prime}$ | 35.0 | 65.0 |
| 5. | $15^{\circ} 40^{\prime}$ | 635 | $-2^{\circ} 42^{\prime}$ | 30.0 | 70.0 |
| 6. | $26^{\circ} 50^{\prime}$ | 985 | $-1^{\circ} 58^{\prime}$ | 33.8 | 66.2 |
| 7. | $30^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | 1175 | $-1^{\circ} 48^{\prime}$ | 37.0 | 63.0 |
| 8. | $42^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | 1370 | $-1^{\circ} 42^{\prime}$ | 40.5 | 59.5 |
| 9. | $48^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ | 1120 | $-1^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$ | 34.2 | 65.7 |
| 10. | $35^{\circ} 20^{\prime}$ | 730 | $-2^{\circ} 5^{\prime}$ | 28.7 | 71.3 |
| 11. | $52^{\circ} 50^{\prime}$ | 825 | $-2^{\circ} 08^{\prime}$ | 30.7 | 69.3 |
| 12. In ravine running $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { northerly. }\end{array}\right\}$ | $17^{\circ} 10^{\prime}$ | 460 | $-3^{\circ} 26^{\prime}$ | 27.5 | 72.5 |
| 13. | $26^{\circ} 55^{\prime}$ | 420 | $-3^{\circ} 25^{\prime}$ | 25.0 | 75.0 |
| 14. | $50^{\circ} 05^{\prime}$ | 470 | $-2^{\circ} 54^{\prime}$ | 23.7 | 76.3 |
| 15. | $71^{\circ} 55^{\prime}$ | 960 | $-2^{\circ} 03^{\prime}$ | 34.2 | 65.8 |
| 16. | $72^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ | 715 | $-2^{\circ} 24^{\prime}$ | 30.0 | 70.0 |
| 17. | $59^{\circ} 35^{\prime}$ | 340 | $-3^{\circ} 22$ | 20.0 | 80.0 |
| 18. | $30^{\circ} 35^{\prime}$ | 230 | $-4^{\circ} 47$ | 19.0 | 81.0 |
| 19. | $5^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | 135 | $-6^{\circ} 26^{\prime}$ | 15.0 | 85.0 |
| 20. | $48^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ | 140 | $-4^{\circ} 52^{\prime}$ | 11.8 | 88.2 |
| 21. | $86^{\circ} 35^{\prime}$ | 85 | $-6^{\circ} 48^{\prime}$ | 10.0 | 90.0 |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { 22. Head of ravine run- } \\ \text { ning easterly. }\end{array}\right\}$ | $94^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ | 235 | $-4^{\circ} 56^{\prime}$ | 20.0 | 80.0 |
| 23. | $82^{\circ} 25^{\prime}$ | 290 | $-3^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$ | 19.0 | 81.0 |
| 24. | $81^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ | 545 | $-2^{\circ} 49^{\prime}$ | 26.8 | 73.2 |
| 25. In ravine. | $95^{\circ} 05^{\prime}$ | 490 | $-3^{\circ} 16^{\prime}$ | 28.0 | 72.0 |
| 26. " " | $90^{\circ} 35^{\prime}$ | 655 | $-2^{\circ} 50^{\prime}$ | 32.5 | 67.5 |
| 27. " " | $89^{\circ} 05^{\prime}$ | 835 | $-2^{\circ} 32^{\prime}$ | 37.0 | 63.0 |
| 28. " " | $91^{\circ} 10^{\prime}$ | 905 | $-2^{\circ} 27^{\prime}$ | 38.8 | 61.2 |
| 29. | $102^{\circ} 55^{\prime}$ | 860 | $-2^{\circ} 18^{\prime}$ | 34.5 | 65.5 |
| 30. | $118^{\circ} 10^{\prime}$ | 1020 | $-2^{\circ} 07^{\prime}$ | 37.5 | 62.5 |
| 31. | $130^{\circ} 50^{\prime}$ | 1185 | $-1^{\circ} 57$ | 40.0 | 60.0 |
| 32. | $147^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ | 860 | $-2^{\circ} 12^{\prime}$ | 33.0 | 67.0 |
| 33. | $147^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ | 580 | $-2^{\circ} 43^{\prime}$ | 27.5 | 72.5 |
| 34. | $124^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ | 690 | $-2^{\circ} 32^{\prime}$ | 30.5 | 69.5 |
| 35. | $143^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ | 365 | $-3^{\circ} 33^{\prime}$ | 22.6 | 77.4 |

## APPENDIX.

Station. Azimuth. Dist. Vert. $\angle$ Diff. Elev. Elev.

| 36. | $118^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$ | 420 | $-3{ }^{\circ} 14^{\prime}$ | 23.7 | 76.3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 37. | $130^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ | 125 | $-5^{\circ} 33^{\prime}$ | 12.0 | 88.0 |
| 38. | $194^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | 140 | $-7^{\circ} 30$ | 18.0 | 82.0 |
| 39. | $168^{\circ} 50^{\prime}$ | 755 | $-2^{\circ} 28^{\prime}$ | 32.5 | 67.5 |
| 40. | $191^{\circ} 55^{\prime}$ | 615 | $-2^{\circ} 49^{\prime}$ | 30.4 | 69.6 |
| 41. | $191^{\circ} 5 .{ }^{\prime}$ | 315 | $-3^{\circ} 58^{\prime}$ | 21.8 | 78.2 |
| 42. | $219^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$ | 340 | $-4^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | 23.6 | 76.4 |
| 43. In ravine running southwesterly. $\}$ | $229^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ | 425 | $-4^{\circ} 05^{\prime}$ | 30.0 | 70.0 |
| 44. In ravine running $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { southwesterly. }\end{array}\right\}$ | $232^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ | 710 | $-3^{\circ} 01^{\prime}$ | 37.5 | 62.5 |
| 45. | $223^{\circ} 25^{\prime}$ | 640 | $-3^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | 33.7 | 66.3 |
| 46. | $203^{\circ} 35^{\prime}$ | 835 | $-2^{\circ} 25^{\prime}$ | 35.2 | 64.8 |
| 47. In ravine. | $229^{\circ} 35^{\prime}$ | 945 | $-2^{\circ} 31^{\prime}$ | 41.5 | 58.5 |
| 48. | $224^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ | 1025 | $-2^{\circ} 21^{\prime}$ | 42.0 | 58.0 |
| 49. In ravine. | $229^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ | 1185 | $-2^{\circ} 13^{\prime}$ | 46.0 | 54.0 |
| 50. | $343^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | 960 | $-2^{\circ} 12^{\prime}$ | 37.0 | 63.0 |
| 51. | $331{ }^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | 1180 | $-1^{\circ} 59^{\prime}$ | 40.5 | 59.5 |
| 52. | $320^{\circ} 05^{\prime}$ | 1350 | $-1^{\circ} 52^{\prime}$ | 44.0 | 56.0 |
| 53. | $315^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ | 1115 | $-2^{\circ} 01^{\prime}$ | 38.9 | 61.1 |
| 54. | $326^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ | 780 | $-2^{\circ} 22^{\prime}$ | 32.2 | 67.8 |
| 55. | $343^{\circ} 20^{\prime}$ | 440 | $-3^{\circ} 16^{\prime}$ | 25.2 | 74.8 |
| 56. | $300^{\circ} 05^{\prime}$ | 795 | $-2^{\circ} 20^{\prime}$ | 32.5 | 67.5 |
| 57. | $287^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ | 930 | $-1^{\circ} 58^{\prime}$ | 31.8 | 68.2 |
| 58. | $2^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ | 315 | $-4^{\circ} 01^{\prime}$ | 22.0 | 78.0 |
| 59. | $300^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ | 300 | $-305{ }^{\prime}$ | 20.4 | 79.6 |
| 60. | $274{ }^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$ | 770 | $-2^{\circ} 27^{\prime}$ | 33.0 | 67.0 |
| 61. | $276{ }^{\circ} 55^{\prime}$ | 470 | $-2^{\circ} 59^{\prime}$ | 24.5 | 75.5 |
| 62. | $340^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$ | 140 | $-5^{\circ} 43^{\prime}$ | 13.8 | 86.2 |
| 63. | $285^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ | 175 | $-4^{\circ} 37^{\prime}$ | 14.0 | 86.0 |
| 64. | $262^{\circ} 55^{\prime}$ | 275 | $-3051^{\prime}$ | 18.5 | 81.5 |
| 65. Head of ravine | $240^{\circ} 20^{\prime}$ | 225 | -- $5^{\circ} 10^{\prime}$ | 20.0 | 80.0 |
| 66. | $253{ }^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$ | 570 | $-2^{\circ} 49^{\prime}$ | 28.0 | 72.0 |
| 67. | $243^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | 715 | $-2^{\circ} 42^{\prime}$ | 33.8 | 66.2 |
| 68. | $255^{\circ} 55^{\prime}$ | 900 | $-2^{\circ} 25^{\prime}$ | 38.0 | 62.0 |

## CHAPTER X.

1. Assume in Example 1, Chapter IX., that the area shown is to be graded to a plane surface of uniform elevation of 160 feet. Determine the depth of cut or fill at each corner of the small squares and from these the volumes.
2. Determine the volumes by the approximate graphical method, using the planimeter for the areas.

## CHAPTER XI.

The following observations ${ }^{1}$ for rating a Price acoustic current meter were made by Mr. W. G. Price, June 21, 1895, by the method described by him in "Engineering News," Jan. 10, 1895. The student will use the first, fourth, fifth, and sixth columns. The second and third columns will be understood by a reference to the article in "Engineering News." Get the equation for rating the meter.

Rating of Price Acoustic Current Meter No. 4, June 21, 1895.

| No. | 1st Wire. <br> Feet. | 2d Wire. <br> Feet. | Distance. <br> Feet. | Rev. | Time. <br> Seconds. |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | :--- | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | 31.09 | 79.72 | 48.63 | 20 | 24.4 |
| 2 | 24.84 | 74.28 | 48.44 | 20 | 22.4 |
| 3 | 37.50 | 86.32 | 48.82 | 20 | 35.0 |
| 4 | 32.76 | 82.50 | 49.74 | 20 | 56.0 |
| 5 | 26.21 | 76.54 | 50.33 | 20 | 56.0 |
| 6 | 13.61 | 64.21 | 50.60 | 20 | 99.0 |
| 7 | 27.55 | 77.78 | 58.23 | 20 | 94.6 |
| 8 | 13.45 | 62.31 | 48.86 | 20 | 25.0 |
| 9 | 23.28 | 71.27 | 48.09 | 20 | 15.8 |
| 10 | 32.22 | 80.35 | 48.13 | 20 | 10.2 |
| 11 | 27.84 | 76.01 | 48.17 | 20 | 7.4 |
| 12 | 32.08 | 103.95 | 71.87 | 30 | 20.4 |
| 13 | 39.99 | 87.98 | 47.99 | 20 | 6.0 |
| 14 | 35.08 | 82.68 | 47.60 | 20 | 5.8 |
| 15 | 24.20 | 72.84 | $48.64 ?$ | 20 | 6.0 |
| 16 | 38.86 | 86.39 | 47.53 | 20 | 5.8 |
| 17 | 24.67 | 72.47 | 47.80 | 20 | 5.2 |
| 18 | 39.13 | 86.85 | 47.72 | 20 | 5.2 |
| 19 | 35.74 | 83.51 | $47.77+$ | 20 | 11.2 |
| 20 | 20.15 | 67.97 | $47.82+$ | 20 | 11.2 |
| 21 | 30.92 | 79.17 | 48.25 | 20 | 13.4 |
| 22 | 21.86 | 70.30 | 48.44 | 20 | 11.6 |
| 23 | 23.67 | 72.09 | $48.42+$ | 20 | 19.4 |
| 24 | 14.47 | 62.71 | $48.24+$ | 20 | 20.0 |
| 25 | 39.27 | 88.65 | 49.38 | 20 | 32.4 |
| 26 | 46.18 | 85.82 | 49.64 | 20 | 31.4 |
| 27 | 40.82 | 90.57 | 49.75 | 20 | 37.4 |
| 28 | 26.14 | 101.15 | 75.01 | 30 | 64.4 |

The center of the meter wheel was 2.1 feet below the water surface. In Nos. $19,20,23$, and 24 I felt sure the time interval used to start the watch and stop the first wire from passing out, after I had heard the click of the

[^56]meter, was longer than the time consumed for the same purpose at the end of the run. I therefore put a + mark to indicate that the distance was too small. No. 15 was doubtful, as the skiff rocked during the trip. The six columns are an exact copy of the field notes.

## CHAPTER XII.

1. From the following data of the survey of a tunnel and shaft for a connection, determine the azimuth, length, and grade of the connecting drift. First draw a map of the survey and indicate the connecting drift.

From a monument at the mouth of the tunnel run in the tunnel, azimuth $36^{\circ} 30^{\prime}, 436$ feet, vert. $\angle+1^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$; thence azimuth $52^{\circ} 10^{\prime}$, 200 feet, vert. $\angle$ $+1^{\circ} 10^{\prime}$, to point near breast of tunnel.

From the monument at the mouth of the tunnel run on the surface, azimuth $86^{\circ} 30^{\prime}, 232$ feet, vert. $\angle-3^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$; thence azimuth $40^{\circ} 20^{\prime}, 636$ feet, vert. $+13^{\circ} 50^{\prime}$, to center of shaft 110 feet deep.
2. The strike of a vein of ore observed on the point of an outcrop is N. $36^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$. or S. $36^{\circ}$ E. The dip of the vein is found to be $13^{\circ}$ from the vertical and to the northeast (right angle to the strike). From a point which bears from the before-mentioned point of outcrop N. $36^{\circ}$ E. 300 feet, vert. $\angle-15^{\circ}$ a cross-cut tunnel is to be driven level and in a direction S. $55^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$. How long must it be to reach the vein? What will be the difference if the tunnel is run on a one-per-cent grade?
3. If, in the above example, the tunnel is to run $\mathrm{S} .60^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$., how long must it be?
4. How long must it be, if the dip is to the southwest, the tunnel being run S. $54^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$.?
5. How long must it be, if the dip is to the southwest and the tunnel is run S. $50^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$.?
6. In Example 4 what would be the azimuth, grade, and length of the shortest tunnel that could be run to reach the vein?

## II. THE JUDICIAL FUNCTIONS OF SURVEYORS. ${ }^{1}$

## By Justice Cooley of the Michigan Supreme Court.

When a man has had a training in one of the exact sciences, where every problem within its purview is supposed to be susceptible of accurate solution, he is likely to be not a little impatient when he is told that, under some circumstances, he must recognize inaccuracies, and govern his action by facts which lead him away from the results which theoretically he ought to reach. Observation warrants us in saying that this remark may frequently be made of surveyors.

In the state of Michigan all our lands are supposed to have been surveyed once or more, and permanent monuments fixed to determine the boundaries of those who should become proprietors. The United States, as original owner, caused them all to be surveyed once by sworn officers, and as the plan of subdivision was simple, and was uniform over a large extent of territory, there should have been, with due care, few or no mistakes; and long rows of monuments should have been perfect guides to the place of any one that chanced to be missing. The truth unfortunately is that the lines were very carelessly run, the monuments inaccurately placed; and, as the recorded witnesses to these were many times wanting in permanency, it is often the case that when the monument was not correctly placed it is impossible to determine by the record, with the aid of anything on the ground, where it was located. The ineorrect record of course becomes worse than useless when the witnesses it refers to have disappeared.

It is, perhaps, generally supposed that our town plots were more accurately surveyed, as indeed they should have been, for in general there can have been no difficulty in making them sufficiently perfect for all practical purposes. Many of them, however, were laid out in the woods; some of them by proprietors themselves, without either chain or compass, and some by imperfectly trained surveyors, who, when land was cheap, did not appreciate the importance of having correct lines to determine boundaries when land should become dear. The fact probably is that town surveys are quite as inaccurate as those made under authority of the general government.

It is now upwards of fifty years since a major part of the public surveys in what is now the state of Michigan were made under authority of the United States. Of the lands south of Lansing, it is now forty years since the major part were sold and the work of improvement begun. A generation has passed away since they were converted into cultivated farms, and few, if any, of the original corner and quarter stakes now remain.

The corner and quarter stakes were often nothing but green sticks driven into the ground. Stones might be put around or over these if they were handy, but often they were not, and the witness trees must be relied upon after the stake was gone. Too often the first settlers were careless in fixing

[^57]their lines with accuracy while monuments remained, and an irregular brush fence, or something equally untrustworthy, may have been relied upon to keep in mind where the blazed line once was. A fire running through this might sweep it away, and if nothing were substituted in its place, the adjoining proprietors might in a few years be found disputing over their lines, and perhaps rushing into litigation, as soon as they had occasion to cultivate the land along the boundary.

If now the disputing parties call in a surveyor, it is not likely that any one summoned would doubt or question that his duty was to find, if possible, the place of the original stakes which determined the boundary line between the proprietors. However erroneous may have been the original survey, the monuments that were set must nevertheless govern, even though the effect be to make one half-quarter section ninety acres and the one adjoining but seventy; for parties buy or are supposed to buy in reference to those monuments, and are entitled to what is within their lines, and no more, be it more or less. McIver v. Walker, 4 Wheaton's Reports, 444 ; Land Co. v. Saunders, 103 U. S. Reports, 316; Cottingham v. Parr, 93 Ill. Reports, 233; Bunton v. Cardwell, 53 Texas Reports, 408; Watson v. Jones, 8 5enn. Reports, 117.

While the witness trees remain there can generally be no difficulty in determining the locality of the stakes. When the witness trees are gone, so that there is no longer record evidence of the monuments, it is remarkable how many there are who mistake altogether the duty that now devolves upon the surveyor. It is by no means uncommon that we find men whose theoretical education is supposed to make them experts, who think that when the monuments are gone the only thing to be done is to place new monuments where the old ones should have been, and where they would have been if placed correctly. This is a serious mistake. The problem is now the same that it was before, - to ascertain, by the best lights of which the case admits, where the original lines were. The mistake above alluded to is supposed to have found expression in our legislation; though it is possible that the real intent of the act to which we shall refer is not what is commonly supposed.

An act passed in 1869, Compiled Laws, § 593, amending the laws respecting the duties and powers of county surveyors, after providing for the case of corners which can be identified by the original field notes or other unquestionable testimony, directs as follows :
"Second. Extinct interior section-corners must be reëstablished at the intersection of two right lines joining the nearest known points on the original section lines east and west and north and south of it.
"Third. Any extinct quarter-section corner, except on fractional lines, must be reëstablished equidistant and in a right line between the section corners; in all other cases at its proportionate distance between the nearest original corners on the same line."

The corners thus determined, the surveyors are required to perpetuate by noting bearing trees when timber is near.

To estimate properly this legislation, we must start with the admitted and unquestionable fact that each purchaser from government bought such land as was within the original boundaries, and unquestionably owned it up to the time when the monuments became extinct. If the monument was set for an interior-section corner, but did not happen to be "at the intersection of two right lines joining the nearest known points on the original section lines east and west and north and south of it," it nevertheless determined the extent of his possessions, and he gained or lost according as the mistake did or did not favor him.

It will probably be admitted that no man loses title to his land or any part thereof merely because the evidences become lost or uncertain. It may become more difficult for him to establish it as against an adverse claimant, but theoretically the right remains; and it remains as a potential fact so long as he can present better evidence than any other person. And it may often happen that, notwithstanding the loss of all trace of a section corner or quarter stake, there will still be evidence from which any surveyor will be able to determine with almost absolute certainty where the original'boundary was between the government subdivisions.

There are two senses in which the word "extinct" may be used in this connection: one the sense of physical disappearance; the other the sense of loss of all reliable evidence. If the statute speaks of extinct corners in the former sense, it is plain that a serious mistake was made in supposing that surveyors could be clothed with authority to establish new corners by an arbitrary rule in such cases. As well might the statute declare that if a man lose his deed he shall lose his land altogether.

But if by extinct corner is meant one in respect to the actual location of which all reliable evidence is lost, then the following remarks are pertinent:
(1) There would undoubtedly be a presumption in such a case that the corner was correctly fixed by the governinent surveyor where the field notes indicated it to be.
(2) But this is only a presumption, and may be overcome by any satisfactory evidence showing that in fact it was placed elsewhere.
(3) No statute can confer upon a county surveyor the power to "establish " corners, and thereby bind the parties concerned. Nor is this a question merely of conflict between state and federal law; it is a question of property right. The original surveys must govern, and the laws under which they were made must govern, because the land was bought in reference to them; and any legislation, whether state or federal, that should have the effect to change these, would be inoperative, because disturbing vested rights.
(4) In any case of disputed lines, unless the parties concerned settle the controversy by agreement, the determination of it is necessarily a judicial act, and it must proceed upon evidence, and give full opportunity for a hearing. No arbitrary rules of survey or of evidence can be laid down whereby it can be adjudged,

The general duty of a surveyor in such a case is plain enough. He is not to assume that a monument is lost until after he has thoroughly sifted the evidence and found himself unable to trace it. Even then he should hesitate long before doing anything to the disturbance of settled possessions. Occupation, especially if long continued, often affords very satisfactory evidence of the original boundary when no other is attainable; and the surveyor should inquire when it originated, how, and why the lines were then located as they were, and whether a claim of title has always accompanied the possession, and give all the facts due force as evidence. Unfortunately, it is known that surveyors sometimes, in supposed obedience to the state statute, disregard all evidences of occupation and clain of title, and plunge whole neighborhoods into quarrels and litigation by assuming to "establish" corners at points with which the previous occupation can not harmonize. It is often the case that where one or more corners are found to be extinct, all parties concerned have acquiesced in lines which were traced by the guidance of some other corner or landmark, which may or may not have been trustworthy; but to bring these lines into discredit when the people concerned do not question them not ouly breeds tronble in the neighborhood, but it must often subject the surveyor himself to annoyance and perhaps discredit, since in a legal controversy the law as well as common sense must declare that a supposed boundary line long acquiesced in is better evidence of where the real line should be than any survey made after the original monuments have disappeared. Stewart v. Carleton, 31 Mich. Reports, 270 ; Diehl v. Zanger, 39 Mich. Reports, 601; Dupont v. Starring, 42 Mich. Reports, 492. And county surveyors, no more than any others, can conclude parties by their surveys.

The mischiefs of overlooking the facts of possession must often appear in cities and villages. In towns the block and lot stakes soon disappear; there are no witness trees and no monuments to govern except such as have been put in their places, or where their places were supposed to be. The streets are likely to be soon marked off by fences, and the lots in a block will be measured off from these, without looking farther. Now it may perhaps be known in a particular case that a certain monument still remaining was the starting point in the original survey of the town plot; or a surveyor settling in the town may take some central point as the point of departure in his surveys, and assuming the original plot to be accurate, he will then undertake to find all streets and all lots by course and distance according to the plot, measuring and estimating from his point of departure. This procedure might unsettle every line and every monument existing by acquiescence in the town; it would be very likely to change the lines of streets, and raise controversies everywhere. Yet this is what is sometimes done; the surveyor himself being the first person to raise the disturbing questions.

Suppose, for example, a particular village street has been located by acquiescence and use for many years, and the proprietors in a certain block have laid off their lots in reference to this practical location. Two lot owners quarrel, and one of them calls in a surveyor that he may be sure
that his neighbor shall not get an inch of land from him. This surveyor undertakes to make his survey accurate, whether the original was, or not, and the first result is, he notifies the lot owners that there is error in the street line, and that all fences should be moved, say, one foot to the east. Perhaps he goes on to drive stakes through the block according to this conclusion. Of course, if he is right in doing this, all lines in the village will be unsettled; but we will limit our attention to the single block. It is not likely that the lot owners generally will allow the new survey to unsettle their possessions, but there is always a probability of finding some one disposed to do so. We shall then have a lawsuit; and with what result?

It is a common error that lines do not become fixed by acquiescence in a less time than twenty years. In fact, by statute, road lines may become conclusively fixed in ten years; and there is no particular time that shall be required to conclude private owners, where it appears that they have accepted a particular line as their boundary, and all concerned have cultivated and claimed up to it. McNamara v. Seaton, 82 Ill. Reports, 498; Bunce v. Bidwell, 43 Mich. Reports, 542. Public policy requires that such lines be not lightly disturbed, or disturbed at all after the lapse of any considerable time. The litigant, therefore, who in such a case pins his faith on the surveyor, is likely to suffer for his reliance, and the surveyor himself to be mortified by a result that seems to impeach his judgment.

Of course nothing in what has been said can require a surveyor to conceal his own judgment, or to report the facts one way when he believes them to be another. He has no right to mislead, and he may rightfully express his opinion that an original monument was at one place, when at the same time he is satisfied that acquiescence has fixed the rights of parties as if it were at another. But he would do mischief if he were to attempt to "establish" monuments which he knew would tend to disturb settled rights; the farthest he has a right to go, as an officer of the law, is to express his opinion where the monument should be, at the same time that he imparts the information to those who employ him, and who might otherwise be misled, that the same authority that makes him an officer and entrusts him to make surveys, also allows parties to settle their own boundary lines, and considers acquiescence in a particular line or monument, for any considerable period, as strong, if not conclusive, evidence of such settlement. The peace of the community absolutely requires this rule. Joyce v. Williams, 26 Mich. Reports, 332. It is not long since that, in one of the leading cities of the state, an attempt was made to move houses two or three rods into a street, on the ground that a survey under which the street had been located for many years had been found on more recent survey to be erroneous.

From the foregoing it will appear that the duty of the surveyor where boundaries are in dispute must be varied by the circumstances. (1) He is to search for original monuments, or for the places where they were originally located, and allow these to control if he finds them, unless he has reason to believe that agreements of the parties, express or implied, have rendered them unimportant. By monuments in the case of government sur-
veys, we mean, of course, the corner and quarter stakes: blazed lines or marked trees on the lines are not monuments; they are merely guides or finger posts, if we may use the expression, to inform us with more or less accuracy where the monuments may be found. (2) If the original monuments are no longer discoverable, the question of location becomes one of evidence merely. It is merely idle for any state statute to direct a surveyor to locate or "establish" a corner, as the place of the original monument, according to some inflexible rule. The surveyor, on the other hand, must inquire into all the facts; giving due prominence to the acts of parties concerned, and always keeping in mind, frst, that neither his opinion nor his survey can be conclusive upon parties concerned; second, that courts and juries may be required to follow after the surveyor over the same ground, and that it is exceedingly desirable that he govern his action by the same lights and rules that will govern theirs. On town plots if a surplus or deficiency appears in a block, when the actual boundaries are compared with the original fignres, and there is no evidence to fix the exact location of the stakes which marked the division into lots, the rule of common sense and of law is that the surplus or deficiency is to be apportioned between the lots, on an assumption that the error extended alike to all parts of the block. O'Brien v. McGrane, 29 Wis. Reports, 446 ; Quinnin v. Reixers, 46 Mich. Reports, 605.

It is always possible when corners are extinct that the surveyor may usefully act as a mediator between parties, and assist in preventing legal controversies by settling doubtful lines. Unless he is made for this purpose an arbitrator by legal submission, the parties, of course, even if they consent to follow his judgment, can not, on the basis of mere consent, be compelled to do so; but if he brings about an agreement, and they carry it into effect by actually conforming their occupation to his lines, the action will conclude them. Of course it is desirable that all such agreements be reduced to writing; but this is not absolutely indispensable if they are carried into effect without.

Meander Lines. - The subject to which allusion will now be made is taken up with some reluctance, because it is believed the general rules are familiar. Nevertheless it is often found that surveyors misapprehend them, or err in their application; and as other interesting topics are somewhat connected with this, a little time devoted to it will probably not be altogether lost. The subject is that of meander lines. These are lines traced along the shores of lakes, ponds, and considerable rivers as the measures of quantity when sections are made fractional by such waters. These have determined the price to be paid when government lands were bought, and perhaps the impression still lingers in some minds that the meander lines are boundary lines, and all in front of them remains unsold. Of course this is erroneous. There was never any doubt that, except on the large navigable rivers, the boundary of the owners of the banks is the middle line of the river; and while some courts have held that this was the rule on all fresh-water streams, large aud small, others have held to the doctrine that
the title to the bed of the stream below low-water mark is in the state, while conceding to the owners of the banks all riparian rights. The practical difference is not very important. In this state the rule that the center line is the boundary line is applied to all our great rivers, including the Detroit, varied somewhat by the circumstance of there being a distinct channel for navigation in some cases with the stream in the main shallow, and also sometimes by the existence of islands.

The troublesome questions for surveyors present themselves when the boundary line between two contiguous estates is to be continued from the meander line to the center line of the river. Of course the original survey supposes that each purchaser of land on the stream has a water front of the length shown by the field notes; and it is presumable that he bought this particular land because of that fact. In many cases it now happens that the meander line is left some distance from the shore by the gradual change of course of the stream or diminution of the flow of water. Now the dividing line between two government subdivisions might strike the meander line at right angles, or obliquely; and in some cases, if it were continued in the same direction to the center line of the river, might cut off from the water one of the subdivisions entirely, or at least cut it off from any privilege of navigation, or other valuable use of the water, while the other might have a water front much greater than the length of a line crossing it at right angles to its side lines. The effect might be that, of two government subdivisions of equal size and cost, one would be of very great value as water front property, and the other comparatively valueless. A rule which would produce this result would not be just, and it has not been recognized in the law.

Nevertheless it is not easy to determine what ought to be the correct rule for every case. If the river has a straight course, or one nearly so, every man's equities will be preserved by this rule: Extend the line of division between the two parcels from the meander line to the center line of the river, as nearly as possible at right angles to the general course of the river at that point. This will preserve to each man the water front which the field notes indicated, except as changes in the water may have affected it, and the only inconvenience will be that the division line between different subdivisions is likely to be more or less deflected where it strikes the meander line.

This is the legal rule, and it is not limited to government surveys, but applies as well to water lots which appear as such on town plots. Bay City Gas Light Co. v. The Industrial Works, 28 Mich. Reports, 182. It often happens, therefore, that the lines of city lots bounded on navigable streams are deflected as they strike the bank, or the line where the bank was when the town was first laid out.

When the stream is very crooked, and especially if there are short bends, so that the foregoing rule is incapable of strict application, it is sometimes very difficult to determine what shall be done; and in many cases the surveyor may be under the necessity of working out a rule for
himself. Of course his action can not be conclusive; but if he adopts one that follows, as nearly as the circumstances will admit, the general rule above indicated, so as to divide, as near as may be, the bed of the stream among the adjoining owners in proportion to their lines upon the shore, his division, being that of an expert, made upon the ground and with all available lights, is likely to be adopted as law for the case. Judicial decisions, into which the surveyor would find it prudent to look under such circumstances, will throw light upon his duties and may constitute a sufficient guide when peculiar cases arise. Each riparian lot owner ought to have a line on the legal boundary, namely, the center line of the stream, proportioned to the length of his line on the shore; and the problem in each case is, how this is to be given him. Alluvion, when a river imperceptibly changes its course, will be apportioned by the same rules.

The existence of islands in a stream, when the middle line constitutes a boundary, will not affect the apportionment unless the islands were surveyed out as government subdivisions in the original admeasurement. Wherever that was the case, the purchaser of the island divides the bed of the stream on each side with the owner of the bank, and his rights also extend above and below the solid ground, and are limited by the peculiarities of the bed and the channel. If an island was not surveyed as a government subdivision previous to the sale of the bank, it is of course impossible to do this for the purposes of governmental sale afterwards, for the reason that the rights of the bank owners are fixed by their purchase: when making that, they have a right to understand that all land between the meander lines, not separately surveyed and sold, will pass with the shore in the government sale; and having this right, anything which their purchase would include under it can not afterward be taken from them. It is believed, however, that the federal courts would not recognize the applicability of this rule to large navigable rivers, such as those uniting the Great Lakes.

On all the little lakes of the state which are mere expansions near their mouths of the rivers passing through them - such as the Muskegon, Père Marquette, and Manistee - the same rule of bed ownership has been judicially applied that is applied to the rivers themselves; and the division lines are extended under the water in the same way. Rice v. Ruddiman, 10 Mich. 125. If such a lake were circular, the lines would converge to the center; if oblong or irregular, there might be a line in the middle on which they would terminate, whose course would bear some relation to that of the shore. But it can seldom be important to follow the division line very far under the water, since all private rights are subject to the public rights of navigation and other use, and any private use of the lands inconsistent with these would be a nuisance, and punishable as such. It is sometimes important, however, to run the lines out for some considerable distance, in order to determine where one may lawfully moor vessels or rafts, for the winter, or cut ice. The ice crop that forms over a man's land of course belongs to him. Lorman v. Benson, 8 Mich. 18; Pecple's Ice Co. v. Steamer Excelsior, recently decided.

What is said above will show how unfounded is the notion, which is sometimes advanced, that a riparian proprietor on a meandered river may lawfully raise the water in the stream without liability to the proprietors above, provided he does not raise it so that it overflows the meander line. The real fact is that the meander line has nothing to do with such a case, and an action will lie whenever he sets back the water upon the proprietor above, whether the overflow be below the meander lines or above them.

As regards the lakes and ponds of the state, one may easily raise questions that it would be impossible for him to settle. Let us suggest a few questions, some of which are easily answered, and some not:
(1) To whom belongs the land under these bodies of water, where they are not mere expansions of a stream flowing through them?
(2) What public rights exist in them?
(3) If there are islands in them which were not surveyed out and sold by the United States, can this be done now?

Others will be suggested by the answers given to these.
It seems obvious that the rules of private ownership which are applied to rivers can not be applied to the Great Lakes. Perhaps it should be held that the boundary is at low-water mark, but improvements beyond this would only become unlawful when they became nuisances. Islands in the Great Lakes would belong to the United States until sold, and might be surveyed and measured for sale at any time. The right to take fish in the lakes, or to cut ice, is public like the right of navigation, but is to be exercised in such manner as not to interfere with the rights of shore owners. But so far as these public rights can be the subject of ownership, they belong to the state, not to the United States; and, so it is believed, does the bed of a lake also. Pollard v. Hagan, 3 Howard's U.S. Reports. But such rights are not generally considered proper subjects of sale, but, like the right to make use of the public highways, they are held by the state in trust for all the people.

What is said of the large lakes may perhaps be said also of many of the interior lakes of the state; such, for example, as Houghton, Higgins, Cheboygan, Burt's, Mullet, Whitmore, and many others. But there are many little lakes or ponds which are gradually disappearing, and the shore proprietorship advances pari passu as the waters recede. If these are of any considerable size - say, even a mile across - there may be questions of conflicting rights which no adjudication hitherto made could settle. Let any surveyor, for example, take the case of a pond of irregular form, occupying a mile square or more of territory, and undertake to determine the rights of the shore proprietors to its bed when it shall totally disappear, and he will find he is in the midst of problems such as probably he has never grappled with, or reflected upon before. But the general rules for the extension of shore lines, which have already been laid down, should govern such cases, or at least should serve as guides in their settlement. ${ }^{1}$

[^58]Where a pond is so small as to be included within the lines of a private purchase from the government, it is not believed the public have any rights in it whatever. Where it is not so included, it is believed they have rights of fishery, rights to take ice and water, and rights of navigation for business or pleasure. This is the common belief, and probably the just one. Shore rights must not be so exercised as to disturb these, and the states may pass all proper laws for their protection. It would be easy with suitable legislation to preserve these little bodies of water as permanent places of resort for the pleasure and recreation of the people, and there ought to be such legislation.

If the state should be recognized as owner of the beds of these small lakes and ponds, it would not be owner for the purpose of selling. It would be owner only as a trustee for the public use; and a sale would be inconsistent with the right of the bank owners to make use of the water in its natural condition in connection with their estates. Some of them might be made salable lands by draining; but the state could not drain, even for this purpose, against the will of the shore owners, unless their rights were appropriated and paid for.

Upon many questions that might arise between the state as owner of the bed of a little lake and the shore owners, it would be presumptuous to express an opinion now, and fortunately the occasion does not require it.

I have thus indicated a few of the questions with which surveyors may now and then have occasion to deal, and to which they should bring good sense and sound judgment. Surveyors are not and can not be judicial officers, but in a great many cases they act in a quasi judicial capacity with the acquiescence of parties concerned; and it is important for them to know by what rules they are to be guided in the discharge of their judicial functions. What I have said can not contribute much to their enlightenment, but I trust will not be wholly without value.

## III. THE OWNERSHIP OF SURVEYS, AND WHAT CONSTITUTES A SURVEY AND MAP. ${ }^{1}$

There seems to be a difference of opinion among surveyors as to how much of the information obtained, and how much of the work done in maxing a survey shall be furnished to the individual for whom the survey is made. Many surveyors keep what are called "private notes." All men doing business as surveyors keep notes of all surveys in a convenient form for ready reference. The extent to which these notes are private has not been rightly comprehended by all surveyors, and hence has resulted the difference of opinion mentioned.

This article is an attempt to present a side of this question that has not heretofore been fully considered. An endeavor has also been made to point out to the young surveyor a line of action expedient for him to follow, which will at the same time be found advantageous to the community in which he works.

In this discussion the question arises at once, "What constitutes a survey?" and the answer obviously depends on the object of the survey. This discussion will be confined to land surveys; that is, to surveys made for the purpose (1) of subdividing a large tract of land into smaller parcels to be sold; (2) of determining the boundary of a tract the description of which is known; (3) of determining the description when the boundaries are known.

The principle to be enunciated applies to any other survey as well, be it railroad, canal, bridge, or topographical survey. Indeed, it is well understood in all such surveys, but seems to be ignored by many engineers having to do with land surveys.

A survey is the operation of finding the contour, dimensions, position, or other particulars of any part of the earth's surface, . . . tract of land, etc., and representing the same on paper.

In making a survey it is necessary to set certain points, called monuments or corners, and to determine a description of these points. These items therefore become a part of the survey. Then a map must be drawn. This map, to be a faithful representation of the ground and the work done, should, together with the notes, show all of the items mentioned.

The object of establishing monuments or corners and describing them is twofold: (1) to mark on the ground the boundaries of the tract, and (2) to secure definite information as to its location with reference to other points or tracts, so that from this information the land may at a future time be found. For a complete survey, therefore, the corners must be fixed, information that will preserve their location must be obtained, and the facts must be delineated on a map with accompanying notes.

To whom belongs this survey? It would appear to be evident that it belongs to the individual who pays to have it made. It is not readily seen in
${ }^{1}$ A paper prepared by the author for "The Polytechnic," the student journal of the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, from which it is taken.
what way the survey, or any part of it, becomes the sole property of the surveyor. He may keep a copy of his notes to facilitate his future work; but he has not the shadow of a claim to a single note, the time for taking which has been paid for by his employer. If his charge for his work is on a time basis, there can be no question as to the correctness of the above statements. If he contracts to do the work for a definite sum for the entire job, he may take as much time as he likes, and may keep as many private notes as he desires; but he is bound in honor to return to his employer the complete survey; and, if he does so, the private notes would thereafter be of no great assistance to him in securing further employment, particularly when it is remembered that men of repute do not bid against each other for professional work. His reputation for accuracy and honesty will be a far more potent factor in securing employment than any set of private notes fairly obtained.

It is true that a great many surveyors hold a different opinion, and purposely return their maps and notes in such condition, that, while they may serve the purpose for which they are primarily made, they do not tell the whole story, nor enough to make it easy for another surveyor to relocate the tract surveyed. When this is done, the person ordering the survey does not receive what he pays for. Something is withheld. It seems to need no argument to show that this is radically wrong.

But there is another reason for condemning this practice. The correct and permanent location of all public land lines, as streets, alleys, etc., as well as the permanent location of party lines between private owners, is a matter of the gravest importance, and no information that will at all serve to fix such lines in their correct positions for all time, should be withheld from the owner who pays for the survey, be it private citizen, municipality, county, or state.

The records of monuments and street lines made by a city engineer are no more his private property than are the records in the offices of the clerk, auditor, or treasurer, the property of the individuals who held office at the time the records were made. The correctness of the position assumed has been indicated by court decisions.

A great deal of laxity is shown in the conduct of offices of city engineers and county surveyors. The methods of regulating the pay of these officers has doubtless had much to do with this. It is frequently the case that the surveyor receives no salary, but is allowed to collect certain specified fees for work performed, and this gives color to his claim that his work is private and belongs to him. That this is not true concerning the public work he does is evident from what has preceded. That the records of work done for private citizens are not the property of the public needs no demonstration; but such work belongs to those citizens for whom it was done.

A different policy should be pursued with regard to these offices. In every case such an office should be a salaried one, with such salaried assistants as may be necessary. Certain fees should be prescribed for performing the various kinds of work that the surveyor may be called upon to do within the
limits of the territory of the political division whose servant he is. These fees should cover all work connected with public construction and public or private land lines, and should be returned to the public treasury.

Their amount may be regulated, from time to time, so that they shall aggregate a sum sufficient to pay the expenses of the office. They should, of course, not cover work of a private character not having to do with land lines. But the entire public is interested in the permanency of land lines, and all records concerning them made by a public official should become public property. The permanency of land lines is too important a matter to be subject to avaricious and jealous rivalry; and all the surveyors in a given district should coöperate to preserve, in their correct places, all lines within the district.

To this end, the returns of every surveyor made to the owner should be thoroughly complete. Maps made for filing as public records should be so finished as to enable any surveyor to relocate the land without the least uncertainty as to the correctness of his work. That this is done in very few instances is well known to every surveyor who has had occasion to examine public records for data for surveys which he has been called upon to make.

Because of the fact that in most cases neither owners nor attorneys have been fully posted as to what constitutes a complete description, sufficient for relocation, and because surveyors have been willing to let matters stand as they were, great carelessness has arisen in the practice of making and filing maps for record.

While in some states good laws exist prescribing what shall appear on a map before it will be received as a public record, in more states there is nothing whatever to guide either owner, surveyor, attorney, or recorder in the matter. In the county records in such states, anything that is made up of lines and figures and labeled "this is a map," is considered a sufficient basis for a correct description and location of the property it purports to represent - no matter whether it is drawn by hand, photo-lithographed, or simply printed with "rule" and type. The records are full of auctioneers' circulars, manufactured in a printing office from information coming from nobody knows where, filed at the request of the auctioneer's clerk, with no name of owner or other interested party attached, except as the name of the auctioneer appears in the accompanying advertisement. Further than this, these maps are frequently purposely distorted to create a farorable impression of the property to be sold. Wide streets are shown where only narrow ones exist, streets appear opened for the full width where they have been opened for but half their width, subdivisions are indicated as rectangles that really may not be even parallelograms, etc. Such maps as these frequently form the only basis for the description and location of the property they are supposed to represent. Such misrepresentations are bad, very bad for those who buy; but is the information given by these circulars much worse than that furnished by many of the maps made by surveyors and filed at the request of the owners?

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On these plots, if of "additions," we find lines indicating the boundaries of blocks and lots, all of which blocks and lots are numbered; the names of streets appear in neat letters; a few dimensions, possibly all linear dimensions, will be given; the streets or blocks may be delicately tinted, and the whole set off with a fine border and title. As an exhibition of the draughtsmau's skill, these maps are perhaps valuable. As a source of information as to the location of the lines they purport to show, they are worth little more than the auctioneer's circular. Perhaps they have a few more figures, and the presumption may be a little stronger that the figures are correct.

Examine one of these maps closely. There will be found no evidence that a monument has been set in the field; not an angle is recorded, though the lines may cross at all sorts of angles; and dimensions are given that do not agree among themselves, so that the angles can not be calculated. There will be found no name signed except, possibly, that of the surveyor, who thus advertises what we shall charilably call his stupidity.

Frequently no monuments are set except small stakes at the corners of the blocks; but even the fact that such stakes have been set is not recorded on the plot. One who is acquainted with the practice of surveyors in a given district knows at what points to look for such stakes, and if they have been set and not pulled out to make room for a fence post or building, he may succeed in finding them. Some surveyors are accustomed to set stakes a certain distance away from the point the stake is supposed to mark, but no mention of this fact appears on the map. In fact, the map is so drawn that no one but the surveyor who made it can write a description of any one of the parcels of land shown, or correctly locate it on the ground. Furthermore, the surveyor himself finds it impossible, after the lapse of a few years and the destruction of his "private marks," to rerun any one of the lines exactly as originally laid out.

It is easy to see to what this leads -impossible descriptions of property, giving opportunity for differences in judgment as to interpretation of what was intended; disputes as to position of party lines; costly litigation and expensive movement of structures begun or completed; and the actual shifting of lines back and forth by different surveyors, or even by the same surveyor, honestly trying to locate the lines properly.

The writer has seen enough trouble of this sort to indicate to him that a radical change is needed in the field work and mapping of cities, towns, and additions, not to mention farms and other tracts of land that it may be necessary to lay out and describe. So long as fallible man is responsible for the accuracy of surveys, maps, and descriptions of properties, so long will there be errors; but that it is possible greatly to reduce their number by proper regulation the writer is fully persuaded. What we have been describing are not maps at all, or at most they are very imperfect maps, and "what constitutes a map?" thus seems to be a very pertinent question.

A map of a city, town, or addition, or other tract of land, serving as a basis for the description of property, should furnish all the information
necessary for the proper description and location of the various parcels shown, and also of the whole piece. It should further show the exact location of the whole tract relatively to the lands immediately adjoining; particularly should this be done when an offset or angle in a street line occurs. To accomplish these things, there should appear on the map the following items :
(1) The lengths of all lines shown.
(2) The exact angle made by all intersecting lines.
(3) The exact position and character of all monuments set, with notes of reference points.
(4) The number of each block and lot.
(5) The names of all streets, streams or bodies of water, and recognized land marks.
(6) The scale.
(7) The direction of the meridian and a note as to whether the true or magnetic meridian is shown. (It should be the true meridian.)
(8) The angles of intersection made by the lines of adjoining property with the boundaries of the tract mapped.
(9) The exact amount of offset in lines that may extend from the outside through the tract mapped.
(10) A simple, complete, and explicit title, including the date and the name of the surveyor.

All this is necessary to make the map valuable for description and location of the property it represents.

Of course monuments will not be shown if none have been set, and very frequently none are set, either from carelessness on the part of the surveyor, or an unwillingness on the part of the owner to pay their cost. Monuments of a permanent character should be set at each corner of a tract surveyed, and at least two, visible the one from the other, should be on the line of each street. If these monuments are not placed on the center lines of the streets, they should be at uniform distances from the center or property lines. If placed with reference to the center line they should all be on the same side of the center. In streets extending east and west the monuments should all be on the north of the center, or they should all be on the south, and at uniform distances. In streets extending north and south the monuments should all be on the east of the center or all on the west. Uniformity in such practice saves a vast amount of time.

Monuments may be set at uniform distances from the block lines, in the sidewalk area, and this is an excellent practice. The stakes or monuments set at the corners of the blocks in additions, or town sites, should never be the only stakes or monuments set in the tract.

That the map may be reliable there should appear on it the following:
(1) The certificate of the surveyor that he has carefully surveyed the
land, that the map is a correct representation of the tract, and that he has set monuments (to be described) at the points indicated on the map.
(2) The acknowledged signature of all persons possessing title to any of the land shown in the tract, and, if possible, signatures of adjoining owners.
(3) If of an addition, the acknowledged dedication to public use forever of all areas shown as streets or roads.
(4) If a street of full width, whose center line is a boundary of the tract, is shown, the acknowledged signature of the owner of the adjoining property, unless his half of the street has been previously dedicated.

It has been already stated that, in some states, a map may be filed at the request of any person, and without signature. This practice frequently leads to trouble. The writer knows of cases in which owners of large tracts of land have had those tracts subdivided and have taken land of adjoining non-resident owners for street purposes without the consent or knowledge of those owners. When, at a later day, the owners of the land so taken have objected and attempted to close half of the street, trouble of a serions character has arisen. The same trouble has occurred where streets have been run through narrow gores of land and have subsequently been completely closed, leaving houses built on the mapped property without outlet. Time and again have cases of this sort come to the knowledge of the writer.

Having pointed out certain evils, it remains to suggest a remedy. It lies in the enactment of laws governing these matters. There should be included in the statutes of every state a law explicitly defining what shall appear on every map filed for reference, and making it a misdemeanor to file a map that does not strictly conform to the requirements. In the absence of such laws it is believed that the young surveyor can assist greatly in a much-needed reform, by following the principles suggested in this paper as the correct ones, and avoiding the errors here indicated.

It is hoped that those graduates of our engineering schools who drift into this class of work will be guided by a higher principle than that which actuates the surveyor who covers up his tracks, at the expense of his employer, in order to secure a monopoly of the business of the locality. The young surveyor can spend his energies to greater advantage in devising new and better methods of work, than in inventing ways for hiding information that belongs to his employer. Certainly a thorough education should so broaden the young man's views as to make it impossible for him to be controlled by those meaner instincts which, if indulged, lead ever to narrow the vision and prevent one from perceiving the greater problems that continually present themselves for solution.

## IV. GEOGRAPHICAL POSITIONS OF BASE LINES AND PRINCIPAL MERIDIANS GOVERNING THE PUBLIC SURVEYS.

The system of rectangular surveying, authorized by law May 20, 1785, was first employed in the survey of United States public lands in the state of Ohio.

The boundary line between the states of Pennsylvania and Ohio, known as "Ellicott's line," in longitude $80^{\circ} 32^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, is the meridian to which the first surveys are referred. The townships east of the Scioto River, in the state of Ohio, are numbered from south to north, commencing with No. 1 on the Ohio River, while the ranges are numbered from east to west, beginning with No. 1 on the east boundary of the state, except in the tract designated "U. S. military land," in which the townships and ranges are numbered, respectively, from the south and east boundaries of said tract.

During the period of one hundred and nine years since the organization of the system of rectangular surveying, numbered and locally named principal meridians and base lines have been established, as follows:

The first principal meridian begins at the junction of the Ohio and Big Miami rivers, extends north on the boundary line between the states of Ohio and Indiana, and roughly approximates to the meridian of longitude $84^{\circ} 48^{\prime} 50^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich. The ranges of the public surveys in the state of Ohio, west of the Scioto River, are, in part, numbered from this meridian. For further information in regard to numbering of townships and ranges of the early surveys in Ohio, the reader is referred to the state map prepared in the General Land Office.

The second principal meridian coincides with $86^{\circ} 28^{\prime}$ of longitude west from Greenwich, starts from a point two and one half miles west of the confluence of the Little Blue and Ohio rivers, runs north to the northern boundary of Indiana, and, with the base line in latitude $38^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$, governs the surveys in Indiana and part of those in Illinois.

The third principal meridian begins at the mouth of the Ohio River and extends north to the northern boundary of the state of Illinois, and with the base line in latitude $38^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$, governs the surveys in the state east of the third principal meridian, with the exception of those projected from the second principal meridian, and the surveys on the west, to the Illinois River. This meridian is nearly coincident with $89^{\circ} 10^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime}$ of west longitude from Greenwich.

The fourth principal meridian begins at a point on the right bank of the Illinois River, in latitude $40^{\circ} 00^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ north, and longitude $90^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, and with the base line running west from the initial point, governs the surveys in Mlinois west of the Illinois River and west of that part of the third principal meridian which lies north of the river.

The fourth principal meridian also extends north through Wisconsin and northeastern Minnesota, and, with the south boundary of Wisconsin as
its base line, governs all the surveys in the former and those in the latter state lying east of the Mississippi River, and the third guide meridian west (of the fifth principal meridian system), north of the river.

The fift principal meridian starts from the old mouth of the Arkansas River, and with the base line running west from the old mouth of the St. Francis River, governs the surveys in Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, North Dakota; those in Minnesota, west of the Mississippi River and west of the third guide meridian north of the river; and in South Dakota all east of the Missouri River, and the surveys on the west side of the river to a limiting line following the third guide meridian (of the sixth principal meridian system), White River, and the west and north boundaries of the Lower Brulé Indian Reservation. This meridian is nearly coincident with $91^{\circ} 03^{\prime} 42^{\prime \prime}$ longitude west from Greenwich.

The sixth principal meridian, which is approximately the meridian of $97^{\circ} 23^{\prime}$ west longitude from Greenwich, extends from the base line coincident with the north boundary of Kansas in latitude $40^{\circ}$ north, south through the state to its south boundary, in latitude $37^{\circ}$ north, and north through Nebraska to the Missouri River; and governs the surveys in Kansas and Nebraska; the surveys in Wyoming, except those referred to the Wind River meridian and base line, which intersect in latitude $43^{\circ} 01^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$ north, and longitude $108^{\circ} 48^{\prime} 40^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich; the surveys in Colorado, except those projected from the New Mexico and Ute meridians, the latter intersecting its base line in latitude $39^{\circ} 06^{\prime} 40^{\prime \prime}$ north and longitude $108^{\circ} 33^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich; and the surveys in South Dakota extended, or to be extended, over the tract embracing the Pine Ridge and Rosebud Indian reservations.

In addition to the above-mentioned numbered principal meridians, other principal meridians with local names have been established as follows:

The Michigan meridian, in longitude $84^{\circ} 22^{\prime} 24^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, with a base line in latitude $42^{\circ} 26^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ north (eight miles north of Detroit), governs the surveys in Michigan.

The Tallahassee meridian, in longitude $84^{\circ} 16^{\prime} 42^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, runs north and south from the initial point on the base line at Tallahassee, in latitude $30^{\circ} 28^{\prime}$ north, and governs the surveys in Florida.

The Saint Stephen's meridian, in longitude $88^{\circ} 02^{\prime}$ west from Greenwich, begins at the initial point (Ellicott's corner), on the base line, in latitude $31^{\circ}$ north, extends south to Mobile Bay and north to latitude $33^{\circ} 06^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$, and governs the surveys in the southern district of Alabama, and in Pearl River district lying east of the river and south of the Choctaw base line, in latitude $31^{\circ} 52^{\prime} 40^{\prime \prime}$ north, in the state of Mississippi.

The Huntsville meridian begins on the northern boundary of Alabama, in latitude $34^{\circ} 59^{\prime}$ north, longitude $86^{\circ} 34^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, extends south to latitude $33^{\circ} 06^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$ north, and governs the surveys in the northern district of Alabama.

The Choctaw meridian begins on the Choctaw base line, latitude $31^{\circ}$
$54^{\prime} 40^{\prime \prime}$ north, longitude $90^{\circ} 14^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, runs north to the south boundary of the Chickasaw cession, in latitude $34^{\circ} 19^{\prime} 40^{\prime \prime}$ north, and governs the surveys east and west of the meridian, and north of the base line.

The Chickasaw meridian begins on the north boundary of Mississippi in latitude $34^{\circ} 59^{\prime}$ north, longitude $89^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$ west from Greenwich, extends south to latitude $33^{\circ} 48^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime}$ north, and governs the surveys in north Mississippi.

The Washington meridian begins on the base line in latitude $31^{\circ}$ north, longitude $91^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, extends north to the Mississippi River, and governs the surveys in the southwestern angle of the state of Mississippi.

The Saint Helena meridian begins at the initial point of the Washington meridian, in latitude $31^{\circ}$ north, and longitude $91^{\circ} 09^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime}$ west of Greenwich, extends south to the Mississippi River, and governs the surveys in the Greensburg and southeastern districts of Louisiana, east of the Mississippi River.

The Louisiana meridian, in Iongitude $92^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime}$ west of Greenwich, extends from the Gulf of Mexico to the north boundary of Louisiana, and with the base line through the initial point, conforming to the parallel of $31^{\circ}$ north latitude, governs all the surveys in the state west of the Mississippi River.

The New Mexico meridian, in longitude $106^{\circ} 53^{\prime} 40^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, extends through the territory, and with the base line, in latitude $34^{\circ}$ $15^{\prime} 25^{\prime \prime}$ north, governs the surveys in New Mexico, except those in the northwest corner of the territory, referred to Navajo meridian and base line, which have their initial point in latitude $35^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$ north, longitude $108^{\circ} 32^{\prime}$ $45^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich.

The Salt Lake meridian, in longitude $111^{\circ} 54^{\prime} 00^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, has its initial point at the corner of Temple Block, in Salt Lake City, Utah, extends north and south through the territory, and, with the base line, through the initial, and coincident with the parallel of $40^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 04^{\prime \prime}$ north latitude, governs the surveys in the territory, except those referred to the Uintah méridian and base line projected from an initial point in latitude $40^{\circ}$ $26^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$ north, longitude $109^{\circ} 57^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich.

The Boisé meridian, longitude $116^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, passes through the initial point established south $29^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ west, nineteen miles distant from Boisé City, extends north and south through the state, and, with the base line in latitude $43^{\circ} 46^{\prime}$ north, governs the surveys in the state of Idaho.

The Mount Diablo meridian, California, coincides with the meridian of $121^{\circ} 54^{\prime} 48^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, intersects the base line on the summit of the mountain from which it takes its name, in latitude $37^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ north, and governs the surveys in the state of Nevada, and the surveys of all central and northern California, except those belonging to the Humboldt meridian system,

The Humboldt meridian, longitude $124^{\circ} 08^{\prime}$ west from Greenwich, intersects the base line on the summit of Mount Pierce, in latitude $40^{\circ} 25^{\prime} 12^{\prime \prime}$ north, and governs the surveys in the northwestern corner of California, lying west of the Coast range of mountains, and north of township 5 south, of the Humboldt meridian system.

The San Bernardino meridian, California, longitude $116^{\circ} 56^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, intersects the base line on Mount San Bernardino, latitude $34^{\circ} 07^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$ north, and governs the surveys in southern California, lying east of the meridian, and that part of the surveys situated west of it which is south of the eighth standard parallel south, of the Mount Diablo meridian system.

The Willamette meridian, which is coincident with the meridian of $122^{\circ}$ $44^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, extends south from the base line, in latitude $45^{\circ} 31^{\prime}$ north, to the north boundary of California, and north to the international boundary, and governs all the public surveys in the states of Oregon and Washington.

The Black Hills meridian, longitude $104^{\circ} 03^{\prime}$ west from Greenwich, with the base line in latitude $44^{\circ}$ north, governs the surveys in the state of South Dakota, north and west of White River, and west of the Missouri River (between latitudes $45^{\circ} 55^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$ and $44^{\circ} 17^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ ), the north and west boundaries of the Lower Brule Indian Reservation, and the west boundary of range 79 west, of the fifth principal meridian system.

The Montana meridian extends north and south from the initial monument on the summit of a limestone hill, eight hundred feet high, longitude $111^{\circ} 38^{\prime} 50^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, and with the base line on the parallel of $45^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 48^{\prime \prime}$ north latitude, governs the surveys in the state of Montana.

The Gila and Salt River meridian intersects the base line on the south side of Gila River, opposite the mouth of Salt River, in latitude $33^{\circ} 22^{\prime} 40^{\prime \prime}$ north, longitude $112^{\circ} 17^{\prime} 25^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, and governs the surveys in the territory of Arizona.

The Indian meridian, in longitude $97^{\circ} 14^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ west from Greenwich, extends from Red River to the south boundary of Kansas, and with the base line in latitude $34^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ north, governs the surveys in the Indian Territory, and in Oklahoma Territory all surveys east of $100^{\circ}$ west longitude from Greenwich.

The Cimarron meridian, in longitude $103^{\circ}$ west from Greenwich, extends from latitude $36^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ to $37^{\circ}$ north, and with the base line in latitude $36^{\circ}$ $30^{\prime}$ north, governs the surveys in Oklahoma Territory west of $100^{\circ}$ west longitude from Greenwich.

## V. TABLES.

## TABLE I.

Correction to One Hundred Units measured along the Slopes Given.

| Units rise in 100. | Corresponding <br> Vertical Angle. | Correction. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1.02 | $0^{\circ} 35^{\prime}$ | 0.005 |
| 2.01 | $1^{\circ} 09^{\prime}$ | 0.020 |
| 3.03 | $1^{\circ} 44^{\prime}$ | 0.046 |
| 4.02 | $2^{\circ} 18^{\prime}$ | 0.081 |
| 5.01 | $2^{\circ} 52^{\prime}$ | 0.125 |
| 6.00 | $3^{\circ} 26^{\prime}$ | 0.179 |
| 7.00 | $4^{\circ} 00^{\prime}$ | 0.244 |
| 8.02 | $4^{\circ} 35^{\prime}$ | 0.320 |
| 9.01 | $5^{\circ} 09^{\prime}$ | 0.404 |
| 10.01 | $5^{\circ} 43^{\prime}$ | 0.497 |
| 20.01 | $11^{\circ} 19^{\prime}$ | 1.617 |
| 30.00 | $16^{\circ} 42^{\prime}$ | 4.218 |
| 40.00 | $21^{\circ} 48$ | 7.151 |
| 50.00 | $26^{\circ} 34^{\prime}$ | 10.559 |

## TABLE II. ${ }^{1}$

## Correction Coefficient for Temperature and Hygronetric Conditions.

This correction is used when no hygrometric observations have been made. To the difference in altitude found in Table III. for the given barometer readings is added algebraically the product of that difference and the correction below given, according to the formula, Diff. Alt. $=($ Diff. by Table III. $)(1+c)$.

| SUM O. T. ${ }^{2}$ | CORR. <br> COEFF. | SUM O. T. | Corr. <br> COEFF. | SUM O. T. | CORR. <br> CORFF. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0.1024 | $70^{\circ}$ | 0.0273 | $140^{\circ}$ | 0.0471 |
| 10 | 0.0915 | 80 | 0.0166 | 150 | 0.0575 |
| 20 | 0.0806 | 90 | 0.0058 | 160 | 0.0677 |
| 30 | 0.0698 | 100 | 0.0049 | 170 | 0.0779 |
| 40 | 0.0592 | 110 | 0.0156 | 180 | 0.0879 |
| 50 | 0.0486 | 120 | 0.0262 |  |  |
| 60 | 0.0380 | 130 | 0.0368 |  |  |

[^59]
## APPENDIX.

## TABLE III. ${ }^{1}$

## Barometric Elevations.

Giving altitudes above arbitrary sea level (barometer reading 30 inches) for various barometer readings $B$.

To determine difference of elevation of two points having barometer readings $B$ and $B_{1}$, take from the table the altitudes corresponding to $B$ and $B_{1}$, and correct their difference by Table II. The corrected difference is the quantity required.

| $B$. | A. | $\begin{gathered} \text { DIFF. } \\ \text { FOR .01. } \end{gathered}$ | $B$. | A. | $\begin{gathered} \text { DIFF. } \\ \text { FOR . } 01 . \end{gathered}$ | $B$. | A. | Diff. <br> FOR . 01 . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Inches. | Feet. | Feet. | Inches. | Feet. | Feet. | Inches. | Feet. | Feet. |
| 11.0 | 27,336 | -24.6 | 14.0 | 20,765 | - 19.5 | 17.0 | 15,476 | -16.0 |
| 11.1 | 27,090 |  | 14.1 | 20,570 |  | 17.1 | 15,316 |  |
| 11.2 | 26,846 | 24.2 | 14.2 | 20,377 | 19. | 17.2 | 15,157 | 15.8 |
| 11.3 | 26,604 | 24.0 | 14.3 | 20,186 | 18.9 | 17.3 | 14,999 | 15.7 |
| 11.4 | 26,364 | 23.8 | 14.4 | 19,997 | 18.8 | I $7 \cdot 4$ | 14,842 | 15.6 |
| II. 5 | 26, I 26 | 23.6 | 14.5 | 19,809 | 18.6 | 17.5 | 14,686 | 15.5 |
| 11.6 | 25,890 |  | 14.6 | 19,623 | 18.6 | 17.6 | 14,53I | 15.5 |
| 11.7 | 25,656 | 23.2 | 14.7 | 19,437 | 18.5 | 17.7 | 14,377 | 15.4 |
| 11.8 | 25,424 |  | 14.8 | 19,252 | 18.4 | 17.8 | 14,223 | $5 \cdot 4$ |
| 11.9 | 25,194 | 22.8 | 14.9 | 19,068 | 18.2 | 17.9 | 14,070 | 15.2 |
| 12.0 | 24,966 | 22.6 | 15.0 | 18,886 | 18.1 | 18.0 | 13,918 | 15.1 |
| 12.1 | 24,740 | 22.4 | 15.1 | 18,705 | 18.0 | 18.1 | 13,767 | 15.0 |
| 12.2 | 24,516 | 22.2 | 15.2 | 18,525 | 17.9 | 18.2 | 13,617 | 14.9 |
| 12.3 | 24,294 | 22.1 | 15.3 | 18,346 | 17.8 | 18.3 | 1 3,468 |  |
| 12.4 | 24,073 | . 9 | 15.4 | 18,168 | 17.6 | 18.4 | 13,319 | 14.7 |
| 12.5 | 23,854 |  | 15.5 | 17,992 |  | 18.5 | 13,172 |  |
| 12.6 | 23,637 | 21.6 | 15.6 | 17,817 | 17.4 | 18.6 | 13,025 | 14.6 |
| 12.7 | 23,421 |  | 15.7 | 17,643 |  | 18.7 | 12,879 | 14.6 |
| 12.8 | 23,207 | 21.2 | 15.8 | 17,470 | 17.2 | 18.8 | 12,733 | $4 \cdot 4$ |
| 12.9 | 22,995 | 21.0 | 15.9 | 17,298 | 17.1 | 18.9 | 12,589 | 14.4 |
| 13.0 | 22,785 | 20.9 | 16.0 | 17,127 | 16.9 | 19.0 | 1 2,445 | 14.3 |
| 13.1 | 22,576 | 20.8 | 16.1 | 16,958 | 16.9 | 19.1 | 12,302 | 14.2 |
| 13.2 | 22,368 | 20.6 | 16.2 | 16,789 | 16.8 | 19.2 | 12,160 |  |
| 13.3 | 22,162 | 20.4 | 16.3 | 16,621 | 16.7 | 19.3 | 12,018 | 14.1 |
| 13.4 | 21,958 |  | 16.4 | 16,454 | 16.6 | 16.4 | ェ 1,877 |  |
| 13.5 | 21,757 | 20.0 | 16.5 | 16,288 | 16.4 | 19.5 | 11,737 | 13.9 |
| 13.6 | 21,557 |  | 16.6 | 16,124 |  | 19.6 | 11,598 |  |
| 13.7 | 21,358 | 19.8 | 16.7 | 15,961 | 16.3 | 19.7 | II,459 | 13.9 13.8 |
| 13.8 | 21,160 |  | 16.8 | 15,798 | 16.3 | 19.8 | I 1,321 |  |
| 13.9 | 20,962 |  | 16.9 | 15,636 | 16.0 | 19.9 | II, 184 | 13.7 -13.7 |
| 14.0 | 20,765 | -19.7 | 17.0 | 15,476 | -16.0 | 20.0 | I I,047 | $-13.7$ |

[^60]TABLE III. (continued).

| $B$. | A. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { DIFF. } \\ & \text { FOR . } 01 . \end{aligned}$ | $B$. | A. | $\begin{gathered} \text { DIFF. } \\ \text { FOR .01. } \end{gathered}$ | $B$. | A. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { DIFF. } \\ & \text { FOR . } 01 . \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Inches. | Feet. | Feet. | Inches. | Feet. | Feet. | Inches. | Feet. | Feet. |
| 20.0 | 11,047 | - 13.6 | 23.7 | 6,423 | - 11.5 | 27.4 | 2,470 | - 9.9 |
| 20.1 | 10,911 | 13.6 | 23.8 | 6,308 | 11.4 | 27.5 | 2,371 | 9.9 9.9 |
| 20.2 | 10,776 | 13.5 13.4 | 23.9 | 6,194 | 11.4 | 27.6 | 2,272 | 9.9 |
| 20.3 | 10,642 | 13.4 | 24.0 | 6,080 | 11.4 | 27.7 | 2,173 | 9.9 9.8 |
| 20.4 | 10,508 |  | 24.1 | 5,967 | 11.3 | 27.8 | 2,075 | 9.8 |
| 20.5 | 10,375 | 13.3 | 24.2 | 5,854 | 11.3 | 27.9 | 1,977 | $9 \cdot 7$ |
| 20.6 | 10,242 | 13.3 | 24.3 | 5,741 | 11.2 | 28.0 | 1,880 | 9.7 |
| 20.7 | 10, 110 | 13.1 | 24.4 | 5,629 | 11.1 | 28.1 | 1,783 | 9.7 |
| 20.8 | 9,979 | 13.1 | $24 \cdot 5$ | 5,518 | 1.1 | 28.2 | 1,686 | 9.7 |
| 20.9 | 9,848 | 13.0 | 24.6 | 5,407 | II.I | 28.3 | 1,589 | 9.7 |
| 21.0 | 9,718 | 12.9 | 24.7 | 5,296 | 11.0 | 28.4 | 1,493 | 9.6 |
| 21.1 | 9,589 | 12.9 | 24.8 | 5,186 | 10.9 | 28.5 | 1,397 | 9. |
| 21.2 | 9,460 | 1.2.8 | 24.9 | 5,077 | 10.9 | 28.6 | 1,302 | 9.5 |
| 21.3 | 9,332 | 12.8 | 25.0 | 4,968 | 10.9 | 28.7 | 1,207 | 9.5 |
| 21.4 | 9,204 | 12.7 | 25.1 | 4,859 | 10.8 | 28.8 | 1, I 12 | 9.4 |
| 21.5 | 9,077 | 12.6 | 25.2 | 4,751 | 10.8 | 28.9 | 1,018 | 9.4 |
| 21.6 | 8,95I | 12.6 | 25.3 | 4,643 | 10.8 | 29.0 | 924 | 9.4 |
| 21.7 | 8,825 |  | 25.4 | 4,535 |  | 29.1 | 830 | 9.4 |
| 21.8 | 8,700 | 12.5 | 25.5 | 4,428 | 10.7 | 29.2 | 736 | 9.3 |
| 21.9 | 8,575 | 12.4 | 25.6 | 4,321 | 10.6 | 29.3 | 643 | 9.3 |
| 22.0 | 8,451 | 12.4 | 25.7 | 4,215 | 10.6 | 294 | 550 | 9.2 |
| 22.1 | 8,327 | 12.4 | 25.8 | 4,109 | 10.5 | 29.5 | 458 | 9.2 |
| 22.2 | 8,204 | 12.2 | 25.9 | 4,004 | 10.5 | 29.6 | 366 | 9.2 |
| 22.3 | 8,082 | 12.2 | 26.0 | 3,899 | 10.5 | 29.7 | 274 | 9.2 |
| 22.4 | 7,960 | 12.2 | 26.1 | 3,794 | 10.4 | 29.8 | 182 | 9.1 |
| 22.5 | 7,838 | 12.1 | 26.2 | 3,690 | 10.4 | 29.9 | 91 | 9.1 |
| 22.6 | 7,717 | . 0 | 26.3 | 3,586 |  | 30.0 | 00 | 9. |
| 22.7 | 7,597 | 12.0 | 26.4 | 3,483 | 10.3 | 30.1 | -91 | 9.0 |
| 22.8 | 7,477 |  | 26.5 | 3,380 |  | 30.2 | 181 | 9.0 |
| 22.9 | 7,358 | 11.9 | 26.6 | 3,277 | 10.2 | 30.3 | 271 | 9.0 |
| 23.0 | 7,239 | 11.8 | 26.7 | 3,175 | 10.2 | 30.4 | 361 | 9.0 |
| 23.1 | 7,121 | 11.7 | 26.8 | 3,073 | 10.1 | 30.5 | 451 | 8.9 |
| 23.2 | 7,004 | 11.7 | 26.9 | 2,972 | 10.I | 30.6 | 540 | 8.9 |
| 23.3 | 6,887 |  | 27.0 | 2,871 | 10.1 | 30.7 | 629 | 8.8 |
| 23.4 | 6,770 | 11.6 | 27.1 | 2,770 | 10.0 | 30.8 | 717 | 8.8 |
| 23.5 | 6,654 | 11.6 | 27.2 | 2,670 | 10.0 | 30.9 | 805 | -8.8 |
| 23.6 | 6,538 | - 11.5 | 27.3 | 2,570 | -10.0 | 31.0 | $-893$ |  |
| 23.7 | 6,423 |  | 27.4 | 2,470 |  |  |  |  |

## APPENDIX.

## TABLE IV.

Polar Distance of Polaris. For January 1 of years named.

| 1894 | 1897 | 1900 | 1903 | 1906 | 1909 | 1912 | 1915 | 1918 | 1921 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $I^{\circ} 15.43^{\prime}$ | $I^{\circ} 14.50^{\prime}$ | $I^{\circ} 13.55^{\prime}$ | $I^{\circ} 12.62^{\prime}$ | $I^{\circ} 11.68^{\prime}$ | $I^{\circ} 10.75^{\prime}$ | $I^{\circ} 09.82^{\prime}$ | $I^{\circ} 08.88^{\prime}$ | $I^{\circ} 07.97^{\prime}$ | $I^{\circ} 07.03^{\prime}$ |

$\operatorname{Sin}$ of azimuth at elongation $=\frac{\sin \text { polar distance }}{\text { cosine latitude }}$.
Latitude $=$ altitude of Polaris at culmination $\pm$ polar distance - refraction correction given below.

| Latitude. | Correction, Minutes. | Latitude. | Correction, Minutes. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $20^{\circ}$ | 2.60 | $50^{\circ}$ | 0.80 |
| 30 | 1.65 | 60 | 0.55 |
| 40 | 1.13 |  |  |

## TABLE V. ${ }^{1}$

## Amount and Variation of the Magnetic Needle from its Mean Daily Position.

The letters E and W indicate which side of the mean position the needle points.

| Skason and Position in Latitude. | local Mean Time; Morning Hours. |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $6^{\text {h }}$ | $7^{\text {h }}$ | $8^{\text {h }}$ | $9^{\text {h }}$ | 10 ${ }^{\text {h }}$ | $\mathrm{Ir}^{\text {h }}$ | $12^{\text {h }}$ |
| December, January, February : |  | 1 | , | ' |  |  |  |
| Latitude $37^{\circ}$ to $49^{\circ}$. | 0.7 E | I.I E | 1.9 E | 2.2 E | 1.5 E | -. 1 W | 1.8 W |
| Latitude $25^{\circ}$ to $37^{\circ}$ | 0.15 | 0.1 E | 1.0 E | 2.0 E | 2.2 E | 1.1 E | 0.5 W |
| March, April, May: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Latitude $37^{\circ}$ to $49^{\circ}$ | 2.6 E | $3.8{ }^{\text {E }}$ | 4.4 E | 3.5 E | 1.2 E | 1.6 E | 3.8 W |
| Lune, July, August: | 1.6 E | 2.8 E | 3.3 E | 2.6 E | 1.1 E | 0.6 | 1.9 W |
| Latitude $37^{\circ}$ to $49^{\circ}$ | 4.0 E | 5.6 E | 5.7 E | 4.5 E | 1.7 E | 1. 6 E | 4.I ${ }^{\text {W }}$ |
| Latitude $25^{\circ}$ to $37^{\circ}$ | 2.4 E | 4.0 E | 4.2 E | 2.9 E | 0.5 E | 1.6 W | 2.8 W |
| September, October, November: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Latitude $37^{\circ}$ to $49^{\circ}$ | 1.8 E | 2.6 E | 3.1 E | 2.5 E | 1.0 E | 1.5 E | 3.3 W |
| Latitude $25^{\circ}$ to $37^{\circ}$ | 0.9 E | ${ }_{2.1} \mathrm{E}$ | 2.6 E | 2.15 | 0.6 E | 0.9 W | ${ }_{2.1} \mathrm{~W}$ |


| Season and Pobition in Latitude. | Local Mean Time; afternoon Hours. |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | $\mathrm{I}^{\text {h }}$ | $2^{\text {h }}$ | $3^{\text {h }}$ | $4^{\text {h }}$ | $5^{\text {h }}$ | $6^{\text {h }}$ |
| December, January, February : |  | , |  | 1 |  | , |  |
| Latitude $37^{\circ}$ to $49^{\circ}$ | 1.8 W | 2.9 W | 2.8 W | 2.I W | I. 3 W | 0.7 W | 0.2 W |
| Latitude $25^{\circ}$ to $37^{\circ}$ | 0.5 W | 1.5 W | 1.8 W | 1.6 W | 1.0 W | 0.4 W | 0.1 W |
| March, April, May: | 3.8 W | 4.8 W | 4.6 W | 3.8 W | 2.5 W | 1.4 W | 0.7 W |
| Latitude $25^{\circ}$ to $37^{\circ}$. | I. 9 W | 2.6 W | 2.8 W | 2.4 W | 1.6 W | 0.9 W | 0.5 W |
| June, July, August: Latitude $37^{\circ}$ to $49^{\circ}$ | 4.I W | 5.6 W | 5.6 W | 4.6 W | 3.0 W |  | 0.6 W |
| Latitude $25^{\circ}$ to $37^{\circ}$ | ${ }_{2.8}^{4.1} \mathrm{~W}$ | 3.2 W | ${ }_{3.1}$ I W | ${ }_{2.4}^{4.6} \mathrm{~W}$ | 1.5 W | 0.8 W | 0.4 W |
| September, October, November : Latitude $37^{\circ}$ to $49^{\circ}$ | 3.3 W | 4.0 W | 3.4 W | 2.3 W | 1.2 W | 0.6 W | o.I W |
| Latitude $25^{\circ}$ to $37{ }^{\circ}$ | ${ }_{2.1} \mathrm{I}$ W | 2.3 W | ${ }_{\text {I. }}^{3} \mathrm{l}$ W | 1.2 W | 0.7 W | 0.4 W | 0.2 W |

[^61]
## TABLE VI. ${ }^{1}$

Approximate Local Mean Times (counting from noon 24 hours) of the Elongations and Culminations of Polaris in the Year ' 1897 for Latitude $40^{\circ}$ N.; Longitude $6^{\text {b }}$ W. from Greenwich.

| Date. | East <br> Elongation. |  | West <br> Elongation. |  | UPPER Culmination. |  | Lower Culmination. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | h. | m. | h. | m. |  |  |  |  |
| Jan. 1 | 0 | 38.2 | 12 | 27.8 | 6 | 33.6 | 18 | 31.6 |
| 15 | 23 | 39.0 | 11 | 32.5 | 5 | 38.6 | 17 | 36.3 |
| Feb. 1 | 22 | 3 I .8 | 10 | 25.4 | 4 | 31.2 | 16 | 29.2 |
| 15 | 21 | 36.6 | 9 | 30.2 | 3 | $35 \cdot 9$ | 15 | 33.9 |
| Mar. 1 | 20 | 41.4 | 8 | 34.9 | 2 | 40.7 | 14 | 38.7 |
| ${ }^{15}$ | 19 | 46.3 | 7 | 39.8 | 1 | $45 \cdot 7$ | 13 | 43.7 |
| Apr. 1 | 18 | 39.3 | 6 | 32.8 | 0 | 38.6 | 12 | 36.7 |
| $15$ | 17 | 44.3 | 5 | 37.8 | 23 | 39.7 | 11 | 41.7 |
| May 1 | 16 | 41. 5 | 4 | 35.0 | 22 | 36.8 | 10 | 38.8 |
| 15 | 15 | 46.6 | 3 | 40.1 | 21 | 41.9 | 9 | 43.9 |
| June 1 | 14 | 39.9 | 2 | 33.4 | 20 | $35 \cdot 3$ | 8 | $37 \cdot 3$ |
| ${ }^{15}$ | 13 | 45.0 | 1 | 38.5 | 19 | 40.4 . | 6 | 42.4 |
| July 1 | 12 | 42.4 | 0 | 35.9 | 18 | 37.8 | 6 | 39.8 |
| ${ }^{1} 5$ | 11 | $47 \cdot 5$ | 23 | 37.1 | 17 | 42.9 | 5 | 44.9 |
| Aug. 1 | 10 | 41.0 | 22 | 30.6 | 16 | 36.4 | 4 | 38.4 |
| $15$ | 9 | 46.1 | 21 | 35.7 | 15 | 41.5 | , | 43.5 |
| Sept. I | 8 | 39.5 | 20 | 29.1 | 14 | 34.9 | 2 | 36.9 |
|  | 7 | 44.6 | 19 | 34.2 | 13 | 40.0 | 1 | 42.0 |
| Oct. 1 | 6 | 41.8 | 18 | 31.4 | 12 | 37.2 | 0 | 39.2 |
| ${ }^{1} 5$ | 5 | 46.8 | 17 | 36.4 | 11 | 42.2 | 23 | 40.3 |
| Nov. 1 | 4 | 40.0 | 16 | 29.6 | 10 | $35 \cdot 4$ | 22 | 33.4 |
| ${ }^{15}$ | 3 | 44.8 | 15 | 34.4 | 9 | 40.2 | 21 | 38.2 |
| Dec. 1 | 2 | 41.8 | 14 | 31.4 | 8 | $37 \cdot 2$ | 20 | 35.2 |
| 15 | 1 | 46.5 | 13 | 36.1 | 7 | 41.9 | 19 | 39.9 |

To refer to any calendar day other than the first and fifteenth of each month, subtract $3.94^{\mathrm{m}}$ for every day between it and the preceding tabular day, or add 3.94 m for every day between it and the succeeding tabular day.

To refer the tabular times to any year subsequent to the year 1897, add $0.25^{\mathrm{m}}$ (nearly) for every additional year (after 1900, $0.2^{\mathrm{m}}$ ).

Also, For the second year after a leap year, add, $\quad 0.9 \mathrm{~m}$.
For the third year after a leap year, add, $\quad 1.7^{\mathrm{m}}$.
For leap year before March 1, add, $\quad 2.6^{\mathrm{m}}$.
For leap year on and after March 1, subtract, $1.2^{\mathrm{m}}$.
For the first year after a leap year the table is correct, except for the regular annual change.

To refer the tabular times to other longitudes than six bours, add when east, and subtract when west of six hours, $0.16^{\mathrm{m}}$ for each hour.

To refer to any other than the tabular latitude between the limits of $25^{\circ}$ and $50^{\circ}$ north, $a d d$ to the time of west elongation $0.13^{\mathrm{m}}$ for every degree south of latitude $40^{\circ}$, and subtract from the time of west elongation $0.18^{\mathrm{m}}$ for every degree north of $40^{\circ}$. Reverse these signs for corrections to the times of east elongation. For latitudes as high as $60^{\circ}$, diminish the times of west elongation and increase the times of east elongation by $0.23^{\mathrm{m}}$ for every degree north of latitude $40^{\circ}$.

[^62]
## APPENDIX．

## TABLE VII．${ }^{1}$

Refraction Corrections to Declination of the Sun．
The hour angle is the time either side of noon．

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { LATI- } \\ & \text { TUDE. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 思 } \\ & \text { 号 } \\ & \text { OK } \\ & \text { 云 } \end{aligned}$ | Declinations． |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $+20^{\circ}$ | $+15^{\circ}$ | $+10^{\circ}$ | $+5^{\circ}$ | $0^{\circ}$ | $-5^{\circ}$ | $-10^{\circ}$ | $-15^{\circ}$ | $-20^{\circ}$ |
| － | h． | ＂ | ＇ | ＂ | －＂ | －＇ | －＂ | ，＂ | －＂ | ＇＇＇ |
| 2500 | 0 | 005 | O 10 | － 15 | － 21 | － 27 | － 33 | 040 | － 48 | － 57 |
|  | 2 | － 08 | O 14 | － 19 | O 25 | －31 | － 38 | － 46 | － 54 | 105 |
|  | 3 | 012 | － 18 | O 24 | － 30 | － 37 | － 44 | － 53 | 104 | 118 |
|  | 4 | － 23 | － 29 | － 35 | － 45 | － 53 | $1{ }^{1} \mathrm{O}$ | 116 | 131 | 152 |
|  | 5 | － 49 | － 59 | 110 | 124 | 152 | 207 | 244 | 346 | 543 |
| 2730 | 0 | － 08 | 013 | － 18 | O 24 | － 30 | － 36 | 044 | － 52 | 102 |
|  | 2 | 0 II | － 16 | － 22 | － 28 | － 34 | －4I | － 49 | 100 | 110 |
|  | 3 | － 17 | － 22 | － 28 | － 35 | － 42 | － 50 | 100 | 111 | 126 |
|  | 4 | －28， | － 35 | － 42 | － 50 | 100 | 111 | I 26 | 143 | 209 |
|  | 5 | － 54 | 105 | 118 | I 34 | I 54 | 224 | 311 | 438 | 815 |
| 3000 | 0 | 010 | 015 | 021 | O 27 | － 33 | O 40 | － 48 | － 57 | 108 |
|  | 2 | － 14 | － 19 | － 25 | －31 | － $3^{8}$ | － 46 | － 54 | 105 | 118 |
|  | 3 | － 20 | － 26 | － 32 | － 39 | － 47 | － 55 | 106 | 119 | 136 |
|  | 4 | － 32 | － 39 | O 46 | － 52 | 106 | 119 | 135 | 157 | 229 |
|  | 5 | 100 | 110 | 124 | 152 | 207 | 244 | 346 | 543 | 1306 |
| 3230 | 0 | －13 | － 18 | － 24 | － 30 | － 36 | － 44 | － 52 | 102 | 114 |
|  | 2 | － 17 | － 22 | － 28 | － 35 | － 42 | － 50 | 100 | 1 II | 126 |
|  | 3 | O 23 | － 29 | － 35 | － 43 | － 51 | 1 OI | 113 | 128 | 147 |
|  | 4 | － 35 | － 43 | $\bigcirc 51$ | 1 OI | $\begin{array}{ll}1 & 13 \\ 1 & \\ 1\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{ll}1 & 27\end{array}$ | 146 | 213 | 254 |
|  | 5 | 103 | 115 | 131 | 153 | 220 | 305 | 425 | 736 |  |
| 3500 | 0 | O 15 | 021 | O 27 | － 33 | O 40 | － 48 | － 57 | I 08 | 121 |
|  | 2 | O 20 | － 25 | － 32 | － 38 | － 46 | － 55 | 105 | 118 | 135 |
|  | 3 | － 26 | － 33 | － 39 | － 47 | － 56 | 107 | 121 | $1{ }^{1} 3^{8}$ | 200 |
|  | 4 | － 39 | － 47 | － 56 | 107 | 120 | 136 | 159 | 232 | 325 |
|  | 5 | 107 | 120 | I 38 | 200 | 234 | 329 | 514 | 1016 |  |

${ }^{1}$ Computed from formula

$$
C=57^{\prime \prime} \cot (\delta+N)
$$

in which $\delta$ is the declination，plus when north，and minus when south；and $N$ an auxiliary angle found by

$$
\tan N=\cot \phi \cos t,
$$

in which $\phi$ is the latitude of the place，and $t$ the angle between the meridian of the place and the meridian through the sun at the given time，－called the＂hour angle．＂ The formulæ are from Chauvenet＇s＂Spherical and Practical Astronomy，＂vol．I．， p．171．The table was computed by Mr．Edward W．Arms，C．E．，for Messrs．W．\＆ L．E．Gurley，of Troy，N．Y．，and is here used by their permission．

TABLE VII. (continued).

| LatiTUDE. |  | Declinations. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $+20^{\circ}$ | $+15^{\circ}$ | $+10^{\circ}$ | $+5^{\circ}$ | $0^{\circ}$ | $-5^{\circ}$ | $-10{ }^{\circ}$ | $-15^{\circ}$ | $-20^{\circ}$ |
| - | h. | , " | - | " | ' ${ }^{\prime}$ | ' ${ }^{\prime}$ | -" | - " | - ${ }^{\prime}$ |  |
| 3730 | 0 | O 18 | O 24 | - 30 | - 36 | - 44 | - $5^{2}$ | 102 | 114 | 129 |
|  | 2 | 022 | - 28 | - 35 | - 42 | - 50 | 100 | 112 | I 26 | 145 |
|  | 3 | - 29 | - 36 | - 43 | - 52 | 102 | 114 | 129 | 149 | 216 |
|  | 4 | - 43 | - 51 | 1 OI | 113 | 127 | 149 | 214 | 254 | 405 |
|  | 5 | 1 II | 126 | 144 | 210 | 249 | 355 | 615 | 1458 |  |
| 4000 | 0 | 021 | - 27 | - 33 | O 40 | - 48 | - 57 | 108 | 121 | 103 |
|  | 2 | O 25 | - 32 | - 39 | 046 | - 52 | 106 | 119 | 135 | 157 |
|  | 3 | - 33 | O 40 | O 48 | - 57 | 108 | 121 | 138 | 202 | 236 |
|  | 4 | - 47 | - 55 | 106 | 119 | I 36 | $15^{8}$ | 230 | 321 | 459 |
|  | 5 | 115 | 131 | 151 | 220 | 305 | 425 | 734 | 2518 |  |
| 4230 | 0 | 024 | - 30 | - 36 | O 44 | - 52 | 102 | 114 | I 29 | 149 |
|  | 2 | - 28 | - 35 | - 39 | - 50 | 100 | 112 | 126 | 145 | 2 II |
|  | 3 | - 36 | - 43 | - 52 | 102 | 113 | 129 | 149 | 217 | 259 |
|  | 4 | - 50 | 100 | 1 II | 1 26 | 144 | 210 | 249 | 355 | 616 |
|  | 5 | 116 | 1 36 | 158 | 230 | 322 | 500 | 924 |  | - |
| 4500 | 0 | - 27 | - 33 | - 40 | - 48 | - 57 | 108 | 121 | I 39 | 202 |
|  | 2 | - 32 | - 39 | 046 | O 52 | 106 | 119 | 135 | 157 | 229 |
|  | 3 | - 40 | - 47 | - 56 | 107 | 121 | 138 | 200 | 234 | 329 |
|  | 4 | - 54 | 104 | 116 | 133 | 154 | 224 | 3 II | 438 | 815 |
|  | 5 | 123 | 141 | 205 | 241 | 340 | 540 | 1202 |  |  |
| 4730 | 0 | - 30 | - 36 | - 44 | - 52 | 102 | 114 | I 29 | 149 | 218 |
|  | 2 | - 35 | O 42 | - 50 | 100 | 112 | 126 | 145 | 2 OI | 251 |
|  | 3 | - 43 | - 51 | 1 OI | 113 | 128 | 147 | 215 | 256 | 408 |
|  | 4 | - 56 | 109 1 | 123 | 140 | 205 | 240 | 3 39 | 537 | II 18 |
|  | 5 | 127 | 146 | 212 | 252 | 4 OI | 630 | 1619 |  |  |
| 5000 | 0 | - 33 | - 40 | - 48 | - 57 | 108 | 121 | I 39 | 202 | 236 |
|  | 2 | - 38 | O 46 | - 55 | I 06 | 118 | 135 | I 57 | 228 | 319 |
|  | 3 | - 47 | - 56 | 106 | 119 | 1 36 | 229 | 231 | 323 | 502 |
|  | 4 | 102 | 114 | 129 | 148 | 216 | 258 | 418 | 659 | 1947 |
|  | 5 | 130 | 151 | 219 | 304 | 422 | 728 | 2410 |  |  |
| 5230 | 0 | - 36 | O 44 | - 52 | 102 | 114 | 129 | 149 | 218 | 305 |
|  | 2 | O 43 | O 50 | - 59 | 111 | I 26 | 142 | 223 |  | 355 |
|  | 3 | - 50 | 100 | 111 | 126 | I 45 | 2 II | 251 | 258 | 622 |
|  | 4 | 105 | 118 | 1 35 | 210 | 228 | 319 | 453 | 842 | - |
|  | 5 | I 34 | I 56 | 227 | 316 | 447 | 852 |  | - |  |
| 5500 | 0 | 040 | - 48 | - 57 | 108 | 121 | 139 | 202 | 236 | 333 |
|  | 2 | - 46 | - 55 | 105 | 118 | I 34 | 1 56 | 230 | 315 | 447 |
|  | 3 | - 55 | 106 | 119 | 1 35 | 158 | 230 | 321 | $45^{8}$ | 919 |
|  | 4 | 110 | 123 | 142 | 206 | 243 | 344 | 549 | 1241 | - |
|  | 5 | 137 | 201 | 234 | 328 | 515 | 1018 |  | - | - |

## APPENDIX.

## TABLE VIII. ${ }^{1}$

## Magnetic Declination.

Formulas giving approximately the magnetic declination at the places named and for any time within the limits of the period of observation. The places are divided into three groups, as follows:

Group I. - Magnetic stations on the eastern coast of the United States and inclusive of the region of the Appalachian range, with some additional stations in Newfoundland and other foreign localities.

Group II.-Magnetic stations mainly in the central part of the United States between the Appalachian and Rocky Mountain ranges, with additions in British North America, Canada, the West Indies, and Central America.

Group III. - Magnetic stations on the Pacific coast and Rocky Mountain region; also in Mexico and Alaska and in some foreign countries.

D stands for declination, + indicating west, and - east declination; $m$ stands for $t-1850.0$ or for the difference in time, expressed in years and fraction of a year, for any time $t$ and the middle of the century; a *indicates uncertainty.


| 8 | Name of Station and State. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Lati- } \\ & \text { TUDE. } \end{aligned}$ | West LonglTUDE. | The Magnetic Declination expressed as a Function of Time. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | - 0 - |
|  | 8 Bethlehem, Pa. | 4036.4 | 7522.9 | $\mathrm{D}=+5.40+3.13 \sin (1.55 m-38.3)$ |
| 29 | Huntingdon, Pa. | 4031 | 7802 | $\mathrm{D}=+3.76+2.93 \sin (1.48 m-35.2)$ |
|  | New Brunswick, N.J. | 4029.9 | 7426.8 | $\mathrm{D}=+5 . \mathrm{HI}+2.94 \sin (\mathrm{I} .30 \mathrm{~m}+4.2)$ |
|  | Jamesburg, N. J. | 4021 | $7427$ | $\mathrm{D}=+6.03+2.94 \sin (1.40 \mathrm{~m}-22.4)$ |
| 32 | 2 Harrisburg, Pa. | 4015.9 | 7652.9 | $\mathrm{D}=+2.93+2.98 \sin (1.50 m+0.2)$ |
| 33 | 3 Hatboro, l'a. | 4012 | 7507 | $\begin{aligned} \mathrm{I}=+5.17 & +3.16 \sin (1.54 m-16.7) \\ & +0.22 \sin (4.1 m+157) \end{aligned}$ |
| 34 | 4 Philad | 3956.9 | 7509.0 | $\mathrm{D}=+5.36+3.17 \sin (1.50 \mathrm{~m}-26.1)$ |
|  | 5 Ch |  |  |  |
| 5 |  | 395 | 7740 | $+0.20 \sin (4.6 m+124)$ |
| 36 | 6 Baltimore, | 3917.8 | 7637.0 | $\mathrm{D}=+3.20+2.57 \sin (1.45 m-21.2)$ |
| 37 | Washingto | 3853.3 | 7700.6 | $\begin{aligned} \mathrm{D}= & +2.73 \end{aligned}+2.57 \sin (1.45 m-21.6)$ |
|  | Cape Henlopen, Del. | 3846.7 | 7505.0 | $\mathrm{D}=+4.01+3.22 \sin (\mathbf{1} .35 m-25.2)$ |
|  | Williamsburg, Va. | 3716.2 | 7642.4 | $\mathrm{D}=+2.33+2.56 \sin (\mathbf{1} .5 \mathrm{~m}-38.1)$ |
|  | Cape Henry, V | 3655.6 | 7600.4 | $\mathrm{D}=+2.42+2.25 \sin (\mathrm{I} .47 m-30.6)$ |
|  | Newbern, N. C. | 3506 | 7702 | $\mathrm{D}=+0.63+2.56 \sin (\mathrm{I} .45 m-18.2)^{*}$ |
|  | Milledgeville, Ga | 3304.2 | 8312 | $\mathrm{D}=-3.10+2.53 \sin (\mathbf{1} .40 \mathrm{~m}-6 \mathrm{I} .9) *$ |
|  | Charleston, S. | 3246 | 7955.8 | $\mathrm{D}=-1.82+2.75 \sin (1.40 \mathrm{~m}-12.1)^{*}$ |
| 44 | Savannah, Ga. | 3204.9 | 8105.5 | $\mathrm{D}=-2.13+2.55 \sin (1.40 m-40.5)^{*}$ |
| 45 | Paris, France. | 4850.2 | E | $\begin{aligned} \mathrm{D}= & +6^{\circ} .479+16^{\circ} .002 \sin (0.765 n \\ & +18^{\circ} 46^{\prime} .5+[0.85-0.35 \sin \\ & (0.69 n)] \sin [(4.04+0.0054 n \\ & \left.\left.+.000035 n^{2}\right) n\right] \end{aligned}$ |
| 46 | St. George's, Bermuda |  |  |  |
|  | Riode Janeiro, Brazil | -22 54.8 | 4309.5 | $\mathrm{D}=+2.19+9.91 \sin (0.80 \mathrm{~m}$ |
|  | Grocr II. |  |  |  |
|  | York Factory, British North America | 56 | 92 |  |
|  | Fort Albany, British |  |  |  |
|  | North America. | 5222 | 8238 | $\mathrm{D}=+15.78+6.95 \sin (1.20 \mathrm{~m}-$ |
|  | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Duluth, Minn., an } \\ \text { Superior City, Wi }\end{array}\right.$ | 4645.5 4639.9 | $\left.\begin{array}{l}9204.5 \\ 9204.2\end{array}\right\}$ | $\mathrm{D}=-7.70+2.41 \sin (1.4 m-120.0)^{*}$ |
|  | Sault Ste City |  |  |  |
|  | Mich. | 46 | 8420.1 | $\mathrm{D}=+1.54+$ |
|  | Pierrepont |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | 7603.0 | $\mathrm{D}=+5.95+3.78 \sin (1.4 m-22.2)$ |
|  | Toronto, Canada. | 4339 | 7923.5 | $\mathrm{D}=+3.60+2.82 \sin (1.4 m-44.7)$ |
|  |  |  |  | $+0.09 \sin (9.3 m+136)$ |
|  |  |  |  | + $+0.08 \sin (19 m+247)$ |
|  | Grand Hav | 4305.2 | 8612.6 | $\mathrm{D}=-4.95+0.0380 \mathrm{~m}+0.00120 \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ |
|  | Milwaukee, W | 4302.5 | 8754.2 | $\mathrm{D}=-4.12+3.60 \sin (1.45 m-64.5)^{*}$ |
|  | Buffalo, N. Y. | 4252.8 | 7853.5 | $\mathrm{D}=+3.66+3.47 \sin (1.4 m-27.8)$ |
| 10 | Detroit, Mich. | 4220.0 | 8303.0 | $\mathrm{D}=-0.97+2.21 \sin (1.5 m-15.3)$ |
| 11 | Ypsilanti, Mich. | 4214 | 8338 | $\mathrm{D}=-1.20+3.40 \sin (1.40 m-4.1)$ |
|  | Erie, Pa. | 4207.8 | 8005.4 | $\mathrm{D}=+2.17+2.69 \sin (1.5 m-27.3)$ |
|  | Chicago, Ill. | 4150.0 | 8736.8 | $\mathrm{D}=-3.77+2.48 \sin (\mathrm{r} .45 m-62.5)$ |
|  | Michigan City, Ind. | 4143.4 | 8654.4 | $\mathrm{D}=-3.23+2.42 \sin (1.4 m-48.0)$ |
|  | Cleveland, 0. | 4130.4 | 8141.5 9556.5 | $\mathrm{D}=+0.47+2.39 \sin (1.30 m-14.8)$ $\mathrm{D}=-0.30+3.34 \sin (1.30 m-54.7)$ |
|  | Beaver, Pa. | $\begin{aligned} & 4115.7 \\ & 4044 \end{aligned}$ | 9556.5 8020 | $\mathrm{D}=-9.30+3.34 \sin (1.30 m-54.7)$ $\mathrm{D}=+\mathrm{1} .41+2.72 \sin (1.40 m-39.6)$ |


| $\dot{8}$ | Name of Station and State. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LATI- } \\ & \text { TUDE. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{\|c\|} \hline \text { West } \\ \text { LoNgal- } \\ \text { TUDE. } \end{array}$ | The Magnetic Declination expressed as a Function of Time. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Pittsburg, P | 4027.6 | 8000.8 | $\mathrm{D}=+\mathrm{t} .85$ | $2.45 \sin (1.45 m-28.4)$ |
|  | Denver, Col. | $3945 \cdot 3$ | 10459.5 | $\mathrm{D}=-15.30$ | 0.01 I $m+0.0005 m^{2}$ |
|  | Marietta, 0. | 3925 | 8128 | $\mathrm{D}=+0.02$ | $2.89 \sin (\mathrm{I} .4 \mathrm{~m}-40.5$ ) |
| 21 | Athens, 0 . | 3919 | 8202 | $\mathrm{D}=-1.51$ | $2.63 \sin \left(1.4{ }^{n-24.7}\right)$ |
| $22$ | Cincinnati, 0. | 3908.4 | 8425.3 | $\mathrm{D}=-2.59$ | $2.43 \sin (1.42 m-37.9)$ |
| 23 | Saint Louis, Mo. | 3838.0 | 9012.2 | $\mathrm{D}=-5.91+$ | $3.00 \sin (1.40 m-51.1) *$ |
| 24 | Nashville, Tenn. | 3608.9 | 8648.2 | $\mathrm{D}=-3.57+$ | $3.33 \sin (\mathbf{1} .35 m-68.5) *$ |
|  | Florence, Ala. | 3447.2 | 8741.5 | $\mathrm{D}=-4.25+$ | $2.33 \sin (1.3 m-52.8)$ |
|  | Mobile, Ala. | 3041.4 | 8802.5 | $\mathrm{D}=-4.38+$ | $2.69 \sin (1.45 m-76.4)$ |
|  | Pensacola, Fl | 3020.8 | 8718.3 | $\mathrm{D}=-4.40+$ | $3.16 \sin (1.4 m-59.4)$ |
|  | New Orleans, L | 2957.2 | 9003.9 | $\mathrm{D}=-5.20+$ | $2.98 \sin (1.40 m-69.8)$ |
|  | San Antonio, Tex. | 2925.4 | 9829.3 | $\mathrm{D}=-7.40+$ | $2.88 \sin (1.35 m-81.8) *$ |
|  | Key West, Fla. | $2433 \cdot 5$ | 8148.5 | $D=-4.31+$ | $2.86 \sin (1.30 m-23.9)$ |
|  | Havana, Cuba. | 2309.3 | 8221.5 | $D=-4.2$ | $2.74 \sin (1.25 m-23.3) *$ |
| 31 | Kingston, Port Royal, Jamaica. | 1755.9 | 7650.6 | D | . $39 \sin (\mathbf{1 . 1 0} m-10.6)$ |
| 32 | Barbados, Caribbee Islands. |  | 5937.3 |  | $2.84 \sin (1.10 m+09.4)$ |
| 3 | Panama, Colombia. | 8 57.1 | 7932.2 | $\mathrm{D}=-5.6$ | $2.22 \sin (1.10 m-27.8)$ |
|  | Grour |  |  |  |  |
|  | Acapulco, Mexico. | 1650.5 | 9952.3 | $\mathrm{D}=-4.48$ | 4.41 $\sin (\text { 1.0 } m-85.7)^{*}$ |
|  | 2 Vera Cruz, Mexico. | 1911.9 | 9608.8 | $\mathrm{D}=-5.09$ | $4.22 \sin (1.2 m-63.4) *$ |
|  | 3 City of Mexico, Mex. | 1926.0 | 9911.6 | $\mathrm{D}=-5.34$ | $3.28 \sin (1.0 \quad m-87.9)$ |
|  | 4 Nan Blas, Mex. | 2132.5 | 10518.4 | $\mathrm{D}=-5.2 \mathrm{I}$ | $4.26 \sin \left(1.155^{m-96.5)}\right.$ |
|  | 5 Can Lucas, Lower | 2253.3 | 10954.7 | $\mathrm{D}$ | $3.68 \sin (1.20 m-116.8)^{*}$ |
|  | Mardalena Bay, Lower Cal. | 2438.4 | 11208.9 | $\mathrm{D}=-6.33$ | $4.17 \sin (1.15$ m-119.2)* |
|  | Cerros Island, Lower Cal. | 2804 |  | $\mathrm{D}=-7.4$ | 4.61 $\sin (1.05 m-107.0)$ |
|  | 8 El Paso, Tex | 3145.5 | 10627.0 | $\mathrm{D}=-9.08$ | $3.40 \sin (\mathbf{1 . 3} m-108.4)$ |
|  | 9 San Diego, Cal. | 3242.1 | 11714.3 | $\mathrm{D}=-10.32+$ | $3.00 \sin (1.10 m-126.5)$ |
|  | Santa Barbara, Cal. | 3424.2 | 11943.0 | $\mathrm{D}=-11.52+$ | $3.32 \sin (1.10 m-123.1)$ |
|  | Monterey, Cal. | 36 36.1 | 12153.6 | $\mathrm{D}=-13.25+$ | $2.83 \sin (1.10 m-144.0)$ |
|  | 2 San Francisco, Cal. | 3747.5 | 12227.3 | $\mathrm{D}=-13.94$ | $2.65 \sin (1.05 m-135.5) *$ |
|  | Cape Mendocino, Cal. | 4026.3 | 12424.3 | $\mathrm{D}=-15.25+$ | $2.45 \sin \left(1.10{ }^{\text {c }} m-128.0\right)^{*}$ |
|  | Salt Lake City, Utah. | 4046.1 | 11153.8 | $\mathrm{D}=-12.40+$ | $4.25 \sin \left(1.4{ }^{m-121.6) *}\right.$ |
|  | Vancouver, Wash. | 4537.5 | 12239.7 | $\mathrm{D}=-17.93+$ | $3.12 \sin (1.35 m-134.1)^{*}$ |
|  | Walla Walla, Wash. | 4604 | 11822 | $\mathrm{D}=-17.80+$ | $3.30 \sin (1.3$ m-129.0)* |
| 17 | Cape Disappointment, Wash. | 4616.7 | 12402.8 | $\mathrm{D}=-19.3$ | $2.54 \sin (1.25 m-158.7)$ |
| 18 | Seattle, Wash. | 4735.9 | 12220.0 | $\mathrm{D}=-19.19+$ | $3.14 \sin (\mathbf{1 . 4} m-136.1$ )* |
| 19 | Port Townsend, Wash. | 4807.0 | 12244.9 | $\mathrm{D}=-18.84+$ | $3.00 \sin (1.45 m-122.1)$ |
| 20 | Neah Bay, Was | 4821.8 | 12438.0 | $\mathrm{D}=-19.83+$ | $2.91 \sin (1.40 m-141.6)$ |
|  | Nootka, Vancouver Isl. | 4935.5 | 12637.5 | $\mathrm{D}=-21.25+$ | $2.74 \sin (1.30 m-152.0) *$ |
| 22 | Captain's and Iliuliuk Harbors. |  | 31.5 | $\mathrm{D}=-18.01+$ | $1.82 \sin (1.3 m-69.6) *$ |
|  | Sitka, Alaska. | 5702.9 | 13519.7 | $\mathrm{D}=-25.79+$ | $3.30 \sin (1.30 \mathrm{~m}-104.2)$ |
|  | St. Paul, Kadiak Island. | 5748.0 | 15221.3 |  | $5.18 \sin (1.35 m-72.5)$ |
|  | Port Mulgrave, Alaska. | 5933.7 | $13945.9$ | $\mathrm{D}=-24.03+$ | $7.77 \sin (1.30 m-85.8)$ |
| 27 | Port Etches, Alaska. | 6020.7 | 14637.6 | $\mathrm{D}=-23.71+$ | $7.89 \sin (1.35 m-80.9)$ * |
| 27 | Port Clarence, Alaska. 65 | 6516 | 16650 | $\mathrm{D}=-18.98+$ | $7.99 \sin (1.3 m-68.4)^{*}$ |
| 28 | Chamisso Isl., Alaska. | 6613 | 16149 | $\mathrm{D}=-23.62+$ | $7.64 . \sin (1.3 \mathrm{~m}-64.0$ )* |
| 29 | Petropaulovsk, Siberia. | 5301 | 20117 | $\mathrm{D}=-3.35+$ | $2.97 \sin (1.3 m+12.2)$ |

## TABLE IX.

## Angular Convergences and Distances between Meridians.

1. Angular convergence of meridians per mile of easting or westing.
2. Distance between meridians converging by one minute.

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Lati- } \\ & \text { TUDE. } \end{aligned}$ | angular Convergence per Mile. Minutes. | Distance for Convergence OF $1^{\prime}$. Feet. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Lati- } \\ & \text { tude. } \end{aligned}$ | Angular Convergence per Mile. Minutes. | Distance for Convergence of $1^{\prime}$. Feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 。 |  |  | - |  |  |
| 1 | 0.015 | $34{ }^{8} 733$ | 31 | 0.521 | 10140 |
| 2 | . 030 | 174314 | 32 | . 542 | 9751 |
| 3 | . 045 | 116150 | 33 | . 563 | 9382 |
| 4 | . 061 | 87052 | 34 | . 585 | 9034 |
| 5 | . 076 | 69578 | 35 | . 607 | 8703 |
| 6 | . 091 | 57917 | 36 | . 630 | 8387 |
| 7 | . 107 | 49578 | 37 | . 653 | 8087 |
| 8 | . 122 | 43337 | 38 | . 677 | 7801 |
| 9 | . 137 | 38436 | 39 | . 702 | 7527 |
| 10 | . 153 | 34525 | 40 | . 727 | 7265 |
| 11 | . 169 | 31320 | 41 | . 753 | 7013 |
| 12 | . 184 | 28642 | 42 | . 780 | 6770 |
| 13 | . 200 | 26371 | 43 | . 808 | 6537 |
| 14 | . 216 | 24419 | 44 | . 836 | 6313 |
| 15 | . 232 | 22723 | 45 | . 866 | 6097 |
| 16 | . 249 | 21234 | 46 | . 897 | 5888 |
| 17 | . 265 | 19916 | 47 | . 929 | 5686 |
| 18 | . 282 | 18740 | 48 | . 962 | 5491 |
| 19 | . 299 | 17685 | 49 | . 998 | 5301 |
| 20 | . 316 | 16738 | 50 | 1.032 | 5118 |
| 21 | . 333 | 15864 | 51 | 1.069 | 4940 |
| 22 | . 350 | 15073 | 52 | 1. 108 | 4766 |
| 23 | . 368 | 14348 | 53 | I. 149 | 4597 |
| 24 | . 386 | 13680 | 54 | 1.191 | 4433 |
| 25 | . 404 | 13062 | 55 | 1. 236 | 4271 |
| 26 | . 423 | 12488 | 56 | 1. 283 | 4115 |
| 27 | . 442 | 11955 | 57 | 1. 333 | 3962 |
| 28 | .46i | 11457 | 58 | 1. 385 | 3813 |
| 29 | . 480 | 10990 | 59 | 1.440 | 3666 |
| 30 | . 500 | 10552 | 60 | 1.499 | 3523 |

TABLE X. ${ }^{1}$
Length of One Minute of Latitude and One Minute of Longitude to the Nearest Whole Foot.

| LatiTUDE. | $\begin{gathered} \text { 1' Latitude. } \\ \text { Feet. } \end{gathered}$ | $1^{\prime}$ Longitude. Feet. | LatiTUDE. | 1 1' Latitude. Feet. | $\begin{gathered} 1^{\prime} \text { Longitude. } \\ \text { Feet. } \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| - |  |  | - |  |  |
| I | 6046 | 6086 | 3 I | 6062 | 5222 |
| 2 | 6046 | 6083 | 32 | 6063 | 5167 |
| 3 | 6046 | 6079 | 33 | 6064 | 5110 |
| 4 | 6046 | 6072 | 34 | 6065 | 5052 |
| 5 | 6046 | 6064 | 35 | 6066 | 4992 |
| 6 | 6047 | 6054 | 36 | 6067 | 4930 |
| 7 | 6047 | 6042 | 37 | 6068 | 4867 |
| 8 | 6047 | 6028 | 38 | 6069 | 4803 |
| 9 | 6047 | 6013 | 39 | 6070 | 4737 |
| 10 | 6048 | 5995 | 40 | 6071 | 4670 |
| II | 6048 | 5976 | 41 | 6072 | 4601 |
| 12 | 6049 | 5955 | 42 | 6074 | 4531 |
| 13 | 6049 | 5932 | 43 | 6075 | 4459 |
| 14 | 6050 | 5908 | 44 | 6076 | 4386 |
| 15 | 6050 | 588 I | 45 | 6077 | 4312 |
| 16 | 6051 | 5853 | 46 | 6078 | 4236 |
| 17 | 6051 | 5823 | 47 | 6079 | 4159 |
| 18 | 6052 | 5791 | 48 | 6080 | 408I |
| 19 | 6052 | 5758 | 49 | 6081 | 4001 |
| 20 | 6053 | 5722 | 50 | 6082 | 3921 |
| 21 | 6054 | . 5685 | 51 | 6083 | 3839 |
| 22 | 6055 | 5647 | 52 | 6084 | 3756 |
| 23 | 6055 | 5606 | 53 | 6085 | 3671 |
| 24 | 6056 | 5564 | 54 | 6086 | 3586 |
| 25 | 6057 | 5520 | 55 | 6087 | 3499 |
| 26 | 6058 | 5475 | 56 | 6088 | 3412 |
| 27 | 6059 | 5427 | 57 | 6089 | 3323 |
| 28 | 6059 | 5379 | 58 | 6090 | 3234 |
| 29 | 6060 | 5328 | 59 | 6091 | 3143 |
| - 30 | 6061 | 5276 | 60 | 6092 | 3051 |

[^63]
## TABLE XI.

## Trigonometric Functions and Formulas. Solution of Triangles.

By definition, if $R=1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E D=\text { sine } \alpha . \\
& O D=\operatorname{cosine} \alpha . \\
& D A=\text { versed sine } \alpha . \\
& H F=\text { coversed sine } \alpha . \\
& B A=\text { tangent } \alpha . \\
& F C=\operatorname{cotangent} \alpha . \\
& O B=\text { secant } \alpha . \\
& O C=\operatorname{cosec} \alpha \text {. } \alpha .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $R$ is other than 1 , it follows from the above definitions and the propor-
 tionality of similar figures, that

1. $E D=R \sin \alpha$.
2. $O D=R \cos \alpha$.
3. $D A=R$ versin $\alpha$.
4. $H F=R$ coversin $\alpha$.
5. $B A=R \tan \alpha$.
6. $F C=R \cot \alpha$.
7. $O B=R \sec \alpha$.
8. $O C=R \operatorname{cosec} \alpha$.
from which also in any right triangle of angles $\alpha$ and $\beta$, if $o$ be the side opposite the angle $\alpha, a$ the side aljacent thereto, and $h$ the hypotenuse,
9. $\quad \sin \alpha=\frac{o}{h}=\cos \beta$.
10. $\cos \alpha=\frac{a}{h}=\sin \beta$.
11. $\tan \alpha=\frac{o}{a}=\cot \beta$.
12. $\cot \alpha=\frac{a}{o}=\tan \beta$.
13. $\sec \alpha=\frac{h}{a}=\operatorname{cosec} \beta$.
14. $\quad \operatorname{cosec} \alpha=\frac{h}{o}=\sec \beta$.
15. $\quad \operatorname{vers} \alpha=\frac{h-a}{h}=$ covers $\beta$.
16. covers $\alpha=\frac{h-o}{h}=$ vers $\beta$.

Hence,
17. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}o=h \sin \alpha=h \cos \beta . \\ h=\frac{o}{\sin \alpha}=\frac{o}{\cos \beta} .\end{array}\right.$
18. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}a=h \cos \alpha=h \sin \beta . \\ h=\frac{a}{\cos \alpha}=\frac{a}{\sin \beta} .\end{array}\right.$
19. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}o=a \tan \alpha=a \cot \beta . \\ a=\frac{0}{\tan \alpha}=\frac{0}{\cot \beta} .\end{array}\right.$
20. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}a=o \cot \alpha=o \tan \beta . \\ o=\frac{a}{\cot \alpha}=\frac{a}{\tan \beta} .\end{array}\right.$
21. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}h=a \sec \alpha=a \operatorname{cosec} \beta . \\ a=\frac{h}{\sec \alpha}=\frac{h}{\operatorname{cosec} \beta} .\end{array}\right.$
22. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}h=o \operatorname{cosec} \alpha=o \sec \beta \\ 0=\frac{h}{\operatorname{cosec} \alpha}=\frac{h}{\sec \beta} .\end{array}\right.$

23. $0=\sqrt{h^{2}-a^{2}}=\sqrt{(h+a)(h-a)}$.
24. $a=\sqrt{h^{2}-o^{2}}=\sqrt{(h+o)(h-o)}$.
25. $h=\sqrt{o^{2}+a^{2}}$.
26. Area $=\frac{o a}{2}$.

Oblique triangles may be solved by some one of the following formulas :

Grven. | Sought.
27. $A, B, a$,
28. $A, a, b$,
29. $C, a, b$,
30.
31.
32.
33.
34. $a, b, c$,
35.
36. $A, B, C, a$,
$C, b, c$,
$B, C, c$,
${ }^{\frac{1}{2}}(A+B)$,
$\frac{1}{2}(A-B)$,
$A, B$,
$c$,

Area,
$A$,

Area,
Area,

Formulas.

$$
\begin{gathered}
C=180^{\circ}-(A+B), b=\frac{a}{\sin A} \sin B, \\
c=\frac{a}{\sin A} \sin (A+B) .
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\sin B=\frac{\sin A}{a} b, \quad C=180^{\circ}-(A+B)
$$

$$
c=\frac{a}{\sin A} \sin C
$$

$\frac{1}{2}(A+B)=90^{\circ}-\frac{1}{2} C$.
$\tan \frac{1}{2}(A-B)=\frac{a-b}{a+b} \tan \frac{1}{2}(A+B)$.
$A=\frac{1}{2}(A+B)+\frac{1}{2}(A-B) ;$
$B=\frac{1}{2}(A+B)-\frac{1}{2}(A-B)$.
$c=(a+b) \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2}(A+B)}{\cos \frac{1}{2}(A-B)}$
$=(a-b) \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2}(A+B)}{\sin \frac{1}{2}(A-B)}$.
Area $=\frac{1}{2} a b \sin C$.
If $s=\frac{1}{2}(a+b+c)$,
$\sin \frac{1}{2} A=\sqrt{\frac{(s-b)(s-c)}{b c}}$,
$\cos \frac{1}{2} A=\sqrt{\frac{s(s-a)}{b c}}$,
$\tan \frac{1}{2} A=\sqrt{\frac{(s-b)(s-c)}{s(s-a)}}$.
$\sin A=\frac{2 \sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}}{b c}$,
vers $A=\frac{2(s-b)(s-c)}{b c}$.
Area $=\sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}$.
Area $=\frac{a^{2} \sin B \sin C}{2 \sin A}$.

TABLES.
From the definitions of the trigonometric functions, the geometrical properties of right triangles and in some cases algebraic transformations, it may be shown that if $A$ is any angle and $B$ any other angle,
37. $\sin ^{2} A+\cos ^{2} A=1$.
38. $\quad \sin A=\frac{1}{\operatorname{cosec} A}=\sqrt{1-\cos ^{2} A}=\tan A \cos A$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =2 \sin \frac{1}{2} A \cos \frac{1}{2} A=\operatorname{vers} A \cot \frac{1}{2} A \\
& =\sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{vers} 2 A}=\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}(1-\cos 2 A)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

39. $\cos A=\frac{1}{\sec A}=\sqrt{1-\sin ^{2} A}=\cot A \sin A$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =1-\operatorname{vers} A=2 \cos ^{2} \frac{1}{2} A-1=1-2 \sin ^{2} \frac{1}{2} A \\
& =\cos ^{2} \frac{1}{2} A-\sin ^{2} \frac{1}{2} A=\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \cos 2 A} .
\end{aligned}
$$

40. $\tan A=\frac{\sin A}{\cos A}=\frac{1}{\cot A}=\sqrt{\sec ^{2} A-1}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\sqrt{\frac{1}{\cos ^{2} A}-1}=\frac{\sqrt{1-\cos ^{2} A}}{\cos A}=\frac{\sin 2 A}{1+\cos 2 A} \\
& =\frac{1-\cos 2 A}{\sin 2 A}=\frac{\operatorname{vers} 2 A}{\sin 2 A}=\cot \frac{1}{2} A(\sec A-1)
\end{aligned}
$$

41. $\cot A=\frac{\cos A}{\sin A}=\frac{1}{\tan A}=\sqrt{\operatorname{cosec}^{2} A-1}$

$$
=\frac{\sin 2 A}{1-\cos 2 A}=\frac{\sin 2 A}{\operatorname{vers} 2 A}=\frac{1+\cos 2 A}{\sin 2 A}=\frac{\tan \frac{1}{2} A}{\sec A-1} .
$$

42. vers $A=1-\cos A=\sin A \tan \frac{1}{2} A=2 \sin ^{2} \frac{1}{2} A=\cos A(\sec A-1)$.
43. $\quad \sin (A \pm B)=\sin A \cos B \pm \sin B \cos A$.
44. $\quad \cos (A \pm B)=\cos A \cos B \mp \sin A \sin B$.
45. $\sin \frac{1}{2} A=\sqrt{\frac{1-\cos A}{2}}=\sqrt{\frac{\operatorname{vers} A}{2}}$.
46. $\sin 2 A=2 \sin A \cos A$.
47. $\cos \frac{1}{2} A=\sqrt{\frac{1+\cos A}{2}}$.
48. $\cos 2 A=2 \cos ^{2} A-1=\cos ^{2} A-\sin ^{2} A=1-2 \sin ^{2} A$.
49. $\tan \frac{1}{2} A=\frac{\tan A}{1+\sec A}=\operatorname{cosec} A-\cot A=\frac{1-\cos A}{\sin A}=\sqrt{\frac{1-\cos A}{1+\cos A}}$.
50. $\tan 2 A=\frac{2 \tan A}{1-\tan ^{2} \frac{1}{2} A}$.
51. $\cot \frac{1}{2} A=\frac{\sin A}{v \operatorname{vers} A}=\frac{1+\cos A}{\sin A}=\frac{1}{\operatorname{cosec} A-\cot A}$.
52. $\cot 2 A=\frac{\cot ^{2} A-1}{2 \cot A}$.
53. vers $\frac{1}{2} A=\frac{\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{vers} A}{1+\sqrt{1-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{vers} A}}=\frac{1-\cos A}{2+\sqrt{2(1+\cos A)}}$.
54. vers $2 A=2 \sin ^{2} A$.
55. $\sin A+\sin B=2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(A+B) \cos \frac{1}{2}(A-B)$.
56. $\sin A-\sin B=2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(A+B) \sin \frac{1}{2}(A-B)$.
57. $\cos A+\cos B=2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(A+B) \cos \frac{1}{2}(A-B)$.
58. $\cos B-\cos A=2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(A+B) \sin \frac{1}{2}(A-B)$.
59. $\sin ^{2} A-\sin ^{2} B=\cos ^{2} B-\cos ^{2} A=\sin (A+B) \sin (A-B)$.
60. $\cos ^{2} A-\sin ^{2} B=\cos (A+B) \cos (A-B)$.
61. $\tan A+\tan B=\frac{\sin (A+B)}{\cos A \cos B}$.
62. $\tan A-\tan B=\frac{\sin (A-B)}{\cos A \cos B}$.

## TABLE XII.

Lengths of Circular Arcs of Radius 1, and Various Circular Measures.

| No. | Degrees. | Minutes. | Seconds. | No. | Degrees. | Minutes. | Seconds. |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{1}$ | .0174533 | .0002909 | .0000048 | 6 | .1047198 | .0017453 | .0000291 |
| 2 | .0349066 | .0005818 | .0000097 | 7 | .1221730 | .0020362 | .0000339 |
| 3 | .0523599 | .0008727 | .0000145 | 8 | .1396263 | .0023271 | .0000388 |
| 4 | .0698132 | .0011636 | .0000194 | 9 | .1570796 | .0026180 | .0000436 |
| 5 | .0872665 | .0014544 | .0000242 | 10 | .1745329 | .0029089 | .0000485 |

Degrees in arc of length equal to radius, $57 .{ }^{\circ} 295780$.
Degrees in arc of length equal to $\pi, \quad 180 .{ }^{\circ} 000000$.
Circumference $=2 \pi r=\quad 360 .^{\circ} 000000$.
Area

$$
=\pi r^{2} .
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
d & =\frac{l}{r} \cdot \frac{180^{\circ}}{\pi} \\
r & =\frac{l}{d} \cdot \frac{180^{\circ}}{\pi} \\
l & =\frac{d}{180} \pi r .
\end{aligned}
$$

Area of sector $=\frac{1}{2} l r$.
Area of sector $=\frac{d}{360} \pi r^{2}$.
Approximate area of segment $=\frac{2}{3} \mathrm{~cm}$.

## TABLE XIII.

## Linear Transformations.

1. Gunter's Chains to Feet.

| Chains. | 0.0 | 0.01 | . 02 | . 03 | . 04 | . 05 | . 06 | . 07 | . 08 | . 09 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0.0 |  | . 66 | 1.32 | 1.98 | 2.64 | 3.30 | 3.96 | 4.62 | 5.28 | 5.94 |
| . 1 | 6.60 | 7.26 | 7.92 | 8.58 | 9.24 | 9.90 | 10.56 | 11.22 | 11.88 | 12.54 |
| . 2 | 13.20 | 13.86 | 14.52 | 15.18 | 15.84 | 16.50 | 17.16 | 17.82 | 18.48 | 19.14 |
| $\cdot 3$ | 19.80 | 20.46 | 21.12 | 21.78 | 22.44 | 23.10 | 23.76 | 24.42 | 25.08 | 25.74 |
| . 4 | 26.40 | 27.06 | 27.72 | 28.38 | 29.04 | 29.70 | 30.36 | 31.02 | 31.68 | 32.34 |
| . 5 | 33.00 | 33.66 | 34.32 | 34.98 | 35.64 | 36.30 | 36.96 | 37.62 | 38.28 | 38.94 |
| . 6 | 39.60 | 40.26 | 40.92 | 41.58 | 42.24 | 42.90 | 43.56 | 44.22 | 44.88 | 45.54 |
| -7 | 46.20 | 46.86 | 47.52 | 48.18 | 48.84 | 49.50 | 50.16 | 50.82 | 51.48 | 52.14 |
| . 8 | 52.80 | 53.46 | 54.12 | 54.78 | 55.44 | 56.10 | 56.76 | 57.42 | 58.08 | 58.74 |
| . 9 | 59.40 | 60.06 | 60.72 | 61. $3^{8}$ | 62.04 | 62.70 | 63.36 | 64.02 | 64.68 | 65.34 |
|  | 0.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 5.0 | 6.0 | 7.0 | 8.0 | 9.0 |
| 0.0 |  | 66 | 132 | 198 | 264 | 330 | 396 | 462 | 528 | 594 |
| 10.0 | 660 | 726 | 792 | 858 | 924 | 990 | 1056 | 1122 | 1188 | 1254 |
| 20.0 | 1320 | 1386 | 1452 | 1518 | 1584 | 1650 | 1716 | 1782 | 1848 | 1914 |
| 30.0 | 1980 | 2046 | 2112 | 2178 | 2244 | 2310 | 2376 | 2442 | 2508 | 2574 |
| 40.0 | 2640 | 2706 | 2772 | 2838 | 2904 | 2970 | 3036 | 3102 | 3168 | 3234 |
| 50.0 | 3300 | 3366 | 3432 | 3498 | 3564 | 3630 | 3696 | 3762 | 3828 | 3894 |
| 60.0 | 3960 | 4026 | 4092 | 4158 | 4224 | 4290 | 4356 | 4422 | 4488 | 4554 |
| 70.0 | 4620 | 4686 | 4752 | 4818 | 4884 | 4950 | 5016 | 5082 | 5148 | 5214 |
| 80.0 | 5280 | 5346 | 5412 | 5478 | 5544 | 5610 | 5676 | 5742 | 5808 | 5874 |

2. Gunter's Chains to Meters.

| Chains. | 0.0 | . 01 | . 02 | . 03 | . 04 | . 05 | . 06 | . 07 | . 08 | . 09 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | m. | m. | m. | m. | m. | m. | m. | m. | m. | m. |
| 0.0 | - | . 2012 | .4023 | . 6035 | . 8047 | 1.0058 | 1. 2070 | 1. 4082 | 1.6093 | 1.8105 |
| . 1 | 2.0117 | 2.2128 | 2.4140 | 2.6152 | 2.8163 | 3.0175 | 3.2187 | $3 \cdot 4198$ | 3.6210 | 3.8222 |
| . 2 | 4.0233 | 4.2245 | 4.4257 | 4.6268 | 4.8280 | 5.0292 | 5.2303 | 5.4315 | 5.6326 | 5.8338 |
| $\cdot 3$ | 6.0350 | 6.2361 | 6.4373 | 6.6385 | 6.8396 | 7.0408 | 7.2420 | $7 \cdot 4431$ | 7.6443 | 7.8455 |
| . 4 | 8.0466 | 8.2478 | 8.4490 | 8.6501 | 8.8513 | 9.0525 | 9.2536 | 9.4548 | 9.6560 | 9.8571 |
| . 5 | 10.0583 | 10.2595 | 10.4606 | 10.6618 | 10.8630 | 11.0641 | 11.2653 | 11.4665 | 11.6676 | 11.8688 |
| . 6 | 12.0700 | 12.2711 | 12.4723 | 12.6735 | 12.8746 | $13.075^{8}$ | 13.2770 | 13.4781 | 13.6793 | 13.8805 |
| -7 | 14.0816 | 14.2828 | 14.4840 | 14.6851 | 14.8863 | 15.0875 | 15.2886 | 15.4898 | 15.6910 | 15.8921 |
| . 8 | 16.0933 | 16.2945 | 16.4956 | 16.6968 | 16.8980 | 17.0991 | 17.3003 | 17.5015 | 17.7026 | 17.9038 |
| . 9 | 18.1050 | 18.3061 | 18.5073 | 18.7084 | 18.9096 | 19.1108 | 19.3119 | 19.5131 | 19.7143 | 19.9154 |
|  | 0.0 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 5.0 | 6.0 | 7.0 | 8.0 | 9.0 |
| 0.0 | - | 20.1166 | 40.2332 | 60.3499 | 80.4665 | 100.5831 | 120.6996 | 140.8163 | 160.9329 | 181.0495 |
| 10. | 201.1662 | 221.2828 | 241.3994 | 261.5160 | 281. 6326 | 301.7493 | 321.8659 | 341.9825 | 362.0991 | 382.2157 |
| 20. | 402.3323 | 422.4489 | 442.5656 | 462.6822 | 482.7988 | 502.9154 | 523.0320 | 543.1487 | 563.2653 | 583.3819 |
| 30. | 603.4985 | 623.6151 | 643.7317 | 663.8483 | 683.9649 | 704.0816 | 724.1982 | 744.3148 | 764.4314 | 784.5480 |
| 40. | 804.6646 | 824.7812 | 844.8979 | 865.0145 | 885.1311 | - 905.2477 | 925.3643 | 945.4810 | 965.5976 | $985.714^{2}$ |
| 50. | 1005.8308 | 1025.9474 | 1046.0640 | 1066.1806 | 1086.2973 | 1106.4139 | 1126.5305 | 1146.6471 | 1166.7637 | 1186.8803 |
| 60. | 1206.9969 | 1227.1135 | 1247.2302 | 1267.3468 | 1287.4634 | 1307.5800 | 1327.6966 | 1347.8133 | 1367.9299 | I 388.0465 |
| 70. | 1408.1631 | 1428.2797 | 1448.3963 | 1468.5129 | 1488.6296 | 1508.7462 | 1528.8628 | 1548.9794 | 1569.0960 | 1589.2126 |
| 80. | 1609.3292 | 1629.4459 | 1649.5625 | 1669.6791 | 1689.7957 | 1709.9123 | 1730.0290 | 1750.1456 | 1770.2622 | 1790.3788 |

## 3. Feet to Meters.

|  | 0 | I | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Meters. | Meters. | Meters. | Meters. | Meters. | Meters. | Meters. | Meters. | Meters. | Meters. |
| 0 | 0.000 | 0.305 | 0.610 | 0.914 | 1.219 | 1.524 | 1.829 | 2.134 | 2.438 | 2.743 |
| 10 | 3.048 | $3 \cdot 353$ | 3.658 | 3.962 | 4.267 | 4.572 | 4.877 | 5.182 | 5.486 | 5.791 |
| 20 | 6.036 | 6.401 | 6.706 | 7.010 | 7.315 | 7.620 | 7.925 | 8.229 | 8.534 | 8.839 |
| 30 | 9.144 | 9.449 | 9.753 | 10.058 | 10.363 | 10.668 | 10.972 | 11.277 | 11.582 | 11.887 |
| 40 | 12.192 | 12.496 | 12.80 I | 13.106 | 13.411 | 13.716 | 14.020 | 14.325 | 14.630 | 14.935 |
| 50 | 15.239 | 15.544 | 15.849 | 16.154 | 16.459 | 16.763 | 17.068 | 17.373 | 17.678 | 17.983 |
| 60 | 18.287 | 18.592 | 18.897 | 19.202 | 19.507 | 19.811 | 20.116 | 20.421 | 20.726 | 21.031 |
| 70 | 21.335 | 21.640 | 21.945 | 22.250 | 22.555 | 22.859 | 23.164 | 23.469 | 23.774 | 24.079 |
| 80 | 24.383 | 24.688 | 24.993 | 25.298 | 25.602 | 25.907 | 26.212 | 26.517 | 26.822 | 27.126 |
| 90 | 27.43 I | 27.736 | 28.041 | 28.346 | 28.651 | 28.955 | 29.260 | 29.565 | 29.870 | 30.174 |
| 100 | 30.479 | 30.784 | 31.089 | 31.394 | 31.698 | 32.003 | 32.308 | 32.613 | 32.918 | 33.222 |

## 4. Meters to Feet.

| Meters. | - | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Feet. | Feet. | Feet. | Feet. | Feet. | Feet. | Feet. | Feet. | Feet. | Feet. |
| - | 0.00 | 3.28 | 6.56 | 9.84 | 13.12 | 16.40 | 19.69 | 22.97 | 26.25 | 29.53 |
| 10 | 32.81 | 36.09 | 39.37 | 42.65 | 45.93 | 49.21 | 52.49 | 55.78 | 59.06 | 62.34 |
| 20 | 65.62 | 68.90 | 72.18 | 75.46 | 78.74 | 82.02 | 85.30 | 88.58 | 91.87 | 95.15 |
| 30 | 98.43 | 101.71 | 104.99 | 108.27 | 111.55 | 114.83 | II8.11 | 121.39 | 124.67 | 127.96 |
| 40 | 131.24 | 134.52 | 137.80 | 141.08 | 144.36 | 147.64 | 150.92 | 154.20 | 157.48 | 160.76 |
| 50 | 164.04 | 167.33 | 170.61 | 173.89 | 177.17 | 180.45 | 183.73 | 187.01 | 190.29 | 193.57 |
| 60 | 196.85 | 200.13 | 203.42 | 206.70 | 209.98 | 213.26 | 216.54 | 219.82 | 223.10 | 226.38 |
| 70 | 229.66 | 232.94 | 236.22 | 239.51 | 242.79 | 246.07 | 249.35 | 252.63 | 255.91 | 259.19 |
| 80 | 262.47 | 265.75 | 269.03 | 272.31 | 275.60 | 278.88 | 282.16 | 285.44 | 288.72 | 292.00 |
| 90 | 295.28 | 298.56 | 391.84 | 305.12 | 308.40 | 311.69 | 314.97 | 318.25 | 321.53 | 324.81 |
| 100 | 328.09 | 331.37 | 334.65 | 337.93 | 341.21 | 344.49 | 347.78 | 351.06 | $354 \cdot 34$ | 357.62 |

1 statute mile $=\mathbf{1} .6093$ kilometers
1 kilometer $=0.6214$ statute miles puted by Mr. Arthur Winslow while assistant geologist, second Geological Survey of Pennsylvania.


| M. | $11^{\circ}$ |  | $12^{\circ}$ |  | $13^{\circ}$ |  | $14^{\circ}$ |  | $15^{\circ}$ |  | $16^{\circ}$ |  | $17^{\circ}$ |  | $18^{\circ}$ |  | $19^{\circ}$ |  | $20^{\circ}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Hor. } \\ & \text { Dist. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Diff. } \\ \text { Elev. } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Hor. } \\ & \text { Dist. } \end{aligned}$ | Diff. | Mis. | Diff. Elev. | Hor. Dist. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Diff. } \\ & \text { Elev. } \end{aligned}$ | Hor. Dist. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Diff. } \\ & \text { Elev. } \end{aligned}$ | Hor. Dist. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Diff. } \\ & \text { Eiev. } \end{aligned}$ | Hir. | Diff. | Hor. Dist. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Diff, } \\ & \text { Elev. } \end{aligned}$ | Hor. | Diff. | Hor. Dit. | Diff. Elev. |
| $\bigcirc$ | 96.36 | 18.73 | 95.68 | 20.34 | 94.94 | 21.92 | 94.15 | 23.47 | 93.30 | 25.00 | 92.40 | 26.50 | 91.45 | 27.96 | 90.45 | 29.39 | 89.40 | 30.78 | 88.30 | 32.14 |
| 2 | 96.34 | 18.78 | 95.65 | 20.39 | 94.91 | 21.97 | 94.12 | 23.52 | 93.27 | 25.05 | 92.37 | 26.55 | 91.42 | 28.01 | 90.42 | 29.44 | 89.36 | 30.83 | 88.26 | 32.18 |
| 4 | 96.32 | 18.84 | 95.63 | 20.44 | 94.89 | 22.02 | 94.09 | 23.58 | 93.24 | 25.10 | 92.34 | 26.59 | 9 m .39 | 28.06 | 90. 38 | 29.48 | 89.33 | 30.87 | 88.23 | 32.23 |
| 6 | 96.29 | 18.89 | 95.61 | 20.50 | 94.86 | 22.08 | 94.07 | 23.63 | 93.21 | 25.15 | 92.3 I | 26.64 | 91.35 | 28.10 | 90.35 | 29.53 | 89.29 | 30.92 | 88.19 |  |
| 8 | 96.27 | 18.95 | 95.58 | 20.55 | 94.84 | 22.13 | 94.04 | 23.68 | 93.18 | 25.20 | 92.28 | 26.69 | 91.32 | 28.15 | 90.35 | 29.58 | 89.26 | 30.97 | 88.15 | 32.32 |
| 10 | 96.25 | 19.00 | 95.56 | 20.60 | 94.85 | 22.18 | 94.01 | 23.73 | 93.16 | 25.25 | 92.25 | 26.74 | 91. 29 | 28.20 | 90.28 | 29.62 | 89.22 | 31.01 | 88.11 | 32.36 |
| 12 | 96.23 | 19.05 | 95.53 | 20.66 | 94.79 | 22.23 | 93.98 | 23.78 | 93.13 | 25.30 | 92.22 | 26.79 | 91.26 | 28.25 | 90.24 | 29.67 | 89.18 | 31.06 | 88.08 |  |
| 14 16 | 96.25 96.18 | 19.11 19.16 1 | 95.51 95.49 | 20.71 20.76 | 94.76 94.73 | 22.28 | 93.95 | 23.83 328 | 93.10 | 25.35 25 | 92.19 | 26.84 | 91.22 | 28.30 | 90.21 | 29.72 | 89.15 | 31.10 | 88.04 | 32.45 |
| 16 18 | 96.18 | 19.16 | 95.49 | 20.76 | 94.73 | 22.34 | $93 \cdot 93$ | 23.88 | 93.07 | 25.40 | 92.15 | 26.89 | $9 \mathrm{9r} 19$ | 28.34 | 90.18 | 29.76 | 89.11 | 3 x .15 | 88.00 | 32.49 |
| 18 | 96.16 | 19.21 | $95 \cdot 46$ | 20.81 | 94.71 | 22.39 | 93.90 | 23.93 | 93.04 | 25.45 | 92.12 | 26.94 | 9 x .16 | 28.39 | 90.14 | 29.8ı | 89.08 | 31.19 | 87.96 | 32.54 |
| 20 | 96.14 | 19.27 | 95.44 | 20.87 | 94.68 | 22.44 | 93.87 | 23.99 | 93.01 | 25.50 | 92.09 | 26.99 | I. 12 | 28.44 | 90. 11 | 29.86 | 89.04 | 3 I .24 | 87.93 | 32.58 |
| 22 | 96.12 | 19.32 | 95.47 | 20.92 | 94.66 | 22.49 | 93.84 | 24.04 | 92.98 | 25.55 | 92.06 | 27.04 | . 09 | 28.49 | 90.07 | 29.90 | 89.00 | 3 L .28 | 87.89 | 32.63 |
| 24 | 96.09 | 19.38 | 95.39 | 20.97 | 94.63 | 22.54 | 93.8 I | 24.09 | 92.95 | 25.60 | 92.03 | 27.09 | 91.06 | 28.54 | 90.04 | 29.95 | 88.96 | 31.33 | 87.85 | 32.67 32.6 |
| 26 | 9607 | 19.43 | 95.36 | 21.03 | 94.60 | 22.60 | 93.79 | 24.14 | 92.92 | 25.65 | 92.00 | 27.13 | 91.02 | 28.58 | 90.00 | 30.00 | 88.93 | 3r. 38 | 87.81 | 32.67 32.72 |
| 28 | 96.05 | 19.48 | 95.34 | 21.08 | 94.58 | 22.65 | 93.76 | 24.19 | 92.89 | 25.70 | 91.97 | 27.18 | 90.99 | 28.63 | 89.97 | 30.04 | 88.89 | 31.42 | 87.77 | 32.72 <br> 32.76 |
| 30 | 96.03 | 19.54 | 95.32 | 21.13 | 94.55 | 22.70 | 93.73 | 24.24 | 92.86 | 25.75 | 91.93 | 27.23 | 90.96 | 28.68 | 89.93 | 30.09 | 88.86 | 31.47 | 87.74 | 32.80 |
| 32 | 96.00 | 19.59 | 95.29 | 21.18 | 94.52 | 22.75 | 93.70 | 24.29 | 92.83 | 25.80 | 91.90 | 27.28 | 90.92 | 28.73 | 89.90 | 30.14 | 88.82 | 31.51 | 87.70 | 32.85 |
| 34 | 95.98 | 19.64 | 95.27 | 21.24 |  |  | 93.67 | 24.34 | 92.80 | 25.85 | 91.87 | 27.33 | 90.89 | ${ }^{28} 87$ | 89.86 | 30.19 | 88.78 | 31.56 | 87.66 | 32.89 |
| 36 | 9596 | 19.70 | 95.24 | 21.29 | 94.47 | 22.85 | 93.65 | 24.39 | 92.77 | 25.90 | 91.84 | 27.38 | 90.86 | 28.82 | 89.83 | 30.23 | 88.75 | 31.60 | 87.62 | 32.93 |
| 38 | 95.93 | 19.75 | 95.22 | 21.34 | 94.44 | 22.91 | 93.62 | 24.44 | 92.74 | 25.95 | 91.8r | 27.43 | 90.82 | 28.87 | 89.79 | 30.28 | 88.71 | 31.65 | 87.58 | 32.93 <br> 32.98 |
| 40 | 95.91 | 19.80 | 95.19 | 21.39 | 94.42 | 22.96 | 93.59 | 24.49 | 92.71 | 26.00 | 91.77 | 27.48 | 90.79 | 28.92 | 89.76 | 30.32 | 88.67 | 31.69 | 87.54 | 33.02 |
| 42 | 95.89 | 19.86 | 95.17 | 21.45 | 94.39 | 23.01 | 93.56 |  | 92.68 | 26.05 |  |  |  |  |  | 30.37 | 88.64 |  | 87.51 | 33.07 |
| 44 | 95.86 | 19.91 | 95.14 | 21.50 | 94.36 | 23.06 | 93.53 | 24.60 | 92.65 | 26.10 | 91.71 | 27.57 | $90.72$ | 29.01 | 89.69 | 30.41 | 88.60 | 31.788 <br> 3 r <br> 8 | 87.47 | 33.07 33.15 |
| 46 | 95.84 | 19.96 | 95.12 | 21.55 | 94.34 | 23.11 | 93.50 | 24.65 | 92.62 | 26.15 | 91.68 | 27.62 | 90.69 | 29.06 | 89.65 | 30.46 | 88.56 | 3 x .83 | 87.43 | 33.15 |
| 48 | 95 | 20.02 | 95.09 | 21.60 | 94.3I | 23.16 | 93.47 | 24.70 | 92.59 | 26.20 | 91.65 | 27.67 | 90.66 | 29.11 | 89.6ı | 30.51 | 88.53 | 31.87 | 87.39 | 33.20 |
| 50 | 95.79 | 20.07 | 95.07 | 21.66 | 94.28 | 23.22 | 93.45 | 24.75 | 92.56 | 26.25 | 91.61 | 27.72 | 90.62 | 29.15 | 89.58 | 30.55 | 88.49 | 31.92 | 87.35 | 33.24 |
| 52 | 95.77 | 20.12 | 95.04 | 21.71 | 94.26 | 23.27 | 93.42 | 24.80 | 92.53 | 26.30 | 91.58 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 33.28 |
| 54 | 95.75 95.72 | 20 | 95.02 | 21.76 21 21 | 94.23 | 23.32 | 93.39 | 24.85 | 92.49 | 26.35 | 91.55 | 27.8 r | 90.55 | 2925 | 89.51 | 30.65 | 88.4 I | 32.01 | 87.27 | 33.33 |
| 56 58 | 95.72 95.70 | 20.23 20.28 | 94 | 21.81 <br> 21 <br> 1 | 94.20 | 23.37 | 93.36 | 24.90 | 92.46 | 26.40 | 91.52 | 27.86 | 90.52 | 29.30 | 89.47 | 30.69 | 88.38 | 32.05 | 87.24 | 33.37 |
|  |  | 20.28 | 94.97 | 21.87 | 94.17 | 23.42 | 93.33 | 24.95 | 92.43 | 26.45 | 91.48 | 27.91 | 90.48 | 29.34 | 89.44 | 30.74 | 88.34 | 32.09 | 87.20 | 33.41 |
| 60 | 95.68 | 20.34 | 94.94 | 21.92 | 94.15 | 23.47 | 93.30 | 25.00 | 92.40 | 26.50 | 91.45 | 27.96 | 90.45 | 29.39 | 89.40 | 30.78 | 88.30 | 32.14 | 87.16 | 33.46 |
| $\begin{aligned} & c=0.75 \\ & c=1.00 \\ & c=1.25 \end{aligned}$ | 0.73 | . 15 | 0.73 | . 1 | 0.73 | 0.17 | 0.73 | 0.19 | 0.72 | . 20 | 0.72 | 0.21 | 0.72 | 0.23 | 0.75 | 0.24 | 0.71 | 0. | 0.7 | 0.26 |
|  | 0.98 | 20 | 0.98 | . 22 | 0.97 | 0.23 | 0.97 | 0.25 | 0.96 | 0.27 | 0.96 | 0.28 | 0.95 | 0.30 | 0.95 | 0.32 | 0.94 | 0.33 | 0.94 | 0.35 |
|  | 1.22 | 0.25 | 1.22 | 0.27 | 1.21 | 0.29 | 1.21 | 3 I | 1.20 | 0.3 | 1.20 | 0.36 | 1.19 | 0.38 | 19 | 0.40 | 1.18 | 0.42 | 1.17 | 0.44 |

## APPENDIX.



## TABLES XV., XVI.

COMMON LOGARITHMS OF NUMBERS. LOGARITHMS OF TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS.

EDITED BY C. W. CROCKETT.

## NOTE.

The well-known tables of Gauss, Hoüel, Becker, and Albrecht have been taken as the standards, and the figures compared with the more extensive tables, the doubtful cases being recomputed.

## EXPLANATION OF THE TABLES

## INTRODUCTORY.

1. When we have a number with six or more decimal places, and we wish to use only five :
(a) If the sixth and following figures of the decimal are less than 5 in the sixth place, they are dropped; thus, 0.464374999 is called 0.46437 .
(b) If the sixth and following figures of the decimal are greater than 5 in the sixth place, the fifth place is increased by unity and the sixth and following places are dropped ; thus, 0.464375001 is called 0.46438.
(c) If the sixth figure of the decimal is 5 , and if it is followed only by zeros, make the fifth figure the nearest even figure ; thus, 0.46437500 is called 0.46438 , while $0.4643^{8} 500$ is also called $0.4643^{8}$. The number is thus increased when the fifth figure is odd, and decreased when it is even, the two operations tending to neutralize each other in a series of computations, and hence to diminish the resultant error.
2. Hence any number obtained according to Art. I may be in error by half a unit in the fifth decimal place.
3. When the last figure of a number in these tables is 5 , the number printed is too large, the 5 having been obtained according to Art. I (b); if the 5 is without the minus sign, the number printed is too small, the figures following the 5 having been dropped according to Art. I (a).
4. The marginal tables contain the products of the numbers at the top of the columns by $1,2,3, \cdots 9$ tenths, and may be used in multiplying and dividing in interpolation.
(a) To multiply 38 by .746 :


In multiplying by the second figure (hundredths), the decimal point in the table is moved one place to the left; in multiplying by the third (thousandths), two to the left; and so on.
(b) To divide 28 by 38 :

| Dividend, Next less, | $\begin{aligned} & 28 \\ & 26.6 \end{aligned}$ | corresponding to | . 7 | 1 | 38 38 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Remainder, | 14 |  |  | 3 | 1.4 |
| Next less, | 11.4 | corresponding to . | . 03 |  | 15.2 19.0 |
| Remainder, | 26 |  |  |  | 22.8 26.6 |
| Nearest, | 26.6 | corresponding to | . 007 |  | 30.4 |
| Quotient, |  |  | . 737 |  |  |

to the nearest third decimal place. The decimal point is moved one place to the right in each remainder, since the next figure in the quotient will be one place farther to the right.

To divide 23 by 38 :
Dividend, ${ }^{23}$

| $\frac{22.8}{2}$ | corresponding to .6 |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\frac{0.0}{20 .}$ | corresponding to . 00 |

Nearest,
19.0 corresponding to .005
$\therefore$ Quotient,
.605
The computer should use the marginal tables mentally.

## LOGARITHMS.

5. The logarithm of a number is the exponent of the power to which a given number called the base must be raised to produce the first number. If $A=e^{a}, a$ is called the logarithm of the number $A$ to the base $e$, written $\log _{e} A=a$.
6. If $A=e^{a}$, and $B=e^{b}$, or (omitting subscripts) $\log A=a$, and $\log B=b$, we have
$A \times B=e^{a+b} ; \therefore \log (A \times B)=a+b ; \therefore \log (A \times B)=\log A+\log B$.
$A \div B=e^{a-b} ; \therefore \log (A \div B)=a-b ; \therefore \log (A \div B)=\log A-\log B$.
$A^{n} \quad=e^{n a} ; \therefore \log \left(A^{n}\right) \quad=n a ; \quad \therefore \log \left(A^{n}\right) \quad=n \log A$.
$\sqrt[n]{A}=e^{\frac{1}{n} a} ; \therefore \log \sqrt[n]{A} \quad=\frac{1}{n} a ; \quad \therefore \log \sqrt[n]{A}={ }_{n}^{1} \log A$.
7. When the base is not specified, it is generally understood that logarithms to the base 10 , or common logarithms, are meant. In this system, since

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
0.001=\frac{1}{1000} & =\frac{1}{10^{3}}=10^{-3}, & \log 0.001=-3 ; \\
0.01=\frac{1}{100} & =\frac{1}{10^{2}}=10^{-2}, & & \log 0.01=-2 ; \\
0.1=\frac{1}{10} & =\frac{1}{10}=10^{-1}, & \log 0.1=-1 ; \\
1 . & & 10^{0}, & \\
10 & \log 11=0 ; \\
10 . & & 10^{1}, & \\
100 & \log 10=+1 ; \\
100 . & & 10^{2}, & \log 100=+2 ; \\
100 . & & 10^{3}, & \\
l o g 1000 & =+3 .
\end{array}
$$

8. The logarithm of a number between 100 and 1000 will be a number between 2 and 3 , or $2+m$ where $m$ will be a decimal called the mantissa, the integral portion of the logarithm being the characteristic. The mantissa is always considered positive; thus $\log 0.002$ will be a number between -2 and -3 , that is, either $-3+m$ or $-2-m^{\prime}$, the first form being used. We write $\log 0.002=\overline{3} \cdot 30103$, the negative sign being placed over the characteristic to show that the characteristic alone is negative.
9. Since

$$
\log \left(A \times 10^{n}\right)=\log A+\log 10^{n}=\log A+n \log 10=\log A+n,
$$

and $\log \left(A \div 10^{n}\right)=\log A-\log 10^{n}=\log A-n \log 10=\log A-n$, we have, if $\log 37.3=1.57171$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \log 373 .=2.57171, \text { and } \log 3.73=0.57171 ; \\
& \log 373^{\circ}=3.57171, \text { and } \log 0.373=\overline{1} .57171 ; \\
& \log 37300=4.57171, \text { and } \log 0.0373=\overline{2} .57171 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence the position of the decimal point affects the characteristic alone, the mantissa being always the same for the same sequence of figures. For this reason the common system of logarithms is used in practice.
10. The characteristic is found as follows: When the number is greater than I , the characteristic is positive, and is one less than the number of digits to the left of the decimal point; when the number is less than I , the characteristic is negative, and is one more than the number of zeros between the decimal point and the first significant figure.
11. To avoid the use of negative characteristics we add io to the characteristic and write - 10 after the mantissa, i.e. adding and subtracting the same quantity, io. Thus $\log 0.2=1.30103$ would be written
9.30103-10. The - 10 is often omitted for brevity when there is no danger of confusion, but its existence must not be forgotten. Such logarithms are called augmented logarithms.

In this case the characteristic of the logarithm of a pure decimal is 9 diminished by the number of ciphers to the left of the first significant foure. Thus the characteristic of $\log 0.004$ is $9-2$, or 7 , and that of $\log 0.94$ is $9-0$, or 9 .
12. The arithmetical complement of the logarithm (written colog) of a number is the logarithm of its reciprocal, and is found by subtracting each figure of the logarithin from 9 , commencing at the left, except the last significant figure on the right, which is subtracted from 1 .

For

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \log \frac{1}{x}=-\log x=10-\log x-10 ; \\
& \log x=2.46403, \operatorname{colog} x=7.53597-10 ; \\
& \log x=8.43000-10, \operatorname{colog} x=1.57000 .
\end{aligned}
$$

thus, if if

## TABLE XV.

13. Page 397 contains the logarithms of numbers from I to 100 , to five decimal places.

Pages $39^{8-415}$ contain the mantissas of the logarithms of numbers from 1000 to 10009 , to five decimal places.

Pages 416,417 , contain the mantissas of the logarithms of numbers from 10000 to 11009 , to seven decimal places.

Note. - The mantissas of the logarithms of numbers, except those of the integral powers of $\mathbf{1 0}$, are incommensurable, the mantissas in the tables being found as shown in Art. I.

## To find the Logarithm of a Number.

14. The characteristic is found by the rules in Arts. io and II, and the mantissa from the tables, as shown in Arts. 15, 16, 17, 18.
15. When the number has four figures. - Find on pages 398-415 the first three figures in the column marked $N$, and the fourth at the top of one of the other columns. The last three figures of the mantissa are found in this column on the horizontal line through the first three figures of the given number in column $N$. The first two figures of the mantissa are those under $L$ in the same line with the number, or else those nearest above it, unless the last three figures of the mantissa as given in the tables are preceded by a *, when the first two figures are found under $L$ in the first line below the number. Thus (page 398),

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \log 1136=3.0553^{8} ; \log 1137=3.05576 ; \log 1138=3.05614 ; \\
& \log _{1370}=3.13^{6} 7^{2} ; \log 1371=3.13704 ; \log 1372=3.13735 ; \\
& \log 1380=3.13988 ; \log 1381=3.14019 ; \log 1382=3.14051 .
\end{aligned}
$$

16. When the number has less than four figures, annex ciphers on the right and proceed as in Art. 15. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \log 1.13=0.05308 ; \log 12.8=1.10721 ; \log 130=2.11394 ; \\
& \log 15=1.17609 ; \log 16=1.20412 ; \log 17=1.23045 .
\end{aligned}
$$

17. When the number has more than four figures, as 11.4672 . Since the mantissa is independent of the position of the decimal point, point off the first four figures and find the mantissa of $\log 1146.72$. This will be between the mantissas of $\log 1146$ and $\log 1147$. Hence find from the tables the mantissas corresponding to 1146 and 1147; multiply the difference between them (called the tabular difference) by .72 , and add the product (called the correction) to $\log 11.46$; the result will be the logarithm required.

Mantissa of $\log 1146=05918$
Mantissa of $\log 1147=05956$
Tabular difference $=3^{8}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log 11.46 & =1.05918 \\
\text { correction }=3^{8} \times .7^{2} & =\frac{27.3^{6}}{} \\
\therefore \log 11.4^{672} & =1.059453^{6} \\
\text { or } & =1.05945
\end{aligned}
$$

Note. - Since any mantissa in the tables may be in error by half a unit in the fifth decimal place (Art. 2), no advantage is gained by using the sixth place in the interpolated logarithm. Thus, according to Art. I, we drop the $\cdot 36$, and call $\log 11.4672=1.05945$.

Note. - The marginal tables should be used in multiplying the tabular difference to find the correction (Art. 4).

Note. - It is assumed that the change in the mantissa is proportional to that in the number, as the latter increases from 1146 to 1147 . An increase of 1 in the number causes an increase of 38 in the mantissa; hence an increase of .72 in the number will cause an increase of $38 \times .7^{2}$ in the mantissa.

Note. - We could also find the mantissa of $\log 11.4672$ by subtracting the product of the tabular difference by .28 (or $1.00-.72$ ) from the mantissa corresponding to 1147 ; that is, the required mantissa is $05956-(38 \times .28)=05956-10.64=05945$ as before.
18. The general rule is: Find the mantissa corresponding to the first four figures of the number; multiply the tabular difference by the fifth and following figures treated as a decimal; and add the product to the mantissa just found.

The tabular difference is the difference between the mantissas corresponding to the two numbers in the tables, between which the given number lies.
$\log \mathrm{I} .621 \mathrm{~F}_{3}=0.20995 ; \log 0.38024=\overline{\mathrm{r}} .58006 ; \log 0.0852763=\overline{\mathrm{L}} .93083 ;$ $\log 189.524=2.27767 ; \log 0.38602=\overline{\mathrm{I}} .58661 ; \log 0.0085938=3.93419$; $\log 19983.4=4.30067 ; \log 3.98743=0.60070 ; \log 0.090046=2.95446$.

Note. - Page 397 is used when the number contains less than three figures, the number being found in the column $N$, and the logarithm in the column headed Log. The characteristic is given for whole numbers, and must be changed for decimals.

Note. - When a number is composed of three figures, find on pages 398-415 the number in the column $N$, and the mantissa corresponding in the column $L$. o.

## To find the Number corresponding to a Given Logarithm.

19. From the tables we find the sequence of figures corresponding to the given mantissa, as shown in Arts. 20, 21, and 22, the position of the decimal point being determined by the characteristic (Arts. Io, ir).
20. When the given mantissa can be found in the tables. - Find on pages $398-415$ the first two figures of the mantissa under $L$ in the column headed $L$. o. The last three figures of the mantissa are then sought for in the columns headed $0,1,2, \cdots 9$, in the same line with the first two figures, or in one of the lines just below, or in the line next above (where they would be preceded by a *). The first three figures of the required number will be found in the column headed $N$, in the same horizontal line with the last three figures of the mantissa, and the fourth figure of the number at the top of the column in which the last three figures of the mantissa are found. Thus (page 398),

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0.06221=\log 1.154 ; 0.06558=\log 1.163 ; 0.06893=\log 1.172 ; \\
& 0.07004=\log 1.175 ; 0.07188=\log 1.180 ; 0.08063=\log 1.204 .
\end{aligned}
$$

21. When the given mantissa can not be found in the tables. - If we wish to find the number whose logarithm is 2.16531 , we enter the tables with 16531 , and find that it lies between 16524 and 16554 , so that the given mantissa corresponds to a number between 1463 and $\mathbf{1 4 6 4}$. Also 16531 exceeds 16524 by 7 , and this difference, divided by the tabular difference 30 , gives $.23 \cdots$ as the amount by which the required number exceeds 1463 . Hence $2.1653 \mathrm{I}=\log 146.323 \cdots$, which we call $146.3^{2}$, according to Art. I , the incompleteness of the tables making the sixth figure uncertain.

Note. - The marginal tables should be used in dividing the difference between the given mantissa and the one next less in the tables by the tabular difference.
22. The general rule is: Find the number corresponding to the mantissa in the tables next less than the given mantissa; divide the excess of the given mantissa over the one found in the tables by the tabular difference; and annex the quotient to the first four figures already found.

The tabular difference is the difference between the two mantissas in the tables, between which the given mantissa lies.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\overline{\mathrm{I}} .16600=\log 0.14656 ; & 0.18002=\log 1.5136 ; 2.18200=\log 152.06 ; \\
\mathrm{I} .19000=\log 15.488 ; & 4.19680=\log 15773 ; \\
1.20020=\log 15.856 .
\end{array}
$$

23. For the use of the numbers $S^{\prime}, T^{\prime}, S^{\prime \prime}, T^{\prime \prime}$, see Arts. 35-38.

## TABLE XVI.

24. This table (pages $420-464$ ) contains the logarithms, to five decimal places, of the trigonometric sines, cosines, tangents, and cotangents of angles from $0^{\circ}$ to $90^{\circ}$, for each minute. The logarithms in the columns headed L. Sin, L. Tan, and L. Cos, are augmented, and should be diminished by io (Art. II), while those in the columns headed L. Cot are correctly given.
25. Since $\sec x=\frac{1}{\cos x}$, and $\operatorname{cosec} x=\frac{1}{\sin x}$, the logarithms of the secant and cosecant of an angle are the arithmetical complements of those of the cosine and sine respectively (Art. 12).

## To find the Logaritlmic Functions of an Angle Less than $90^{\circ}$.

26. When the angle is less than $45^{\circ}$, the degrees are found at the top of the page, and the minutes on the left. The numbers in the same horizontal line with the minutes of the angle are the logarithmic functions indicated by the notation at the top of the columns. Thus (page 428),

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\log \sin 8^{\circ} 4^{\prime}=9.14714-10, & \log \tan 8^{\circ} 4^{\prime}=9.15^{1} 45-10, \\
\log \cot 8^{\circ} 4^{\prime}=0.84855, & \log \cos 8^{\circ} 4^{\prime}=9.995^{\prime} 68-10 .
\end{array}
$$

27. When the angle is greater than $45^{\circ}$, the degrees are found at the bottom of the page, and the minutes on the right. The numbers in the same horizontal line with the minutes of the angle are the logarithmic functions indicated by the notation at the bottom of the columns. Thus (page 428),

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \log \sin 81^{\circ} 25^{\prime}=9.99511-10, \quad \log \tan 81^{\circ} 25^{\prime}=0.82120, \\
& \log \cot 81^{\circ} 25^{\prime}=9.17880-10, \quad \log \cos 81^{\circ} 25^{\prime}=9.17391-10 .
\end{aligned}
$$

28. When the angle is given to decimals of a minute. - In finding $\log \sin 30^{\circ} 8^{\prime} \cdot 48$, for example, we see that it will lie between the logarithmic sines of $30^{\circ} 8^{\prime}$ and $30^{\circ} 9^{\prime}$, that is, between $9.7007^{2}$ and 9.70093 , their difference 21 being the change in the logarithmic sine caused by a change of $I^{\prime}$ in the angle. Hence, to find the correction to $\log \sin 30^{\circ} 8^{\prime}$ that would give $\log \sin 30^{\circ} 8^{\prime} .48$ we multiply 21 by .48 (Art. 4). The product 10.08 added to $\log \sin 30^{\circ} 8^{\prime}$, since $\log \sin 30^{\circ} 9^{\prime}$ is greater than $\log \sin 30^{\circ} 8^{\prime}$, gives $\log \sin 30^{\circ} 8^{\prime} \cdot 48=9.70082$ (Art. 1). Similarly, $\log \tan 30^{\circ} 8^{\prime} .48=9.7639 \mathrm{I}, \log \cot 30^{\circ} 8^{\prime} .48=0.23609, \log$ $\cos 30^{\circ} 8^{\prime} .48=9.9369 \mathrm{I}$, the correction being subtaacted in the last two cases, since the cotangent and the cosine decrease as the angle increases.
29. The general rule is: Find the function corresponding to the given degrees and minutes; multiply the tabular difference by the decimals of a minute; add the product to the function corresponding to the given degrees and minutes when finding the logarithmic sine or tangent, and subtract it when finding the logarithmic cosine or cotangent.

The tabular differences are given in the columns headed $d$. and $c . d$., the latter containing the common difference for the $L$. Tan and $L$. Cot columns. The difference to be used is that between the functions corresponding to the two angles between which the given angle lies.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { For } 30^{\circ} 39^{\prime} \cdot 38: \log \sin =9.70747 ; \log \cos =9.93462 \text {; } \\
& \log \tan =9.77285 ; \log \cot =0.22715 \text {. } \\
& \text { For } 59^{\circ} 43^{\prime} .46: \log \sin =9.9363^{2} ; \log \cos =9.70257 \text {; } \\
& \log \tan =0.23375 ; \log \cot =9.76625 .
\end{aligned}
$$

30. When the angle is given to seconds, the correction may be found by multiplying the tabular difierence by the number of seconds, and dividing the product by 60 .

## To find the Acute Angle corresponding to a Given Logarithmic Function.

31. The column headed $L$. Sin is marked $L . \operatorname{Cos}$ at the bottom, while that headed $L . \operatorname{Cos}$ is marked $L . \operatorname{Sin}$ at the bottom; hence, if a logarithmic sine or cosine were given, we should expect to find it in one of these two columns. Similarly, we should expect to find a given logarithmic tangent or cotangent in one of the two columns headed L. Tan and L. Cot.
32. When the function can be found in the tables.- If a logarithmic sine is given, find it in one of the two columns marked L. Sin and L. Cos; if found in the column headed $L$. $\operatorname{Sin}$, the degrees are taken from the top, and the minutes from the left of the page; if in the column headed $L$. Cos but marked $L$. Sin at the bottom, the degrees are taken from the bottom, and the minutes from the right of the page. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 9.70115=\log \sin 30^{\circ} 10^{\prime} ; 9.93457=\log \sin 59^{\circ} 20^{\prime} ; \\
& 9.93724=\log \cos 30^{\circ} 4^{\prime} ; 9.70590=\log \cos 59^{\circ} 28^{\prime} ; \\
& 9.76406=\log \tan 30^{\circ} \quad 9^{\prime} ; 0.23 \mathrm{I} 30=\log \tan 59^{\circ} 35^{\prime} ; \\
& 0.23420=\log \cot 30^{\circ}{ }^{\prime} 5^{\prime} ; 9.76870=\log \cot 59^{\circ} 35^{\prime} .
\end{aligned}
$$

33. When the function can not be found in the tables. - If we wish to find the angle whose logarithmic sine is 9.70170 , we see on page 450 that the given logarithmic sine lies between 9.70159 and 9.70180 , and
hence the angle is between $30^{\circ} 12^{\prime}$ and $30^{\circ} 13^{\prime}$. The given logarithmic sine differs from $\log \sin 30^{\circ} 12^{\prime}$ by 11 , and this difference, divided by the tabular difference 21 , gives $.5^{2+}$ as the decimal of a minute by which the angle exceeds $30^{\circ} 12^{\prime}$. Hence $9.70170=\log \sin 30^{\circ} 12^{\prime} .52^{2}$, which we call $30^{\circ} 12^{\prime} \cdot 5$, since the incompleteness of the tables (Art. 1) makes the hundredths of a minute uncertain.
34. The rule is: For a logarithmic sine or tangent find the degrees and minutes corresponding to the function in the tables next less than the given function; divide the difference between the given function and the one next less by the tabular difference; and the quotient will be the decimal of a minute to be added to the degrees and minutes already found. For a logarithmic cosine or cotangent find the degrees and minutes corresponding to the function next greater than the given function, since the cosine and cotangent decrease as the angle increases, and divide the difference between the given function and the one next greater by the tabular difference, to find the decimal of a minute.

The tabular difference is the difference between the two functions in the tables, between which the given function lies.

$$
\begin{gathered}
9 \cdot 70000=\log \sin 30^{\circ} 4^{\prime} \cdot 7 ; 9 \cdot 93500=\log \sin 59^{\circ} 25^{\prime} \cdot 7 ; \\
9 \cdot 93400=\log \cos 30^{\circ} 47^{\prime} \cdot 6 ; 9 \cdot 70500=\log \cos 59^{\circ} 3^{\prime} \cdot 2 ; \\
9 \cdot 77000=\log \tan 30^{\circ} 29^{\prime} \cdot 5 ; 0.23200=\log \tan 59^{\circ} 37^{\prime} \cdot 4 ; \\
0.23300=\log \cot 30^{\circ} 19^{\prime} \cdot 1 ; 9 \cdot 76400=\log \cot 59^{\circ} 51^{\prime} \cdot 2 . \\
\text { Angles Near } 0^{\circ} \text { or } 90^{\circ} .
\end{gathered}
$$

35. The assumption that the variations in the functions are proportional to the variations in the angles if the latter are less than $I^{\prime}$ fails when the angle is small, shown by the rapid changes in the tabular differences on pages 420,421 , and 422 .
36. The quantities $S^{\prime}$ and $T^{\prime}$ which are used in this case are defined by the equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S^{\prime}=\log \frac{\sin u}{u^{\prime}} \\
& T^{\prime}=\log \frac{\tan u}{u^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\varepsilon^{\prime}$ is the number of minutes in the angle. Their values from $0^{\circ}$ to $1^{\circ} 40^{\prime}\left(=100^{\prime}\right)$ are given at the bottom of pages $397-4{ }^{1} 5$; from $1^{\circ} 40^{\prime}$ to $3^{\circ}{ }^{20^{\prime}}$ at the left margin of pages 398 and 399 , the first three figures being found at the top; and from $3^{\circ}$ to $5^{\circ}$ on page 418 . Thus,
for $\quad I^{\prime}=1^{\prime}\left(\right.$ page 399), $S^{\prime}=6.46373, T^{\prime}=6.46373$;
for ${ }^{15} 5^{\prime}=15^{\prime}\left(\right.$ page 399), $S^{\prime}=6.46372, T^{\prime}=6.46373$;
for $2^{\circ} 40^{\prime}=160^{\prime}\left(\right.$ page 399), $S^{\prime}=6.46357, T^{\prime}=6.46404$;
for $4^{\circ} 20^{\prime}=260^{\prime}\left(\right.$ page $\left.4 \mathrm{I}^{8}\right), S^{\prime}=6.4633 \mathrm{I}, T^{\prime}=6.4645^{6}$.
Each of these numbers should have - 10 written after it (Art. if).

Note. - The logarithmic cosine of a small angle is found by the ordinary method. The cotangent of an angle is the reciprocal of the tangent, and hence the logarithmic cotangent is the arithmetical complement of the logarithmic tangent. The formulas for finding the logarithmic cosine, tangent, and cotangent of angles near $90^{\circ}$ are given on page 419.
37. To find the logarithmic sine or tangent of a small angle. - From Art. 36 , we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \log \sin \alpha=S^{\prime}+\log \alpha^{\prime} \\
& \log \tan \alpha=T^{\prime}+\log {\alpha^{\prime}}^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, to find the logarithmic sine or tangent of an angle less than $5^{\circ}$, find the value of the $S^{\prime}$ or $T^{\prime}$ corresponding to the angle, interpolating if necessary, and add it to the logarithm of the number of minutes in the angle.

Find $\log \sin 0^{\circ} 4^{\prime} .6$. Since the angle is nearer $43^{\prime}$ than $42^{\prime}$, we take

$$
\begin{aligned}
S^{\prime} & =6.46371 \\
\log 4^{2} .6 & =1.6294 \mathrm{I} \\
\therefore \log \sin 0^{\circ} 4^{\prime} .6 & =8.09312
\end{aligned}
$$

Find $\log \tan I^{\circ} 53^{\prime} \cdot 2$. Since the angle is nearer $I^{\circ} 53^{\prime}\left(=I I 3^{\prime}\right)$ than II4', we take

$$
\begin{aligned}
T^{\prime} & =6.46388 \\
\log { }_{11} 3.2 & =2.05385 \\
\therefore \log \tan \mathrm{I}^{\circ} 53^{\prime} .2 & =8.5 \mathrm{I} 773
\end{aligned}
$$

Note. - When the angle is given in seconds, either reduce the seconds to decimals of a minute, or use the values of $S^{\prime \prime}$ and $T^{\prime \prime}$ given at the bottom of pages $397-417$ and on page 418. They are defined by the equations

$$
S^{\prime \prime}=\log \frac{\sin a}{a^{\prime \prime}}, \text { and } T^{\prime \prime}=\log \frac{\tan a}{a^{\prime \prime}}
$$

where $a^{\prime \prime}$ is the number of seconds in the angle. Hence

$$
\log \sin a=S^{\prime \prime}+\log a^{\prime \prime}, \text { and } \log \tan \alpha=T^{\prime \prime}+\log a^{\prime \prime} .
$$

38. To find the small angle corresponding to a given logarithmic sine or tangent. - From Art. 36,
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\log \alpha^{\prime}=\log \sin \alpha-S^{\prime} \\ \log \alpha^{\prime}=\log \tan \alpha-T^{\prime}\end{array}\right\}$

When the angle is less than $3^{\circ}$, find on pages $420-422$ the value of $\mathrm{cpl} S^{\prime}$ (or $\mathrm{cpl} T^{\prime}$ ) corresponding to the function, interpolating if necessary, and add it to $\log \sin \alpha($ or $\log \tan \alpha)$; the sum will be the logarithm of the number of minutes in the angle.

In finding the angle whose logarithmic sine is 8.09006 , we see from
the $L . \operatorname{Sin}$ column (page 420) that the angle is between $0^{\circ} 4^{\prime}$ and $0^{\circ} 43^{\prime}$, and that the value of $\mathrm{cpl} S^{\prime}$ must be either 3.53628 or 3.53629 . The given logarithmic sine is nearer that of $42^{\prime}$ than that of $43^{\prime}$; hence we take

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{cpl} S^{\prime} & =3.53628 \\
\log \sin u & =8.09006 \\
\log u^{\prime} & =1.62634 \quad \therefore u^{\prime}=42^{\prime} \cdot 300 .
\end{aligned}
$$

When the angle is between $3^{\circ}$ and $5^{\circ}$, we may find $S^{\prime}$ and $T^{\prime}$ from page 418 after finding the angle approximately from pages 423 and 424 . Thus in finding the angle whose logarithmic tangent is 8.77237 we find from page 423 that the angle is between $3^{\circ} 23^{\prime}$ and $3^{\circ} 24^{\prime}$, being nearer $3^{\circ}{ }^{2} 3^{\prime}$. Then on page 418 we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
T^{\prime} & =6.46423 \\
\log \tan \alpha & =8.77^{2} 37 \\
\therefore \log \tan u-T^{\prime}=\log u^{\prime} & =\frac{2.30814}{\therefore u^{\prime}=203^{\prime} \cdot 30=3^{\circ} 23^{\prime} \cdot 30}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Angles Greater than 90'.

39. To find the logarithmic sine, cosine, tangent, or cotangent of an angle greater than $90^{\circ}$, subtract from the given angle the largest multiple of $90^{\circ}$ contained therein. If this multiple is even, find from the tables the logarithmic sine, cosine, tangent, or cotangent of the remaining acute angle. If the multiple is odd, the logarithmic cosine, sine, cotungent, or tangent, respectively, of the remaining acute angle will be the function required; thus, $\sin 120^{\circ}=\sin \left(90^{\circ}+30^{\circ}\right)=\cos 30^{\circ}$.

| $x=$ | 1. Quadrant. a | II. Quadrant. $90^{\circ}+$ | III. Quadrant. $180^{\circ}+a$ | IV. Quadrant. $270^{\circ}+a$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \sin x= \\ & \cos x= \\ & \tan x= \\ & \cot x= \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & +\sin a \\ & +\cos \alpha \\ & +\tan a \\ & +\cot a \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & +\cos a \\ & -\sin \alpha \\ & -\cot a \\ & -\tan \alpha \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -\sin \alpha \\ & -\cos \alpha \\ & +\tan \alpha \\ & +\cot \alpha \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -\cos \alpha \\ & +\sin \alpha \\ & -\cot \alpha \\ & -\tan \alpha \end{aligned}$ |

Or we could find the difference between the angle and $180^{\circ}$ or $360^{\circ}$, and find from the tables the same function of the remaining acute angle ; thus, $\cos 300^{\circ}=\cos \left(360^{\circ}-60^{\circ}\right)=\cos 60^{\circ}$, etc.

| $x=$ | I. Quadrant. <br> $\alpha$ | II. Quadrant. <br> $180^{\circ}-\alpha$ | III. Quadrant. <br> $180^{\circ}+\alpha$ | IV. Quadrant. <br> $360^{\circ}-\alpha$ <br> or $-\alpha$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\sin x=$ | $+\sin \alpha$ | $+\sin \alpha$ |  | $-\sin \alpha$ |
| $\cos x=$ | $+\cos \alpha$ | $-\cos \alpha$ | $-\cos \alpha$ | $-\sin \alpha$ |
| $\tan x=$ | $+\tan \alpha$ | $-\tan \alpha$ | $+\tan \alpha$ | $-\cos \alpha$ |
| $\cot x=$ | $+\cot \alpha$ | $-\cot \alpha$ | $+\cot \alpha$ | $-\cot \alpha$ |

To indicate that the trigonometric function is negative, $n$ is written after its logarithm.
40. To find the angle corresponding to a given function, find the acute angle $\alpha$ corresponding thereto, and the required angle will be $\alpha$, $180^{\circ} \pm \kappa$, or $360^{\circ}-\alpha$, according to the quadrant in which the angle should be placed.
41. There are always two angles less than $360^{\circ}$ corresponding to any given function. Hence there will be ambiguity in the result unless some condition is known that will fix the angle; thus, if the sine is positive, the angle may be in either of the first two quadrants, but if we also know that the cosine is negative, the angle must be in the second quadrant.

## Given One Function of an Angle, to find Another without finding the Angle.

42. Suppose $\log \tan \alpha=9.7936 \mathrm{I}$, and $\log \cos \alpha$ is sought. On page 45 I the tabular difference for $\log \tan \alpha$ is 28 , and that for $\log \cos \alpha$ is 8 , the given logarithmic tangent exceeding 9.79354 by 7 . Hence $28: 7=8: x ; \therefore x=2=$ correction to 9.92905 , giving $\log \cos \alpha=$ 9.92903 .

In the margin are tables to facilitate the process. In the column headed $\frac{8}{28}$, the numerator is the tabular difference for the logarithmic cosines, and the denominator that for the logarithmic tangents ${ }^{1}$. The correction for the logarithmic cosine will be o when the given logarithmic tangent exceeds the next smaller logarithmic tangent, found in the tables, by less than I .8 , I for an excess between I .8 and $5.2,5$ for an excess between 15.8 and 19.2, etc. In the example above, the excess was 7 , which is between 5.2 and 8.8 , so that the correction is 2 .

For example, if we have given the logarithms of the sides of a right-angled triangle, $\log a=2.98227$ and $\log b=2.90255$, to find the hypotenuse, we use the formulas

$$
\tan \alpha=\frac{a}{b} \text {, and } c=\frac{a}{\sin \alpha}=\frac{b}{\cos \alpha} \text {. }
$$

The value of $\log \tan \alpha$ being found in
$\log a=2.98227$ (1)
$\therefore \log \sin \alpha=9.88571$ (4)
$\log b=2.90255$ (2)
$\therefore \log \tan \alpha=0.0797^{2}$ (3)
$\therefore \quad \log c=3.0965^{6}(5)$ the column marked $L$. Tan at the bottom, the right column will contain the logarithmic sine of the corresponding angle. Also, the correction to 9.88563 is $20 \times \frac{10}{26}$, which we find to be 8 from the table headed $\frac{10}{26}$.
${ }^{1}$ For angles $<45^{\circ}$.

# TABLE XV. 

## COMMON

## LOGARITHMS OF NUMBERS

FROM I TO IIOOO.



| $\begin{array}{l\|} \mathrm{S}^{\prime} \\ 6 . \mathrm{T}^{\prime} \\ 359 \\ 359 \\ \hline 100 \end{array}$ |  | N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 150 | 17609 | 638 | 667 | 696 | 725 | 754 | 782 | 811 | 840 | 869 | 29 |  |
| 359 | 405 | 151 | 898 | 926 | 955 | 984 | *OI3 | *041 | *070 | *099 | *127 |  | $\begin{array}{llll} & 29 & 28 \\ \text { I } & 2.9 & 2.8\end{array}$ |  |
| 358 | 401 | 152 | 18184 | 213 | 241 | 270 | 298 | 611 | 639 | 667 | 496 | 441 | 1 2.9  <br> 2 5.8 5.6 |  |
| 358 | 401 | ${ }^{1} 53$ | 469 | 498 | 526 | 554 | 583 |  |  |  |  | 724 | $\begin{array}{ll}2 & 5.8 \\ 3 & 8.7\end{array}$ |  |
| $35^{8}$ | 402 | ${ }^{1} 54$ | 752 | 780 | 808 | 837 | 865 | 893 | 921 | 949 | 977 |  | 3 8.8 <br> 4 11.6 |  |
| 358 | 40 | 155 | 19033 | 061 | 089 | 117 | 145 | 173 | 201 | 229 | 257 |  | 514.5 |  |
| $35^{8}$ | 402 | 156 | 312 | 340 | 368 | 396 | 424 | 451728 | 479 | 507783 | 535 |  | ${ }_{5}^{51} 17.4$ |  |
| 358 | 403 | 157 | 590 | 618 | 645 | 673 | 700 |  |  |  | 811838 |  |  |  |
| 357 | 403 | 158 | 866 | 893 | 921 | 948 | 976249 | $\begin{array}{r} 728 \\ * 003 \end{array}$ |  | $\begin{array}{r} 783 \\ +058 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} * 085 \\ 358 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 112 \\ { }^{112} \\ 385 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}7 & 20.3 & 19.6 \\ 8 & 23.2 & 22.4\end{array}$ |  |
| 357 | 404 | 159 | 20140 | 167 | 194 | 222 |  | 276 | 303 | $33^{\circ}$ |  |  | ${ }_{9} \mathbf{2 6 . 1} \quad 25.2$ |  |
| 357 | 404 | 160 | 412 | 439 | 466 | 493 | 520 | 548 | 575 | 602 | 629 | 656 |  |  |
| 357 | 404 | 161 | 683 | 710 | 737 | 763 | 790 | 817 | 84 | 871 |  | 925 <br> 192 | 27 |  |
| 357 | 405 | 162 | 952 | 978 | *005 | *032 | $\begin{array}{r} \text { } \\ \mathbf{0 5 9} \\ 325 \end{array}$ | **8 |  | *139 |  |  | 12.7 |  |
| 356 | 405 | 163 | 21219 | 245 | 272 | 299 |  |  | $\begin{array}{r} { }^{112} \\ 378 \end{array}$ |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}2 & 5.4 & 5.2 \\ 8.4 & \end{array}$ |  |
| 356 | 406 | 164 | 484 | 511 | 537 | 564 |  | 617880 | $\begin{array}{lll} 7 & 643 \\ 0 & 906 \end{array}$ | 366 | 696 |  | $\begin{array}{rrrr}3 & 8.1 & 7.8 \\ 4 & 10.8 \\ 10.4\end{array}$ |  |
| 356 | 406 | 165 | 748 | 775 | 801 | 827 |  |  |  |  | 958220 | 985246 | $\begin{array}{llll}5 & 13.8 \\ 5 & 13.0\end{array}$ |  |
| 356 | 406 | 166 | 22011 | -37 | 063 | 089 | $\begin{aligned} & 854 \\ & 115 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | 194 |  |  | 616.2 | 15.6 |
| 356 | 407 | 167 | 272 | 298 | 324 | 350 | 376 | 401 | 427 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 479 \\ & 737 \end{aligned}$ | 505 |    <br>  18.2 18.9 <br> 78.6   <br> 8 18.2  |  |
| 355 | 407 | 168 | 531 | 557 | 583 | 608 |  |  | 686 |  |  | 763 | 821.6 | 20.8 |
| 355 | 408 | 169 | 789 | 814 | 840 | 866 |  | 917 | 943 | 963 | 994 *019 |  | 9.24.3 23.4 |  |
| 355 | 408 | 170 | 23045 | O70 | 096 | 21 | 401 | 172 | 98 | 223 | 249 | 274 |  |  |
| 355 | 408 | 171 | 300 | 325 | 350 | 376 |  |  | 452 | $2{ }^{2} 47$ | $\begin{array}{r} 502 \\ 754 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 528 \\ & 779 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{rr}25 \\ 1 & 2.5 \\ \text { 2 }\end{array}$ |  |
| 354 | 409 | 172 | 553 | 578 | 603 | 629 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 679 \\ & 930 \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 354 | 409 | ${ }^{1} 73$ | 805 | 830 | 855 | 880 |  |  | $95 \overline{5}$ | $5 \overline{5} 9$ | 980 *005 * ${ }^{\text {30 }}$ |  | 25.0 |  |
| 354 | 410 | 174 | 24055 | 080 | 105 | 130 | 155403 | 180 | 204 | 477 | 254279 |  | 4 10.0 |  |
| 354 | 410 | 175 | 304 | 329 | 353 | 378 |  |  | 452 |  | 724 |  |  | 512.5615.0 |  |
| 354 | ${ }^{111}$ | 176 | 551 | 576 | 601 | 625 | 650 | $674$ | 699 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 35 | 411 | 177 | 797 | 822 | 846 | 871 | $\begin{aligned} & 895 \\ & 139 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 920 \\ & 164 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 944 \\ & 188 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 969 \\ & 212 \end{aligned}$ | ${ }_{293} 938$ |  | $\begin{array}{ll}615.0 \\ 7 & 17.5\end{array}$ |  |
| 353 353 | 41 x | 178 | 25042 | 066 | 091 | 115 |  |  |  |  |  |  | 820.0 |  |
| 353 |  | 179 | 285 | 551 | 334 | 358 | $\frac{382}{624}$ | 406 | 431 | 455 | 479 |  | $9{ }^{22} 2$ |  |
| 353 | 413 | 181 | 527 | 792 | 575 |  | 864 | 888 | 12 | 96 | 720 | 744 | 24 | 23 |
| 35 | 4 4 | 182 | 26007 | 031 | 055 | -79 | 102 | 126 | 150 | 174 | 198 | 221 | I 2.4 | 2.3 |
| 352 | $4 \times 4$ | 183 | 245 | 269 | 293 | 316 | 340 | 364 | 387 | 411 | 435 | 458 | 24.8 | 4.6 |
| 352 | 414 | 184 | 482 | 505 | 529 | 553 | 576 | 600 | 623 | 647 | 670 | 694 | 37.2 | 6.9 |
| $35^{2}$ | 415 | 185 | 717 | 741 | 764 | 788 | 811 | 834 | 858 | 881 | 905 | 928 | 49.6 |  |
| 351 | 45 | 18 | 951 | 975 | 998 | 021 | *045 |  | *091 | *114 | * 138 | *16 | $\begin{array}{ll}5 \\ 6 \\ 6 & 12.0 \\ 14.4\end{array}$ | 11.5 13.8 |
| 35 x | 415 | 187 | 27184 | 207 | 231 | 254 | 277 | 300 | 323 | 346 | 370 | 393 | 716.8 |  |
| 351 | 416 | 188 189 | 416 646 | 439 669 | 462 | 485 | 508 | ${ }_{761}^{531}$ | 554 <br> 784 | 577 | 600 | 623 | 819.2 | 18.4 |
| 1350 | 417 | 190 | 875 | 898 | 21 | 944 | 967 | 989 | *012 | *o35 | *058 | *081 | 9.21 | 20.7 |
| 350 | 417 | 191 | $2 8 \longdiv { 1 0 3 }$ | 126 | 149 | 171 | 194 | 217 | 240 | 262 | 285 | 307 | 22 | 21 |
| 350 | 488 | 192 | 330 | 353 | 375 | 398 | 421 | 443 | 466 | 488 | 511 | 533 | 12.2 | 2.1 |
| 350 | 48 | 193 | 556 | 578 | 601 | 623 | 646 | 668 | 691 | 713 | 735 | 758 | 24.4 | 4.2 |
| 350 | 419 | 194 | 780 | 803 | 825 | 847 | 870 | 892 | 914 | 937 | 959 | 981 | 36. | 6.3 |
| 349 | 419 | 195 | 29003 | 026 | 048 | 070 | 092 | 115 | 137 | 159 | 181 | 203 | 48.8 | 8.4 |
| 349 | 420 | 196 | 226 | 248 | 270 | 292 | 314 | 336 | 358 | 380 | 403 | 425 | 511.0 |  |
| 349 | 420 | 197 | 447 | 469 | 491 | 513 | 535 | 557 | 579 | 601 | 623 | 645 | 613.2 |  |
| 349 | ${ }^{421}$ | 198 | 887 | 688 | 710 | 732 | 754 | 776 | 798 | 820 | 842 | 863 | 715.4 817.6 | 14.7 16.8 |
| 348 |  | 199 | 885 | 907 | 929 | 951 | 973 | 994 | - | *038 | * 0 | *08 |  |  |
| 348 | 200, 30110 |  |  | 125 | 146 | 168 | 190 | 211 | 233 | 255 | 276 | 298 |  |  |
|  |  | N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P. |  |
|   S! T! <br> $\mathbf{1}$ 6.46 373 373 <br> $\mathbf{2}$  373 373 |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{ll} 0^{\circ} & 2^{\prime}=120^{\prime \prime} \\ 0 & 3=180 \\ 0 & 4=240 \\ \hline \end{array}$ |  |  | $4.68$ | S. ${ }^{\prime}$ | T." | $0^{\circ} 28^{\prime}=1680^{\prime \prime}$ |  |  | S.' ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ T. |  |
|  |  |  |  | 557 | 557 | 68557 |  | $55^{8}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | 557 | 557 |  |  | $29=1$ | 740 | 557 | 559 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15 |  |  | 273732 |  |  |  | 557 | 558 |  | $30=18$ | 800 | 557 | 559 |  |  |
| 20 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 557 | 558 |  | $1=$ |  | 557 |  |
|  |  |  | - |  |  |  | $26=$ | $1560$ |  | 557 | $55^{8}$ |  | $32=19$ | 920 | 557 | 559 |
|  |  |  | - | $27=$ | $1620$ |  |  | 557 | 558 |  | $33=19$ | 980 | 557 | 559 |
|  |  |  |  | $28=$ | $1680$ |  | 557 | 558 |  | $34=$ | 040 | 557 |  |  |  |


| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |  | P. P. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 200 | 30103 | 125 | 146 | 168 | 190 | 211 | 233 | 255 | 276 | 298 |  | $22 \quad 21$ |
| 201 | 320 | 341 | 363 | 384 | 406 | 428 | 449 | 471 | 492 | 514 |  |  |
| 202 | 535 | 557 | 578 | 600 | 621 835 | 643 856 | 664 878 | 685 | 707 920 | 728 | 1 | $\begin{array}{lll}2.2 & 2.1 \\ 4.4 & 4.2\end{array}$ |
| 203 | 750 | 771 | 792 | 814 | 835 | 856 | 878 | 899 | 920 | 942 | 2 | $\begin{array}{ll}4.4 & 4.2 \\ 6.6 & 6.3\end{array}$ |
| 204 | 963 | 984 | *006 | *027 | * 048 | *069 | *091 | *112 | *133 | *154 | 4 | $\begin{array}{ll}8.8 & 8.4\end{array}$ |
| 205 | 31175 | 197 | 218 | 239 | 260 | 281 | 302 | 323 | 345 | 366 | 5 | $\begin{array}{ll}11.0 & 10.5\end{array}$ |
| 206 | 387 | 408 | 429 | 450 | 475 | 492 | 513 | 534 | 555 | 576 | 6 | $\begin{array}{llll}13.2 & 12.6\end{array}$ |
| 207 | 597 | 618 | 639 | 660 | 681 | 702 | 723 | 744 | 765 | 785 | 7 | 15.414 .7 |
| 208 | 806 | 827 | 848 | 869 | 890 | 911 | 931 | 952 | 973 | 994 | 8 | $\begin{array}{llll}17.6 & 16.8\end{array}$ |
| 209 | 32015 | 035 | 056 | 077 | 098 | 118 | 139 | 160 | 181 | 20 | 9 | 19.818 .9 |
| 210 | 222 | 243 | 263 | 284 | 305 | 325 | 346 | 366 | 387 | 408 |  | 20 |
| 211 | 428 | 449 | 469 | 490 | 510 | 531 | 552 | 572 | 593 | 613 |  |  |
| 212 | 634 | 654 | 675 | 695 | 715 | 736 | 756 | 777 | 797 | 818 |  | 1 2.0 <br> 2 40 |
| 213 | 838 | 858 | 879 | 899 | 919 | 940 | 960 | 980 | *OOI | *021 |  |   <br> 2 4.0 <br> 3 6.0 |
| 214 | 33041 | 062 | 082 | 102 | 122 | 143 | 163 | 183 | 203 | 224 |  | 8.0 |
| 215 | 244 | 264 | 284 | 304 | 325 | 345 | 365 | 385 | 405 | 425 |  | 5 |
| 216 | 445 | 465 | 486 | 506 | 526 | 546 | 566 | 586 | 606 | 626 |  | 6 |
| 217 | 646 | 666 | 686 | 706 | 726 | 746 | 766 | 786 | 806 | 826 |  | 714.0 |
| 218 | 846 | 866 | 885 | 905 | 925 | 945 | 965 | 985 | *005 | *023 |  | 816.0 |
| 219 | 34044 | 064 | 084 | 104 | 124 | 143 | 163 | 183 | 203 | 223 |  | 918.0 |
| 220 | 242 | 262 | 282 | 301 | 321 | 341 | 361 | 380 | 400 | 420 |  | 19 |
| 221 | 439 | 459 | 479 | 498 | 518 | 537 | 557 | 577 | 596 | 616 |  |  |
| 222 | 635 830 | 655 850 | 674 869 | 694 889 | 713 | 733 | 753 | 772 | 792 | 811 |  | 1 1.9 <br> 2 3.8 |
| 223 | 830 | 850 | 869 | 889 | 908 | 928 | 947 | 967 | 986 | *005 |  | 2 3.8 <br> 3 5.7 |
| 224 | 35025 | 044 | 064 | 083 | 102 | 122 | 141 | 160 | 180 | 199 |  | $\begin{array}{lll}4 & 7.6\end{array}$ |
| 225 | 218 | 238 | 257 | 276 | 295 | 315 | 334 | 353 | 372 | 392 |  | $5 \quad 9.5$ |
| 226 | 411 | 430 | 449 | 468 | 488 | 507 | 526 | 545 | 564 | 583 |  | $\begin{array}{lll}6 & 11.4\end{array}$ |
| 227 | 603 | 622 | 641 | 660 | 679 | 698 | 717 | 736 | 755 | 774 |  | $7 \quad 13.3$ |
| 228 | 793 | 813 | 832 | 851 | 870 | 889 | 908 | 927 | 946 | 965 |  | $8 \quad 15.2$ |
| 229 | 984 | *003 | * 021 | *040 | *059 | *078 | *097 | *116 | * 135 | *154 |  | 9 17.1 |
| 230 | 36173 | 192 | 211 | 229 | 248 | 267 | 286 | $30 \overline{5}$ | 324 | 342 |  |  |
| 231 | 361 | 380 | 399 | 418 | 436 | 455 | 474 | 493 | 511 | 530 |  |  |
| 232 | 549 | 568 | 586 | 603 | 624 | 642 | 661 | 680 | 698 | 717 |  | $\begin{array}{lll}1 & 3.8\end{array}$ |
| 233 | 736 | 754 | 773 | 791 | 810 | 829 | 847 | 866 | 884 | 903 |  | 5.4 |
| 234 | 922 | 940 | 959 | 977 | 996 | *OI4 | *033 | *051 | *оуо | *088 |  | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 5.4 \\ 4 & 7.2\end{array}$ |
| 235 | 37107 | 125 | 144 | 162 | 181 | 199 | 218 | 236 | 254 | 273 |  | 59 |
| 236 | 291 | 310 | 328 | 346 | 365 | 383 | 401 | 420 | 438 | 457 |  | 5 10.8 |
| 237 | 475 | 493 | 511 | 530 | 548 | 566 | 583 | 603 | 621 | 639 |  | 712.6 |
| 238 | 658 | 676 | 694 | 712 | 731 | 749 | 767 | 785 | 803 | 822 |  | 8 |
| 239 | 840 | 858 | 876 | 894 | 912 | 931 | 949 | 967 | 985 | *003 |  | 916.2 |
| 240 | 38021 | 039 | 057 | 075 | 093 | 112 | 130 | 148 | 166 | 184 |  |  |
| 24 | 202 | 220 | 238 | 256 | 274 | 292 | 310 | 328 | 346 | 364 |  | 17 |
| 242 | 382 | 399 | 417 | 435 | 453 | 471 | 489 | 507 | 525 | 543 |  | 1.7 |
| 243 | 561 | 578 | 596 | 614 | 632 | 650 | 668 | 686 | 703 | 721 |  | 3.4 |
| 244 | 739 | 757 | 775 | 792 | 810 | 828 | 846 | 863 | 881 | 899 |  | 3 5.1 |
| 245 | 917 | 934 | 952 | 970 | 987 | *005 | *023 | *041 | *058 | *076 |  |  |
| 246 | 39094 | 111 | 129 | 146 | 164 | 182 | 199 | 217 | 235 | 252 |  | 8.5 |
| 247 | 270 | 287 | 305 | 322 | 340 | 358 | 375 | 393 | 410 | 428 |  | 6 10.2 <br> 7 11.9 |
| 248 | 445 | 463 | 480 | 498 | 515 | 533 | 550 | 568 | 585 | 602 |  | 11.9 13.6 |
| 249 | 620 | 637 | $65 \overline{5}$ | 672 | 690 | 707 | 724 | 74 | 759 | 777 |  |  |
| 250 | 794 | 8II | 829 | 846 | 863 | 881 | 898 | 915 | 933 | 950 |  |  |
| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |  | P. P. |
| $\begin{array}{lrr} \hline & \mathrm{S}!^{\prime} & \mathrm{T}!^{\prime} \\ 2^{\prime} & 6.46 & 373 \\ 3 & 373 & 373 \\ \hline \end{array}$ |  |  | $\mathrm{o}^{\circ}$ |  |  | S.' T ." |  | $0^{\circ} 36^{\prime}=2160^{\prime \prime} 4.68$ |  |  |  | S." T." |
|  |  |  | $3^{\prime}=$ | $80^{\prime \prime}$ | 68557 | 557 | 557559 |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | $4=$ | $4{ }^{\circ}$ | 557 | $55^{8}$ | - | $37=2$ | 220 |  | 557559 |
| 20 | 372 | 373 |  | - | $5=300$ |  | 557 | 558 | - | $38=2280$ |  |  | 557559 |
| 25 | 372 | 373 |  | - $33=1980$ |  |  | 557 | 559 |  | $39=2340$ |  |  | 557559 |
|  |  |  | - $34=2040$ |  |  | 557 | 559 |  | 40 <br> 102400 <br> 41 |  |  | 557559 |
|  |  |  | - $35=2 \mathbf{1 0 0}$ |  |  | 557 | 559 |  | $41=2460$$42=2520$ |  |  | 556 |
|  |  |  | - $36=2160$ |  |  | 557 | 559 | - |  |  |  | 556560 |


| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 250 | 39794 | 811 | 829 | 846 | 863 | 881 | 898 | 915 | 933 | 950 | 18 |  |
| 251 | 967 | 985 | *002 | *019 | *037 | *054 | *071 | *088 | *106 | *123 |  |  |
| 252 | 40140 | 157 | 175 | 192 | 209 | 226 | 243 | 261 | 278 | 295 |  |  |
| 253 | 312 | 329 | 346 | 364 | 381 | 398 | 415 | 432 | 449 | 466 | 2 |  |
| 254 | 483 | 500 | 518 | 535 | 552 | 569 | 586 | 603 | 620 | 637 | 3 |  |
| 255 | 654 | 671 | 688 | 785 | 722 | 739 | 756 | 773 | 790 | 807 | 7.29.0 |  |
| 256 | 824 | 841 | 858 | 875 | 892 | 909 | 926 | 943 | 960 | 976 |  |  |
| 257 | 993 | *010 | *027 | *044 | *06I | *078 | *095 | *III | *128 | *145 | 7 12.6 <br> 8 14.4 |  |
| 258 | 41162 | 179 | 196 | 212 | 229 | 246 | 263 | 280 | 296 | 313 |  |  |  |
| 259 | 330 | 347 | 363 | 380 | 397 | 414 | 430 | 447 | 464 | 48 I | 916.2 |  |
| 260 | 497 | 514 | 531 | 547 | 564 | 581 | 597 | 614 | 631 | 647 |  |  |  |
| 261 | 664 | 681 | 697 | 714 | 731 | 747 | 764 | 780 | 797 | 814 | 17 |  |
| 262 | 830 | 847 | 863 | 880 | 896 | 913 | 929 | 946 | 963 | 979 | 1 1.7 |  |
| 263 | 996 | *O12 | *029 | *045 | *062 | *078 | *095 | *III | *127 | *144 | 2 3.4 |  |
| 264 | 42160 | 177 | 193 | 210 | 226 | 243 | 259 | 275 | 292 | 308 | $3 \quad 5.1$ |  |
| 265 | 325 | 341 | 357 | 374 | 390 | 406 | 423 | 439 | 455 | 472 | 4 6.8 <br> 5 8.5 <br> 6 I0.2 |  |
| 266 | 488 | 504 | 521 | 537 | 553 | 570 | 586 | 602 | 619 | 635 |  |  |  |
| 267 | 651 | 667 | 684 | 700 | 716 | 732 | 749 | 765 | 781 | 797 | 11.211.913.6 |  |
| 268 | 813 | 830 | 846 | 862 | 878 | 894 $* 056$ | * 911 | +927 | 943 | +959 |  |  |  |
| 269 | 975 | 991 | *008 | *024. | *040 | *056 | *072 | *088 | *104 | *120 | 9115 |  |
| 270 | 43136 | 152 | 169 | 185 | 201 | 217 | 233 | 249 | 265 | 281 |  | 16 |
| 271 | 297 | 313 | 329 | 345 | 361 | 377 | 393 | 409 | 425 | 441 |  |  |
| 272 | 457 | 473 | 489 | 505 | 521 680 | 537 | 553 | 569 | 584 | 600 | 1 1.6 |  |
| 273 | 616 | 632 | 648 | 664 | 680 | 696 | 712 | 727 | 743 | 759 | 2 3.2 <br> 3 4.8 |  |
| 274 | 775 | 791 | 807 | 823 | 838 | 854 | 870 | 886 | 902 | -917 |  4. <br> 4 6.4 |  |
| 275 | 933 | 949 | 965 | 981 | 996 | *O12 | *O28 | *044 | *059 | *075 | 8.09.6 |  |
| 276 | 44091 | 107 | 122 | 138 | 154 | 170 | 185 | 201 | 217 | 232 |  |  |  |
| 277 | 248 | 264 | 279 | 295 | 311 | 326 | 342 | 358 | 373 | 389 | 11.212.8 |  |
| 278 | 404 | 420 | 436 | 451 | 467 | 483 | 498 | 514 | 529 | 545 |  |  |  |
| 279 | 560 | 576 | 592 | 607 | 623 | 638 | 654 | 669 | 685 | 700 | $9{ }^{9} 14.4$ |  |
| 280 | 716 | 731 | 747 | 762 | 778 | 793 | 809 | 824 | 840 | 855 |  |  |  |
| 281 | 871 | 886 | 902 | 917 | 93 | 948 | 963 | 979 | 994 | *010 |  | 15 |
| 282 | 45025 | 040 | 056 | 071 | 086 | 102 | 117 | 133 | 148 | 163 | $1{ }^{1} 1.5$ |  |
| 283 | 179 | 194 | 209 | 225 | 240 | 255 | 271 | 286 | 301 | 317 | 5 |  |
| 284 | 332 | 347 | 362 | 378 | 393 | 408 | 423 576 | 439 | 454 | 469 | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 4.5 \\ 4 & 6.0\end{array}$ |  |
| 285 286 | 484 637 | 500 652 | 515 | 530 -682 | 545 | 561 712 | 576 728 | 591 | 606 | 621 | 5 7.5 <br> 6 9.0 |  |
| 286 | 637 | 652 803 | 667 818 | - 888 | 697 849 | 712 864 | 728 879 | 743 | 758 | 773 |  |  |  |
| 287 288 | 788 939 | 803 954 | 818 969 | 834 984 | 849 +000 | * 864 | 879 $* 030$ | 894 $*$ +045 | *060 | $\begin{array}{r}924 \\ * 075 \\ \hline\end{array}$ | 7 10.5 <br> 8 12.0 |  |
| 288 289 | 939 46090 | $\begin{array}{r}954 \\ 105 \\ \hline\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r}969 \\ 120 \\ \hline 27\end{array}$ | 984 135 | +000 | *O15 | *030 | +045 +195 | *060 | $\begin{array}{r}* \\ * \\ 225 \\ \hline\end{array}$ |  |  |  |
| 290 | 240 | 255 | 270 | 285 | 300 | 315 | 330 | 345 | 359 | 374 | 913.5 |  |
| 291 | 389 | 404 | 419 | 434 | 449 | 464 | 479 | 494 | 509 | 523 | 14 |  |
| 292 | 538 | 553 | 568 | 583 | 598 | 613 | 627 | 642 | 657 | 672 | 1 1.4 <br> 2 2.8 |  |
| 293 | 687 | 702 | 716 | 731 | 746 | 761 | 776 | 790 | 805 | 820 | $2{ }^{2} 2.8$ |  |
| 294 | 835 | 850 | 864 | 879 | 894 | 909 | 923 | 938 | 953 | 967 | $3 \quad 4.2$ |  |
| 295 | 982 | 997 | *O12 | *026 | *041 | *056 | *070 | *085 | *IOO | *II4 | $4 \quad 5.6$ |  |
| 296 | 47129 | 144 | 159 | 173 | 188 | 202 | 217 | 232 | 246 | 261 | $\begin{aligned} & 7.0 \\ & 8.4 \end{aligned}$ |  |
| 297 | 276 | 290 | 305 | 319 | 334 | 349 | 363 | 378 | 392 | 407 |  |  |
| 298 | 422 | 436 | 451 | 465 | 480 | 494 | 509 | 524 | 538 | 553 | 7 9.8 <br> 8 $\mathbf{1 1 . 2}$ |  |
| 299 | 567 | 582 | 596 | 611 | 625 | 640 | 654 | 669 | 683 | 698 | 9 12.6 |  |
| 300 | 712 | 727 | 741 | 756 | 770 | 784 | 799 | 813 | 828 | 842 |  |  |  |
| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P, |  |
|  | S.' | T! |  |  |  | S." T." |  |  |  |  |  | .' T." |
| $2{ }^{\prime}$ | 6.46373 | 373 | $0^{\circ} 4^{\prime}=240^{\prime \prime}$ |  |  | 68557 | 558 | $0^{\circ} 45^{\prime}=2700^{\prime \prime} 4.68556560$ |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 373 | 373 | - $5=300$ |  |  | 557 | $55^{8}$ | - | $46=2760$ |  | $\begin{array}{ll} 556 & 560 \\ 556 & 560 \end{array}$ |  |
| 25 | 372 | 373 | $1=2460$ |  |  | 556 | 560 | - | $47=2820$$48=2880$ |  |  |  |  |
| 26 | 372 | 373 | - $43=2580$ |  |  | 556 |  | - |  |  | 556556560 |  |
| 27 | 372 | 374 |  |  |  | 556 | 560 | - | 4950 |  | $\begin{array}{ll} 556 & 560 \\ 556 & 561 \end{array}$ |  |
| 30 | 372 | 374 | - $44=2640$ |  |  | 556 | 560 |  | $50=3000$ |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | $5=27$ |  | 556 |  | - |  |  |  |  |



| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 350 | 54407 | 419 | 432 | 444 | 456 | 469 | 481 | 494 | 506 | 518 |  |
| 351 | 531 | 543 | 555 | 568 | 580 | 593 | 605 | 617 | 630 | 642 |  |
| 352 | 654 | 667 | 679. | 691 | 704 | 716 | 728 | 741 | 753 | 765 | 13 |
| 353 | 777 | 790 | 802 | 814 | 827 | 839 | 851 | 864 | 8,6 | 888 |  |
| 354 | 900 | 913 | 925 | 937 | 949 | 962 | 974 | 986 | 998 | *OIr | 1 1.3 <br> 2 2.6 |
| 355 | 55023 | O35 | 047 | 060 | 072 | 084 | ${ }_{0} 96$ | 108 | 121 | 133 -55 | 3 3.6 <br>  3.9 |
| 356 | 145 | 157 | 169 | 182 | 194 | 206 | 218 | 230 | 242 | 255 | $\begin{array}{lll} \\ 4 & 3.9 \\ 5.2\end{array}$ |
| 357 | 267 | 279 | 291 | 303 | 315 | 328 | 340 | 352 | 364 | 376 | $\begin{array}{lll}5 & 6.5\end{array}$ |
| 358 | 388 509 | 400 | 413 | 425 | 437 | 449 | 461 | 473 | 485 | 497 | $\begin{array}{ll}6 & 7.8\end{array}$ |
| 359 | 509 | 522 | 534 | 546 | $55^{8}$ | 570 | 582 | 594 |  | 618 | $7 \quad 9.1$ |
| 360 | 630 | 642 | 654 | 666 | 678 | 691 | 703 | 715 | 727 | 739 | 8 10.4 |
| 361 | 751 | 763 | 775 | 787 | 799 | 811 | 823 | 835 | 847 | 859 | 9 11.7 |
| 362 | 871 | 883 | 895 | 907 | 919 | 931 | 943 | 955 | 967 | 979 |  |
| 363 | 991 | *003 | *or 5 | *027 | *038 | *050 | *062 | *074 | *086 | *098 |  |
| 364 | 56110 | 122 | 134 | 146 | 158 | 170 | 182 | 194 | 205 | 217 | 12 |
| 365 | 229 | 241 | 253 | 265 | 277 | 289 | 301 | 312 | 324 | 336 | 12 |
| 366 | 348 | 360 | 372 | 384 | 396 | 407 | 419 | 43 I | 443 | 455 | 1 1.2 <br> 2 2.4 |
| 367 | 467 | 478 | 490 | 502 | 514 | 526 | 538 | 549 | 561 | 573 | $\begin{array}{lll}2 & 2.4 \\ 3 & 3.6\end{array}$ |
| 368 | 585 | 597 | 608 | 620 | 632 | 644 | 656 | 667 | 679 | 691 | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 3.6 \\ 4 & 4.8\end{array}$ |
| 369 | 703 | 714 | 726 | 738 | 750 | 761 | 773 | 785 | 797 | 808 |  |
| 370 | 820 | 832 | 844 | 855 | 867 | 879 | 891 | 902 | 914 | 926 | 5 7.8 |
| 371 | 937 | 949 | 961 | 972 | 984 | 996 | *008 | *019 | *031 | *043 | $\begin{array}{ll}7 & 8.4\end{array}$ |
| 372 | 57054 | 066 | 078 | 089 | 101 | 113 | 124 | 136 | 148 | 159 | $8 \quad 9.6$ |
| 373 | 171 | 183 | 194 | 206 | 217 | 229 | 241 | 252 | 264 | 276 | 9 10.8 |
| 374 | 287 | 299 | 310 | 322 | 334 | 345 | 357 | 368 | 380 | 392 |  |
| 375 | 403 | 415 | 426 | 438 | 449 | 461 | 473 | 484 | 496 | 507 |  |
| 376 | 519 | 530 | 542 | 553 | 565 | 576 | 588 | 600 | 611 | 623 |  |
| 377 | 634 | 646 | 657 | 669 | 680 | 692 | 703 | 715 | 726 | 738 | 11 |
| 378 | 749 864 | 761 875 | 772 887 | 784 898 | 795 | 807 | 818 | 830 | 841 | 852 | $1{ }^{1}$ 1.1 |
| 379 | 864 | 875 | 887 | 898 | 910 | 921 | 933 | 944 | 955 | 967 | 22.2 |
| 380 | 978 | 990 | *001 | *OI3 | *024 | *O35 | *047 | *058 | *070 | *081 | $3{ }^{3} 3.3$ |
| 381 | 58092 | 104 | 115 | 127 | 138 | 149 | 161 | 172 | 184 | 195 |  |
| 382 | 206 | 218 | 229 | 240 | 252 | 263 | 274 | 286 | 297 | 309 | 5 5.5 <br> 6 6.6 |
| 383 | 320 | 331 | 343 | 354 | 365 | 377 | 388 | 399 | 410 | 422 |  |
| 384 | 433 | 444 | 456 | 467 | 478 | 490 | 501 | 512 | 524 | 535 | 88.8 |
| 385 | 546 | 557 | 569 | 580 | 591 | 602 | 614 | 625 | 636 | 647 |  |
| 386 | 659 | 670 | 681 | 692 | 704 | 715 | 726 | 737 | 749 | 760 |  |
| 387 |  | 782 | 794 | 805 | 816 | 827 | 838 | 850 | 861 | 872 |  |
| 388 389 | 883 | 894 $* 006$ | *006 | 917 $* 028$ | *928 | *339 | +950 | * 961 | +973 | *884 |  |
| 389 |  | *006 | *017 | *028 | * 040 | *051 | *062 | *073 | *084 | *095 | 10 |
| 390 | 59106 | 118 | 129 | 140 | 151 | 162 | 173 | 184 | 195 | 207 | $1{ }^{1} 11.0$ |
| 391 | 218 | 229 | 240 | 251 | 262 | 273 | 284 | 295 | 306 | 318 | 22.0 |
| 392 | 329 | 340 | 351 | 362 | 373 | 384 | 395 | 406 | 417 | 428 | 3 3.0 |
| 393 | 439 | 450 | 461 | 472 | 483 | 494 | 506 | 517 | 528 | 539 | 44.0 |
| 394 | 550 | 561 | 572 | 583 | 594 | 605 | 616 | 627 | 638 | 649 |  |
| 395 | 660 | 671 | 682 | 693 | 704 | 715 | 726 | 737 | 748 | 759 | 66.0 |
| 396 | 770 | 780 | 791 | 802 | 813 | 824 | 835 | 846 | 857 | 868 | 7 |
| 397 398 | 879 988 | 890 999 | $\begin{array}{r}901 \\ * \\ \hline 010\end{array}$ |  | *032 ${ }^{923}$ | 934 $* 043$ | 945 $* 054$ |  | * ${ }^{966}$ |  | 8 8.0 <br> 9 9.0 |
| 398 399 | $\begin{array}{r}\text { 6\% } \\ 6098 \\ \hline\end{array}$ | 999 <br> 108 <br> 18 | *010 | * 131 13 | *032 | * ${ }_{\text {* }}^{15} 4$ | *054 | *065 | $\begin{array}{r}* \\ \text { * } \\ \text { 186 } \\ \hline\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r}\text { * } 086 \\ \text { 195 } \\ \hline\end{array}$ | 919.0 |
| 400 | 206 | 217 | 228 | 239 | 249 | 260 | 271 | 282 | 293 | 304 |  |
| N . | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P. |
| $\begin{array}{lrr}  & \text { S.' } & \text { T! } \\ 3^{\prime} & 6.46373 & 373 \\ 4 & 373 & 373 \\ \hline \end{array}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{ll}0^{\circ} & 5 \\ 0 & 6\end{array}$ |  |  | S." | T." |  | $1^{\prime}=3660^{\prime \prime}$ |  | S." T." |
|  |  |  | $5^{\prime}=$ | 3001 | 4.68557 | 558 | $I^{\circ}$ | 4.68555562 |  |  |
|  |  |  | $6=$ | 360 | 557 | $55^{8}$ | 1 | $2=3720$ |  | 555562 |
| 35 | 372 | 374 |  | - $7=420$ |  |  | 557 | 558 | 1 | $3=3780$ |  | 555562 |
| 39 | 372 | 374 |  | - $58=3480$ |  |  | 555 | 562 | 1 | $4=3840$ |  | 555563 |
| 40 |  | 375 | $\begin{aligned} \text { - } 59 & =3540 \\ \text { I } & 0\end{aligned}$ |  |  | 555 | 562 | $1{ }_{1}$ | $5=3900$ |  | 555563 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 555 | 562 | 11  <br> 1  | $\begin{aligned} & 6=3960 \\ & 7=4020 \end{aligned}$ |  | 555563 |
|  |  |  | $\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0\end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 555563 |


| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 400 | 60206 | 217 | 228 | 239 | 249 | 260 | 271 | 282 | 293 | 304 |  |
| 401 | 314 | 325 | 336 | 347 | 358 | 369 | 379 | 390 | 401 | 412 |  |
| 402 | 423 | 433 | 444 | 455 | 466 | 477 | 487 | 498 | 509 | 520 |  |
| 403 | 531 | 541 | 552 | 563 | 574 | 584 | 595 | 606 | 617 | 627 |  |
| 404 | 638 | 649 | 660 | 670 | 681 | 692 | 703 | 713 | 724 | 735 |  |
| 405 | 746 | 756 | 767 | 778 | 788 | 799 | 810 | 821 | 831 | 842 |  |
| 406 | 853 | 863 | 874 | $8 \times 5$ | 895 | 906 | 917 | 927 | 938 | 949 | 11 |
| 407 | 959 61066 | 970 | 981 087 | 991 098 | *002 | *O13 | *023 | *034 | *045 | *055 |  |
| 408 409 | 61066 172 | 077 183 | 087 194 | 098 204 | 109 | 119 | 130 236 | 140 247 | 151 257 | 162 <br> 268 | 2 2.2 <br> 3 3.2 |
| 410 | 278 | 289 | 300 | 310 | 321 | 331 | 342 | 352 | 363 | 374 | 4 4.4 <br> 5 5.5 |
| 411 | 384 | 395 | 405 | 416 | 426 | 437 | 448 | 458 | 469 | 479 | 6 |
| 412 | 490 | 500 | 511 | 521 | 532 | 542 | 553 | 563 | 574 | 584 | 7 7.7 <br> 8 8.8 |
| 413 | 595 | 606 | 616 | 627 | 637 | 648 | 658 | 669 | 679 | 690 | 88.8 |
| 414 | 700 | 711 | 721 | 731 | 742 | 752 | 763 |  | 784 | 794 | 9 9.9 |
| 415 | 805 | 815 | 826 | 836 | 847 | 857 | 868 | 878 | 888 | 899 |  |
| 416 | 909 | 920 | 930 | 941 | $95^{1}$ | 962 | 972 | 982 | 993 | *O03 |  |
| 417 | 62014 | 024 | 034 | $04 \overline{5}$ | 055 | 066 | 076 | 086 | 097 | 107 |  |
| 418 | 118 | 128 | 138 | 149 | 159 | 170 | 180 | 190 | 201 | 211 |  |
| 419 | 221 | 232 | 242 | 252 | 263 | 273 | 284 | 294 | 304 | 315 |  |
| 420 | 325 | 335 | 346 | 356 | 366 | 377 | 387 | 397 | 408 | 418 | 10 |
| 421 | 428 | 439 | 449 | 459 | 469 | 480 | 490 | 500 | 511 | 521 |  |
| 422 | 531 | 542 | 552 | 562 | 572 | 583 | 593 | 603 | 613 | 624 | 1 1.0 <br> 2 2.0 |
| 423 | 634 | 644 | 655 | 665 | 675 | 685 | 696 | 706 | 716 | 726 | 2 2.0 <br> 3 3.0 |
| 424 | 737 | 747 | 757 | 767 | 778 | 788 | 798 | 808 | 818 | 829 | 3 3.0 <br> 4 4.0 |
| 425 | 839 | 849 | 859 | 870 | 880 | 890 | +900 | * 910 | *221 | 931 | 4 4.0 <br> 5 5.0 |
| 426 | 941 | 951 | 961 | 972 | 982 | 992 | *002 | *OI 2 | *022 | *033 | 6 6.0 |
| 427 | 63043 | 053 | 063 | 073 | 083 | 094 | 104 | 114 | 124 | 134 | 77.0 |
| 428 | 144 | 155 | 165 | 175 | 185 | 195 | 205 | 215 | 225 | 236 | 88.0 |
| 429 | 246 | 256 | 266 | 276 | 286 | 296 | 306 | 317 | 327 | 337 | 919.0 |
| 430 | 347 | 357 | 367 | 377 | $3^{88} 7$ | 397 | 407 | 417 | 428 | 438 |  |
| 431 | 448 | 458 | 468 | 478 | 488 | 498 | 508 | 518 | 528 | 538 |  |
| 432 | 548 | 558 | 568 | 579 | 589 | 599 | 609 | 619 | 629 | 639 |  |
| 433 | 649 | 659 | 669 | 679 | 689 | 699 | 709 | 719 | 729 | 739 |  |
| 434 | 749 | 759 | 769 | 779 | 789 | 799 | 809 | 819 | 829 | 839 |  |
| 435 | 849 | 859 | 869 | 879 | 889 | 899 | 909 | 919 | 929 | 939 |  |
| 436 | 949 | 959 | 969 | 979 | 988 | 998 | *008 | *018 | *028 | *O38 |  |
| 437 | 64048 | 058 | 068 | 078 | 088 | 098 | 108 | 118 | 128 | ${ }^{1} 37$ |  |
| 438 | 147 246 | $\begin{array}{r}157 \\ 256 \\ \hline\end{array}$ | 167 266 | 177 276 | 187 286 | 197 296 | 207 | 217 316 | 227 326 | $\begin{array}{r}237 \\ 335 \\ \hline\end{array}$ | 1 0 <br> 2 1 |
| 439 | 246 | 256 | 266 | 276 | 286 | 296 | 306 | 316 | 326 | 335 |  |
| 440 | 345 | 355 | 365 | 375 | 385 | 395 | 404 | 414 | 424 | 434 | 4 |
| 441 | 444 | 454 | 464 | 473 | 483 | 493 | 503 | 513 | 523 | 532 | 4  <br> 5 4. |
| 442 | 542 | 552 | 562 | 572 | 582 | 591 | 601 | 611 | 621 | 631 | 65.4 |
| 443 | 640 | 650 | 660 | 670 | 680 | 689 | 699 | 709 | 719 | 729 | 76.3 |
| 444 445 | 738 836 | 748 846 | 758 <br> 856 <br> 8 |  |  |  |  | 807 904 | 816 914 | 826 924 |  |
| 445 | 836 933 | 846 | 856 | 865 963 | 875 972 | 885 982 | 895 992 | *002 | *014 | * $\begin{array}{r}924 \\ \text { O21 }\end{array}$ | 98.1 |
| 447 | 65031 | 040 | 050 | 060 | 070 | 079 | 089 | 099 | 108 | 118 |  |
| 448 | 128 | 137 | 147 | 157 | 167 | 176 | 186 | 196 | 205 | 215 |  |
| 449 | 225 | 234 | 244 | 254 | 263 | 273 | 283 | 292 | 302 | 312 |  |
| 450 | 32 I | 331 | 341 | 350 | 360 | 369 | 379 | 389 | 398 | 408 |  |
| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P. |
|  | S.! | T.' |  |  |  | S." | T." |  |  |  | S." T." |
| $4^{\prime}$ | 6.46373 | 373 | $0^{\circ}$ | $6^{\prime}=3$ | $60^{\prime \prime}$ | 4.68557 | 558 | $\mathrm{I}^{\circ}$ | $9^{\prime}=41$ | $40^{\prime \prime}$ | $4.68555 \quad 563$ |
| 5 | 373 | 373 | - | $7=4$ | 20 | 557 | 558 | 1 | $10=42$ | 00 | 554563 |
| 40 | 372 | 375 | o | $8=$ | 80 | 557 | 558 | 1 | $1 \mathrm{I}=42$ |  | 554564 |
| 42 | 372 | 375 | 1 | $6=39$ |  | 555 | 563 |  | $12=43$ |  | 554564 |
| 43 | 371 | 375 | 1 | $7=40$ |  | 555 | 563 |  | $13=43$ |  | 554564 |
| 44 | 371 | 375 | 1 | $8=40$ |  | 555 | 563 | 1 | $14=44$ |  | 554564 |
| 45 | 371 | 375 | 1 | $9=41$ | 40 | 555 | 563 |  | $15=45$ |  | 554564 |




| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 550 | 74036 | 044 | $05^{2}$ | 060 | 068 | 076 | 084 | 092 | 099 | 107 |  |
| 551 | 115 | 123 | 131 | 139 | 147 | 155 | 162 | 170 | 178 | 186 |  |
| 552 | 194 | 202 | 210 | 218 | 225 | 233 | 241 | 249 | 257 | 265 |  |
| 553 | 273 | 280 | 288 | 296 | 304 | 312 | 320 | 327 | 335 | 343 |  |
| 554 | 351 | 359 | 367 | 374 | 382 | 390 | 398 | 406 | 414 | 421 |  |
| 555 | 429 | 437 | 445 | 453 | 461 | 468 | 476 | 484 | 492 | 500 |  |
| 556 | 507 | 515 | 523 | 531 | 539 | 547 | 554 | 562 | 570 | $57^{8}$ |  |
| 557 | 586 | 593 | 601 | 609 | 617 | 624 | 632 | 640 | 648 | 656 |  |
| 558 | 663 | 671 | 679 | 687 | 695 | 702 | 710 | 718 | 726 | 733 |  |
| 559 | 741 | 749 | 757 | 764 | 772 | 780 | 788 | 796 | 803 | 811 |  |
| 560 | 819 | 827 | 834 | 842 | 850 | 858 | 865 | 873 | 881 | 889 | 8 |
| 561 | 896 | 904 | 912 | 920 | 927 | 935 | 943 | 950 | $95^{8}$ | 966 | 0.8 |
| 562 | 974 | 981 | 989 | 997 | *005 | *O12 | *020 | *028 | *035 | *043 | 2 1.6 |
| 563 | 75051 | 059 | 066 | 074 | 082 | 089 | 097 | 103 | 113 | 120 | 32.4 |
| 564 | 128 | 136 | 143 | 151 | 159 | 166 | 174 | 182 | 189 | 197 | 43.2 |
| 565 | 205 | 213 | 220 | 228 | 236 | 243 | 251 | 259 | 266 | 274 | 54.0 |
| 566 | 282 | 289 | 297 | 305 | 312 | 320 | 328 | 335 | 343 | $35^{1}$ | 6  <br> 7 4.8 |
| 567 | 358 | 366 | 374 | 381 | 389 | 397 | 404 | 412 | 420 | 427 | 7 5.6 <br> 8 6.4 |
| 568 | 435 | 442 | 450 | $45^{8}$ | 465 | 473 | 481 | 488 | 496 | 504 |  |
| 569 | 511 | 519 | 526 | 534 | 542 | 549 | 557 | 565 | 572 | 580 |  |
| 570 | 587 | 595 | 603 | 610 | 618 | 626 | 633 | 641 | 648 | 656 |  |
| 571 | 664 | 671 | 679 | 686 | 694 | 702 | 709 | 717 | 724 | 732 |  |
| 572 | 740 | 747 | 755 | 762 | 770 | 778 | 785 | 793 | 800 | 808 |  |
| 573 | 815 | 823 | 831 | 838 | 846 | 853 | 861 | 868 | 876 | 884 |  |
| 574 | 891 | 899 | 906 | 914 | 921 | 929 | 937 | 944 | 952 | 959 |  |
| 575 | 967 | 974 | 982 | 989 | 997 | *005 | *O12 | *020 | *027 | *035 |  |
| 576 | 76042 | 050 | 057 | 065 | 072 | 080 | 087 | 095 | 103 | 110 |  |
| 577 | 118 | 125 | 133 | 140 | 148 | 155 | 163 | 170 | ${ }_{178}$ | 185 |  |
| 578 | 193 | 200 | 208 | 215 | 223 | 230 | 238 | 245 | 253 | 260 |  |
| 579 | 268 | 275 | 283 | 290 | 298 | 305 | 313 | 320 | 328 | 335 |  |
| 530 | 343 | 350 | 358 | 365 | 373 | 380 | 388 | 395 | 403 | 410 |  |
| 58 I | 418 | 425 | 433 | 440 | $44^{8}$ | 455 | 462 | 470 | 477 | 485 |  |
| 582 | 492 | 500 | 507 | 515 | 522 | 530 | 537 | 545 | 552 | 559 |  |
| 583 | 567 | 574 | 582 | 589 | 597 | 604 | 612 | 619 | 626 | 634 | 2 1.4 <br> 3 2.1 |
| 584 | 641 | 649 | 656 | 664 | 671 | 678 | 686 | 693 | 701 | 708 | 3 2.1 <br> 4 2.8 |
| 585 | 716 | 723 | $\xrightarrow{730}$ | 738 | 745 | 753 | 760 | 768 | 775 | 782 856 | 4 2.8 <br> 5 3.5 |
| 586 | 790 | 797 | 805 | 812 | 819 | 827 | 834 | 842 | 849 | 856 | 6 |
| 587 | 864 | 871 | 879 | 886 | 893 | 901 | 908 | 916 | 923 | *930 |  |
| 588 589 | 938 77012 | 945 019 | 953 026 | 960 034 | 967 <br> 041 <br> 04 | 975 048 | 982 056 | 989 063 | 997 070 | *004 | 85.6 |
| 590 | 085 | 093 | 100 | 107 | 115 | 122 | 129 | 137 | 144 | 151 |  |
| 591 | 159 | 166 | 173 | 181 | 188 | 195 | 203 | 210 | 217 | 225 |  |
| 592 | 232 | 240 | 247 | 254 | 262 | 269 | 276 | 283 | 291 | 298 |  |
| 593 | 305 | 313 | 320 | 327 | 335 | 342 | 349 | 357 | 364 | 371 |  |
| 594 | 379 | 386 | 393 | 401 | 408 | 415 | 422 | 430 | 437 | 444 |  |
| 595 | 452 | 459 | 466 | 474 | 481 | 488 | 495 | 503 | 510 | 517 |  |
| 596 | 525 | 532 | 539 | 546 | 554 | 561 | 568 | 576 | 583 | 590 |  |
| 597 | 597 | 605 | 612 | 619 | 627 | 634 | 641 | 648 | 656 | 663 |  |
| 598 | 670 | 677 | 685 | 692 | 699 | 706 | 714 | 7.21 | 728 | 735 |  |
| 599 | 743 | 750 | 757 | 764 | 772 | 779 | 786 | 793 | 801 | 808 |  |
| 600 | 815 | 822 | 830 | 837 | 844 | 851 | 859 | 866 | 873 | 880 |  |
| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P. |
|  | S.' | T.! | $\begin{aligned} & 0^{\circ} 9^{\prime}=540^{\prime \prime} \\ & 0 \text { 10 }=600 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | S." | T. ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ | $1^{\circ} 35^{\prime}=5700^{\prime \prime}$ |  |  | S. ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ T." |
| $6^{\prime}$ | 6.46373 | 373 |  |  |  | 4.68557 | $55^{8}$ |  |  |  | $4.685^{2} \quad 569$ |
| 55 | 371 | 376 |  |  |  | 557 | $55^{8}$ |  | = 57 | 60 | 552569 |
| 56 | 371 | 376 |  | $\mathrm{I}=54$ |  | 552 | 568 | 137 | $7=58$ |  | 552569 |
| 57 | 371 | 377 |  | $2=55$ |  | 552 | 568 |  | $8=58$ | 80 | 552569 |
| 58 | 371 | 377 | 13 | $3=55$ |  | 552 | 568 | 139 | $=59$ |  | 551569 |
| 59 | 370 | 377 | 13 | $4=56$ |  | 552 | 568 | 140 | $=600$ |  | $55^{1} 570$ |
| 60 | 370 | 377 | I 3 | $5=57$ | 0 | $55^{2}$ | 569 |  |  |  |  |




| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 700 | 84510 | 516 | 522 | 528 | 535 | 541 | 547 | 553 | 559 | 566 | 7 |  |
| 701 | 572 | $57^{8}$ | 584 | 590 | 597 | 603 | 609 | 615 | 621 | 628 |  |  |
| 702 | 634 | 640 | 646 | 652 | 658 | 665 | 671 | 677 | 683 | 689 |  |  |
| 703 | 696 | 702 | 708 | 714 | 720 | 726 | 733 | 739 | 745 | 751 |  |  |
| 704 | 757 | 763 | 770 | 776 | 782 | 788 | 794 | 800 | 807 | 813 |  |  |
| 705 | 819 | 825 | 831 | 837 | 844 | 850 | 856 | 862 | 868 | 874 |  |  |
| 706 | 880 | 887 | 893 | 899 | 905 | 911 | 917 | 924 | 930 | 936 |  |  |
| 707 | 942 | 948 | 954 | 960 | 967 | 973 | 979 | 985 | 991 | 997 |  | 0.71.4 |
| 708 | 85003 | 009 | 016 | 022 | 028 | O34 | 040 | 046 | 052 | 058 |  |  |
| 709 | 065 | 071 | 077 | 083 | 089 | 095 | 101 | 107 | 114 | 120 |  |  |
| 710 | 126 | 132 | 138 | 144 | 150 | 156 | 163 | 169 | 175 | 181 |  |  |
| 711 | 187 | 193 | 199 | 205 | 211 | 217 | 224 | 230 | 236 | 242 |  | 3.5 |
| 712 | 248 | 254 | 260 | 266 | 272 | 278 | 285 | 291 | 297 | 303 | 7 4.9 |  |
| 713 | 309 | 315 | 321 | 327 | 333 | 339 | 345 | $35^{2}$ | 358 | 364 | 8 5.6 <br> 9 6.3 |  |
| 714 | 370 | 376 | 382 | 388 | 394 | 400 | 406 | 412 | 418 | 425 |  |  |  |
| 715 | 431 | 437 | 443 | 449 | 455 | 461 | 467 | 473 | 479 | 485 | 96.3 |  |
| 716 | 491 | 497 | 503 | 509 | 516 | 522 | 528 | 534 | 540 | 546 |  |  |
| 717 | 552 | 558 | 564 | 570 | 576 | 582 | 588 | 594 | 600 | 606 |  |  |
| 718 | 612 | 618 | 625 | 631 | 637 | 643 | 649 | 655 | 661 | 667 |  |  |
| 719 | 673 | 679 | 685 | 691 | 697 | 703 | 709 | 715 | 721 | 727 |  |  |
| 720 | 733 | 739 | 745 | 751 | 757 | 763 | 769 | 775 | 781 | 788 | 6 |  |
| 721 | 794 | 800 | 806 | ${ }_{812}$ | 818 | 824 | 830 | 836 | 842 | 848 |  |  |  |
| 722 | 854 | 860 | 866 | 872 | 878 | 884 | 890 | 896 | 902 | 908 |  |  |
| 723 | 914 | 920 | 926 | 932 | 938 | 944 | 950 | 956 | 962 | 968 | 3 1.8 |  |
| 724 | 974 | 980 | 986 | 992 | 998 | *004 | *oro | *or6 | *022 | *028 | $4{ }^{4} 2.4$ |  |
| 725 | 86034 | 040 | 046 | 052 | 058 | 064 | 070 | 076 | 082 | 088 |  |  |  |
| 726 | 094 | 100 | 106 | 112 | 118 | 124 | 130 | 136 | 141 | 147 | 6 |  |
| 727 | 153 | 159 | 165 | 171 | 177 | 183 | 189 | 195 | 201 | 207 | 7 4.2 <br> 8 4.8 |  |
| 728 | 213 | 219 | 225 | 231 | 237 | 243 | 249 | 255 | 261 | 267 |  |  |  |
| 729 | 273 | 279 | 285 | 291 | 297 | 303 | 308 | 314 | 320 | 326 | 9 9.4 |  |
| 730 | 332 | 338 | 344 | $35^{\circ}$ | 356 | 362 | 368 | 374 | 380 | 386 |  |  |  |
| 731 | 392 | 398 | 404 | 410 | 415 | 421 | 427 | 433 | 439 | 445 |  |  |
| 732 | 451 | 457 | 463 | 469 | 475 | 481 | 487 | 493 | 499 | 504 |  |  |
| 733 | 510 | 516 | 522 | 528 | 534 | 540 | - 546 | 552 | 558 | 564 |  |  |
| 734 | 570 | 576 | 581 | 587 | 593 | 599 | 605 | 611 | 617 | 623 |  |  |
| 735 | 629 | 635 | 641 | 646 | 652 | 658 | 664 | 670 | 676 | 682 |  |  |
| 736 | 688 | 694 | 700 | 705 | 711 | 717 | 723 | 729 | 735 | 741 |  |  |
| 737 | 747 | 753 | 759 | 764 | 770 | 776 | 782 | 788 | 794 | 800 | I. 5 |  |
| 738 | 806 | 812 870 | 817 876 | 823 | 829 888 | 835 | 841 | 847 | 853 | 859 |  |  |  |
| 739 | 864 | 870 | 876 | 882 | 888 | 894 | 900 | 906 | 911 | 917 |  |  |
| 740 | 923 | 929 | 935 | 941 | 947 | 953 | 958 | 964 | 970 | 976 |  |  |
| 741 | 982 | 988 | 994 | 999 | *005 | *OII | *017 | *023 | *029 | *035 |  |  |
| 742 | 87040 | 046 | 052 | 058 | 064 | 070 | 075 | 081 | 087 | 093 |  |  |
| 743 | 099 | 105 | III | 116 | 122 | 128 | 134 | 140 | 146 | 151 | 7  <br> 8 3.0 <br>  4.0 |  |
| 744 | 157 | 163 | 169 | 175 | 181 | 186 | 192 | 198 | 204 | 210 | 914.5 |  |
| 745 | 216 | 221 | 227 | 233 | 239 | 245 | 251 | 256 | 262 | 268 |  |  |  |
| 746 | 274 | 280 | 286 | 291 | 297 | 303 | 309 | 315 | 320 | 326 |  |  |
| 747 | 332 | 338 | 344 | 349 | 355 | 361 | 367 | 373 | 379 | 384 |  |  |
| 748 | 390 | 396 | 402 | 408 | 413 | 419 | 425 | 431 | 437 | 442 |  |  |
| 749 | 448 | 454 | 460 | 466 | 471 | 477 | 483 | 489 | 495 | 500 |  |  |
| 750 | 506 | 512 | 518 | 523 | 529 | 535 | 541 | 547 | 552 | 558 |  |  |
| N . | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P. |  |
|  | S.' | T.' |  |  |  | S." T. ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ |  |  |  |  | S." T." |  |
| $7{ }^{7}$ | 6.46373 | 373 | $0^{\circ} \mathrm{II}^{\prime}=$ |  | $60^{\prime \prime}$ | . 68557 | 558 | $\mathrm{I}^{\circ}$ | $59^{\prime}=7140^{\prime \prime} 4.68$ |  | 549575 |  |
| 8 | 373 | 373 | $\bigcirc$ | $12=$$13=$ | 20 | 557 | 558 |  | $\mathrm{o}=7$ | 200 | 549575 |  |
| 70 | 370 | 379 |  |  | 80 | 557 | $55^{8}$ | 2 | $\mathrm{I}=7$ | 60 | 549 | 575 |
| 71 | 370 | 379 | I $56=6960$ |  |  | 549 | 574 | 2 | $2=7$ | 320 | 548 | 576 |
| 72 | 369 | 379 | 1 $57=7020$ |  |  | 549 | 574 |  | $3=7$ | 80 | 54 |  |
| 74 | 369 | 379 | I $58=7080$ |  |  | 549 | 575 | 2 | $4=7$ $5=7$ |  | 548 548 | 576 577 |
| 75 | 369 | 380 |  | $59=7140$ |  | 549 | 575 | 2 | $5=7$ |  | 54 | 577 |





| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 900 | 95424 | 429 | 434 | 439 | 444 | 448 | 453 | $45^{8}$ | 463 | 468 |  |
| 901 | 472 | 477 | 482 | 487 | 492 | 497 | 501 | 506 | 511 | 516 |  |
| 902 | 521 | 525 | 530 | 535 | 540 | 545 | 550 | 554 | 559 | 564 |  |
| 903 | 569 | 574 | 578 | 583 | 588 | 593 | 598 | 602 | 607 | 612 |  |
| 904 | 617 | 622 | 626 | 631 | 636 | 641 | 646 | 650 | 655 | 660 |  |
| 905 | 665 | 670 | 674 | 679 | 684 | 689 | 694 | 698 | 703 | 708 |  |
| 906 | 713 | 718 | 722 | 727 | 732 | 737 | 742 | 746 | 751 | 756 |  |
| 907 | 761 | 766 | 770 | 775 | 780 | 785 | 789 | 794 | 799 | 804 |  |
| 908 | 809 | 813 | 818 | 823 | 828 | 832 | 837 | 842 | 847 | 852 |  |
| 909 | 856 | 861 | 866 | 871 | 875 | 880 | 885 | 890 | 895 | 899 |  |
| 910 | 904 | 909 | 914 | 918 | 923 | 928 | 933 | 938 | 942 | 947 | 5 |
| 911 | 952 | 957 | 961 | 966 | 971 | 976 | 980 | 985 | 990 | 995 | 1 0.5 |
| 912 | 999 | *004 | *009 | *O14 | *019 | *023 | *028 | *033 | *O38 | * 042 | 21.0 |
| 913 | 96047 | 052 | 057 | 061 | 066 | obl | 076 | 080 | 085 | 090 | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 1.5\end{array}$ |
| 914 | 095 | 099 | 104 | 109 | 114 | 118 | 123 | 128 | 133 | 137 | 42.0 |
| 915 | 142 | 147 | 152 | 156 | 161 | 166 | 171 | 175 | 180 | 185 | 5 |
| 916 | 190 | 194 | 199 | 204 | 209 | 213 | 218 | 223 | 227 | 232 | 63.0 |
| 917 | 237 | 242 | 246 | 251 | 256 | 261 | 265 | 270 | 275 | 280 | 7 3.5 <br> 8 4.0 |
| 918 | 284 | 289 | 294 | 298 | 303 | 308 | 313 | 317 | 322 | 327 374 | 8 4.0 <br> 9 4.5 |
| 919 | 332 | 336 | 341 | 346 | 350 | 355 | 360 | 365 | 369 | 374 |  |
| 920 | 379 | 384 | 388 | 393 | 398 | 402 | 407 | 412 | 417 | 42 I |  |
| 921 | 426 | 43 I | 435 | 440 | 445 | 450 | 454 | 459 | 464 | 468 |  |
| 922 | 473 | 478 | 483 | 487 | 492 | 497 | 501 | 506 | 511 | 515 |  |
| 923 | 520 | 525 | 530 | 534 | 539 | 544 | 548 | 553 | $55^{8}$ | 562 |  |
| 924 | 567 | 572 | 577 | 581 | 586 | 591 | 595 | 600 | 605 | 609 |  |
| 925 | 614 | 619 | 624 | 628 | 633 | 638 | 642 | 647 | 652 | 656 |  |
| 926 | 661 | 666 | 670 | 675 | 680 | 685 | 689 | 694 | 699 | 703 |  |
| . 927 | 708 | 713 | 717 | 722 | 727 | 731 | 736 | 741 | 745 | 750 |  |
| 928 929 | 755 802 | 759 <br> 806 | 764 811 | 769 816 | 774 <br> 820 <br> 86 | 778 825 | 783 830 8 | 788 <br> 834 <br> 881 | 792 | 797 894 |  |
| 930 | 848 | 453 | 858 | 862 | 867 | 872 | 876 | 88 I | 886 | 890 |  |
| 931 | 895 | 900 | 904 | 909 | 914 | 918 | 923 | 928 | 932 | 937 |  |
| 932 | 942 | 946 | 951 | 956 | 960 | 965 | 970 | 974 | 979 | 984 | 1 0.4 <br> 2 0.8 |
| 933 | 988 | 993 | 997 | *002 | *007 | *OII | *o16 | *O21 | *025 | *030 | 2 0.8 <br> 3 1.2 |
| 934 | 97035 | 039 | 044 | 049 | 053 | 058 | 063 | 067 | ${ }^{2} 2$ | 077 |   <br> 4 1.6 |
| 935 | 081 | 086 | 090 | 095 | 100 | 104 | 109 | 114 | 118 | 123 |   <br> 5 2.0 |
| 936 | 128 | 132 | 137 | 142 | 146 | 151 | 155 | 160 | 165 | 169 | 6 |
| 937 | 174 | 179 20 | 183 | 188 | 192 | 197 | 202 | 206 | 211 | 216 | 72.8 |
| 938 | 220 | 225 | 230 | 234 | 239 | 243 | 248 | 253 | 257 | 262 | 83.2 |
| 939 | 267 | 271 | 276 | 280 | 285 | 290 | 294 | 299 | 304 | 308 | 913.6 |
| 940 | 313 | 317 | 322 | 327 | 331 | 336 | 340 | 345 | 350 | 354 |  |
| 941 | 359 | 364 | 368 | 373 | 377 | 382 | 387 | 391 | 396 | 400 |  |
| 942 | 405 | 410 | 414 | 419 | 424 | 428 | 433 | 437 | 442 | 447 |  |
| 943 | 451 | 456 | 460 | 465 | 470 | 474 | 479 | 483 | 488 | 493 |  |
| 944 | 497 | 502 | 506 | 511 | 516 | 520 | 523 | 529 | 534 | 539 |  |
| 945 | 543 | 548 | 552 | 557 | 562 | 566 | 571 | 575 | 580 | 585 |  |
| 946 | 589 | 594 | 598 | 603 | 607 | 612 | 617 | 621 | 626 | 630 |  |
| 947 | 635 | 640 | 644 | 649 | 653 | 658 | 663 | 667 | 672 | 676 |  |
| 948 | 681 | 685 | 690 | 695 | 699 | 704 | 708 | 713 | 717 | 722 |  |
| 949 | 727 | 731 | 736 | 740 | 745 | 749 | 754 | 759 | 763 | 768 |  |
| 950 | 772 | 777 | 782 | 786 | 791 | 795 | 800 | 804 | 809 | 813 |  |
| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P. |
|  | S.' | T.' |  |  |  |  | " T." |  |  |  | S." T." |
| $9^{\prime}$ | 6.46373 | 373 |  | $15^{\prime}=$ | 900' | 4.68557 | $55^{8}$ | $2^{\circ} 3$ | $34^{\prime}=92$ | $40^{\prime \prime}$ | 4.68543587 |
| 10 | 373 | 373 | $\bigcirc$ | $16=$ | 960 |  | 558 |  | $35=93$ |  | $\begin{array}{llll}543 & 587\end{array}$ |
| 90 | 368 | 383 | 2 | $30=90$ |  | 544 | - $5^{85}$ | 23 | $6=93$ | 60 | $\begin{array}{lll}543 & 587 \\ 542 & 588\end{array}$ |
| 91 | 368 | 383 | 2 | $31=90$ |  | 544 | 585 |  | $37=94$ $8=94$ |  | 542588 542 5888 |
| 92 | 367 | 383 | 2 | $32=91$ |  | 543 | 586 |  | $38=94$ 3 |  | 542 542 5488 |
| 94 | 367 | 383 | 2 | $33=91$ |  | 543 | $5^{86}$ |  | $39=95$ |  | 542588 |
| 95 | 367 | 384 | 2 | $34=92$ | 240 | 543 | 587 |  |  |  |  |


| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 950 | 97772 | 777 | 782 | 786 | 791 | 795 | 800 | 804 | 809 | 813 |  |
| 951 | 818 | 823 | 827 | 832 | 836 | 841 | 845 | 850 | 855 | 859 |  |
| 952 | 864 | 868 | 873 | 877 | 882 | 886 | 891 | 896 | 900 | 905 |  |
| 953 | 909 | 914 | 918 | 923 | 928 | 932 | 937 | 941 | 946 | 950 |  |
| 954 | 955 | 959 | 964 | 968 | 973 | 978 | 982 | 987 | 991 | 996 |  |
| 955 | 98000 | 005 | 009 | 014 | 019 | 023 | 028 | 032 | 037 | 041 |  |
| 956 | 046 | 050 | 055 | 059 | 064 | 068 | 073 | 078 | 082 | 087 |  |
| 957 | 091 | 096 | 100 | 105 | 109 | 114 | 118 | 123 | 127 | 132 |  |
| 958 | 137 | 141 | 146 | 150 | 155 | 159 | 164 | 168 | 173 | 177 |  |
| 959 | 182 | 186 | 191 | 195 | 200 | 204 | 209 | 214 | 218 | 223 |  |
| 960 | 227 | 232 | 236 | 241 | 245 | 250 | 254 | 259 | 263 | 268 |  |
| 961 | 272 | 277 | 281 | 286 | 290 | 295 | 299 | 304 | 308 | 313 | 5 |
| 962 | 318 | 322 | 327 | 331 | 336 | 340 | 345 | 349 | 354 | 358 | 1 0.5 <br> 2 1 |
| 963 | 363 | 367 | 372 | 376 | 381 | 385 | 390 | 394 | 399 | 403 | 21. |
| 964 | 408 | 412 | 417 | 421 | 426 | 430 | 435 | 439 | 444 | 448 | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 1.5 \\ 4 & 2.0\end{array}$ |
| 965 <br> 966 <br> 967 | 453 | 457 502 | 462 507 | 466 | 471 516 | 475 520 | 480 525 | 484 | 489 | 493 538 | 4 1.0 <br> 5 2.5 |
| 966 | 498 | 502 | 507 | 511 | 516 | 520 | 525 | 529 | 534 | 538 | 63.0 |
| 967 968 | 543 588 | 547 592 | 552 597 | 556 601 | 561 605 | 565 610 | 570 614 | 574 619 | 579 623 | 583 628 67 | 7 3.5 <br> 8 4.5 |
| 969 | 632 | 637 | 641 | 646 | 650 | 655 | 614 659 | 619 664 | 668 | 683 673 | 8 4.0 <br> 9 4.5 |
| 970 | 677 | 682 | 686 | 691 | 695 | 700 | 704 | 709 | 713 | 717 |  |
| 971 | 722 | 726 | 731 | 735 | 740 | 744 | 749 | 753 | 758 | 762 |  |
| 972 | 767 | 771 | 776 | 780 | 784 | 789 | 793 | 798 | 802 | 807 |  |
| 973 | 811 | 816 | 820 | 825 | 829 | 834 | 838 | 843 | 847 | 851 |  |
| 974 | 856 | 860 | 865 | 869 | 874 | 878 | 883 | 887 | 892 | 896 |  |
| 975 | 900 | 905 | 909 | 914 | 918 | 923 | 927 | 932 | 936 | 941 |  |
| 976 | 945 | 949 | 954 | 958 | 963 | 967 | 972 | 976 | 981 | 985 |  |
| 977 | 989 | 994 | 998 | *003 | *007 | *012 | *o16 | * 021 | *025 | *029 |  |
| 978 | 99034 | 038 | 043 | 047 | 052 | 056 | 061 | 065 | 069 | 074 |  |
| 979 | 078 | 083 | 087 | 092 | 096 | 100 | 105 | 109 | 114 | 118 |  |
| 980 | 123 | 127 | 131 | 136 | 140 | 145 | 149 | 154 | 158 | 162 |  |
| 981 | 167 | 171 | 176 | 180 | 185 | 189 | 193 | 198 | 202 | 207 |  |
| 982 | 211 | 216 | 220 | 224 | 229 | 233 | 238 | 242 | 247 | 251 | 1 0.4 <br> 2 0.8 |
| 983 | 255 | 260 | 264 | 269 | 273 | 277 | 282 | 286 | 291 | 295 |    <br>  0 0.8 <br>  1.2  |
| 984 | 300 | 304 | 308 | 313 | 317 | 322 | 326 | 330 | 335 | 339 |   <br> 4 1.6 |
| 985 | 344 | 348 | 352 | 357 | 361 | 366 | 370 | 374 | 379 | 383 | 52.0 |
| 986 | 388 | 392 | 396 | 401 | 405 | 410 | 414 | 419 | 423 | 427 | 6 |
| 987 988 | 432 476 | 436 | 441 | 445 | 449 | 454 | 458 | 463 | 467 | 471 | 72.8 |
| 988 989 | 476 520 | 480 | 484 | 489 | 493 | 498 | 502 | 506 | 511 | 515 | 83.2 |
| 989 | 520 | 524 | 528 | 533 | 537 | 542 | 546 | 550 | 555 | 559 | 93.6 |
| 990 | 564 | 568 | 572 | 577 | 58 I | 585 | 590 | 594 | 599 | 603 |  |
| 991 | 607 | 612 | 616 | 621 | 625 | 629 | 634 | 638 | 642 | 647 |  |
| 992 | 651 | 656 | 660 | 664 | 669 | 673 | 677 | 682 | 686 | 691 |  |
| 993 | 695 | 699 | 704 | 708 | 712 | 717 | 721 | 726 | 730 | 734 |  |
| 994 | 739 | 743 | 747 | 752 | 756 800 | 760 804 | 765 808 | 769 813 | 774 | 778 822 |  |
| 995 996 | 782 826 | 787 830 | 791 835 87 | 795 839 88 | 800 843 | 804 848 8 | 808 852 | 813 856 | 817 861 | 822 865 |  |
| 997 | 870 | 874 | 878 | 883 | 887 | 891 | 896 | 900 | 904 | 909 |  |
| 998 | 913 | 917 | 922 | 926 | 930 | 935 | 939 | 944 | 948 | 952 |  |
| 999 | 957 | 961 | 965 | 970 | 974 | 978 | 983 | 987 | 991 | 996 |  |
| 1000 | 00000 | 004 | 009 | 013 | 017 | 022 | 026 | 030 | 035 | 039 |  |
| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | P. P. |
|  |  |  | $\begin{array}{ll} 0^{\circ} & 15^{\prime}=900^{\prime \prime} \\ 0 & 16=960 \\ 0 & 17=1020 \end{array}$ |  |  | S.'1 | T. ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ | $2^{\circ} 41^{\prime}=9660^{\prime \prime}$ |  |  | S.' ${ }^{\prime \prime}$." |
|  |  | 373 |  |  |  | 4.68557 | $55^{8}$ |  |  |  | $4.68542^{2} 58$ |
| 10 | 373 | 373 |  |  |  | 557 | 558 | 2 | $42=9$ |  | 541590 |
|  | 367 | 384 |  |  |  | 557 | 558 | 2 | $43=9$ | 9780 | 541590 |
| 98 | 367 | 384 | 2 | $38=9$ |  | 542 | 588 | 2 | $44=9$ | $84^{\circ}$ | 541590 |
| 99 | 367 | 385 | 2 | $39=95$ |  | 542 | 588 | 2 | $45=$ | 9900 | 541591 |
| 100 | 366 | 385 |  | $40=96$ |  | 542 | 589 | 2 | $46=9$ | 9960 | $\begin{array}{lll}541 & 591 \\ 540\end{array}$ |
|  |  |  |  | $41=96$ |  | 542 | 589 | 2 | $47=10$ | 020 | 540592 |



| N. | L. 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1050 | 0211893 | 2307 | 2720 | 3134 | 3547 | 3961 | 4374 | 4787 | 5201 | 5614 |
| 1051 | 6027 | 6440 | 6854 | 7267 | 7680 | 8093 | 8506 | 8919 | 9332 | $974 \overline{5}$ |
| 1052 | 0220157 | 0570 | 0983 | 1396 | 1808 | 2221 | 2634 | 3046 | 3459 | 3871 |
| 1053 | 4284 | 4696 | 5109 | $55^{21}$ | 5933 | 6345 | 6758 | 7170 | 7582 | 7994 |
| 1054 | 8406 | 8818 | 9230 | 9642 | *0054 | *0466 | *0878 | *1289 | *1701 | *2113 |
| 1055 | $023252 \overline{5}$ | 2936 | 3348 | 3759 | 4171 | 4582 | 4994 | 5405 | 5817 | 6228 |
| 1056 | 6639 | 7050 | 7462 | 7873 | 8284 | 8695 | 9106 | 9517 | 9928 | *O339 |
| 1057 | 0240750 | 1161 | 1572 | 1982 | 2393 | 2804 | 3214 | 3625 | 4036 | 4446 |
| 1058 | 4857 | 5267 | 5678 | 6088 | 6498 | 6909 | 7319 | 7729 | 8139 | 8549 |
| 1059 | 8960 | 9370 | 9780 | *0190 | *0600 | *1010 | *1419 | *1829 | *2239 | *2649 |
| 1060 | 0253059 | 3468 | 3878 | 4288 | 4697 | 5107 | 5516 | 5926 | 6335 | 6744 |
| 1061 | 7154 | 7563 | 7972 | 8382 | 8791 | 9200 | 9609 | *0018 | *0427 | *0836 |
| 1062 | 0261245 | 1654 | 2063 | 2472 | 2881 | 3289 | 3698 | 4107 | 4515 | 4924 |
| 1063 | 5333 | 5741 | 6150 | 6558 | 6967 | 7375 | 7783 | 8192 | 8600 | 9008 |
| 1064 | 9416 | 9824 | *0233 | *0641 | *1049 | * 1457 | *1865 | *2273 | *2680 | *3088 |
| 1065 | 0273496 | 3904 | 4312 | 4719 | 5127 | 5535 | 5942 | 6350 | 6757 | 7165 |
| 1066 | 7572 | 7979 | 8387 | 8794 | 9201 | 9609 | *0016 | *0423 | *or30 | *1237 |
| 1067 | 0281644 | 2051 | 2458 | 2865 | 3272 | 3679 | 4086 | 4492 | 4899 | 5306 |
| 1068 | 5713 | 6119 | 6526 | 6932 | 7339 | 7745 | 8152 | 8558 | 8964 | 9371 |
| 1069 | 9777 | * O 83 | *0590 | *0996 | *1402 | *1808 | *2214 | *2620 | *3026 | *3432 |
| 1070 | 029383 | 4244 | 4649 | 5055 | 5461 | 5867 | 6272 | 6678 | 7084 | 7489 |
| 1071 | 7895 | 8300 | 8706 | 91 II | 9516 | 9922 | *0327 | *0732 | *1138 | ${ }^{1} 1543$ |
| 1072 | 0301948 | 2353 | 2758 | 3163 | 3568 | 3973 | 4378 | 4783 | 5188 | 5592 |
| 1073 | 5997 | 6402 | 6807 | 7211 | 7616 | 8020 | 8425 | 88.30 | 9234 | 9638 |
| 1074 | 0310043 | 0447 | 0851 | 1256 | 1660 | 2064 | 2468 | 2872 | 3277 | 3681 |
| 1075 | 4085 | 4489 | 4893 | 5296 | 5700 | 6104 | 6508 | 6912 | 7315 | 7719 |
| 1076 | 8123 | 8526 | 8930 | 9333 | 9737 | *O140 | *O544 | *0947 | ${ }^{1} 1350$ | *1754 |
| 1077 | 0322157 | 2560 | 2963 | 3367 | 3770 | 4173 | 4576 | 4979 | 5382 | 5785 |
| 1078 | 6188 | 6590 | 6993 | 7396 | 7799 | 8201 | 8604 | 9007 | 9409 | 9812 |
| 1079 | 0330214 | 0617 | 1019 | 1422 | 1824 | 2226 | 2629 | 3031 | 3433 | 3835 |
| 1080 | 4238 | 4640 | 5042 | 5444 | 5846 | 6248 | 6650 | 7052 | 7453 | 7855 |
| 1081 | 8257 | 8659 | 9060 | 9462 | 9864 | *0265 | *0667 | *1068 | *1470 | *1871 |
| 1082 | 0342273 | 2674 | 3075 | 3477 | 3878 | 4279 | 4680 | 508 I | 5482 | 5884 |
| 1083 | 6285 | 6686 | 7087 | 7487 | 7888 | 8289 | 8690 | 9091 | 9491 | 9892 |
| 1084 | 0350293 | 0693 | 1094 | 1495 | 1895 | 2296 | 2696 | 3096 | 3497 | 3897 |
| 1085 | 4297 | 4698 | 5098 | 5498 | 5898 | 6298 | 6698 | 7098 | + 7498 | 7898 |
| 1086 | 8298 | 8698 | 9098 | 9498 | 9898 | *0297 | *0697 | *1097 | *1496 | *1896 |
| 1087 | O36 2295 | 2695 | 3094 | 3494 | 3893 | 4293 | 4692 | 5091 | 5491 | 5890 |
| 1088 | 6289 | 6688 | 7087 | 7486 | 7885 | 8284 | 8683 | 9082 | 9481 | 9880 |
| 1089 | 0370279 | 0678 | 1076 | 1475 | 1874 | 2272 | 2671 | 3070 | 3468 | 3867 |
| 1090 | 4265 | 4663 | 5062 | 5460 | 5858 | 6257 | 6655 | 7053 | 7451 | 7849 |
| 1091 | 88248 | 8646 | 9044 | 9442 | 9839 | *0237 | *0635 | *1033 | *1431 | *1829 |
| 1092 | O38 2226 | 2624 | 3022 | 3419 | 3817 | 4214 | 4612 | 5009 | 5407 | 5804 |
| 1093 | 6202 | 6599 | 6996 | 7393 | 7791 | 8188 | 8585 | 8982 | 9379 | 9776 |
| 1094 | 0390173 | 0570 | 0967 | 1364 | 1761 | 2158 | 2554 | 2951 | 3348 | 3745 |
| 1095 | 4141 8106 | 4538 8502 | 4934 8888 | 5331 | 5727 | 6124 $* 0086$ | 6520 $* 0482$ | 6917 $* 0878$ | 7313 +1274 | 7709 $* 1670$ |
| 1096 | 8106 | 8502 | 8898 | 9294 | 9690 | *0086 | *0482 | *0878 | *1274 | *1670 |
| 1097 | $\begin{array}{r} 0402066 \\ 6023 \end{array}$ | 2462 6419 | 2858 | 3254 7210 | 3650 7605 | 4045 8001 | 4441 8396 | 4837 8791 | 5232 <br> 9187 | 5628 9582 |
| 1099 | 9977 | *O372 | *0767 | *1162 | ${ }^{+1} 557$ | *1952 | *2347 | *2742 | *3137 | *3532 |
| 1100 | 0413927 | 4322 | 4716 | 5111 | 5506 | 5900 | 6295 | 6690 | 7084 | 7479 |
| N. | L. 0 | I | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| $2^{\circ} 55^{\prime}=10500^{\prime \prime}$ <br> $256=10560$ <br> $257=10620$ <br> $258=10680$ <br> $259=10740$ |  |  | S. ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ | T. ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ |  |  |  |  | S. ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ | T. ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ |
|  |  |  | 539 | 595 | $3^{\circ} 0^{\prime}=10800^{\prime \prime}$ |  |  | 4.68538 |  | 597 |
|  |  |  | 539 | 595 | $3 \mathrm{I}=10860$ |  |  |  | 537 | 598 |
|  |  |  | 538 | 596 | $32=10920$ |  |  |  | 537 | 598 |
|  |  |  | 538 | 596 | $33=10980$ |  |  |  | 537 | 599 |
|  |  |  | 538 | 597 | $34=11040$ |  |  |  | 537 | 599 |


| , | M. | S'. T'. |  | Sec. | $\mathrm{S}^{\prime \prime} . \mathrm{T}^{\prime \prime}$. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 180 | 6.46 |  | 10800 | 4.68 |  |
|  |  | 353 | 412 |  | 538 | 597 |
| 1 | 181 | 353 | 413 | 10860 | 537 | 598 |
| 2 | 182 | 352 | 413 | 10920 | 537 | 598 |
| 3 | 183 | 352 | 414 | 10980 | 537 | 599 |
| 4 | 184 | 352 | 414 | 11040 | 537 | 599 |
| 5 | 185 | 352 | 415 | 11100 | 537 | 599 |
| 6 | 186 | 351 | 415 | 11160 | 536 | 600 |
| 7 | 187 | 351 | 415 | 11220 | 536 | 600 |
| 8 | 188 | 351 | 416 | 11280 | 536 | 601 |
| 9 | 189 | 351 | 416 | 11340 | 536 | 601 |
| 10 | 190 | 350 | 417 | 11400 | 535 | 602 |
| 11 | 191 | 350 | 417 | 11460 | 535 | 602 |
| 12 | 192 | 350 | 418 | 11520 | 535 | 603 |
| 13 | 193 | $35^{\circ}$ | 418 | 11580 | 535 | 603 |
| 14 | 194 | 350 | 419 | 11640 | 534 | 604 |
| 15 | 195 | 349 | 419 | 11700 | 534 | 604 |
| 16 | 196 | 349 | 420 | 11760 | 534 | 605 |
| 17 | 197 | 349 | 420 | 11820 | 534 | 605 |
| 18 | 198 | 349 | 421 | 11880 | 533 | 606 |
| 19 | 199 | 348 | 421 | 11940 | 533 | 606 |
| 20 | 200 | 348 | 422 | 12000 | 533 | 607 |
| 21 | 201 | 348 | 422 | 12060 | 533 | 607 |
| 22 | 202 | 348 | 423 | 12120 | 532 | 608 |
| 23 | 203 | 347 | 423 | 12180 | 532 | 608 |
| 24 | 204 | 347 | 424 | 12240 | 532 | 609 |
| 25 | 205 | 347 | 424 | 12300 | 532 | 609 |
| 26 | 206 | 347 | 425 | 12360 | 531 | 610 |
| 27 | 207 | 346 | 425 | 12420 | 531 | 610 |
| 28 | 208 | 346 | 426 | 12480 | 531 | 611 |
| 29 | 209 | 346 | 426 | 12540 | 531 | 611 |
| 30 | 210 | 346 | 427 | 12600 | 530 | 612 |
| 31 | 211 | 345 | 427 | 12660 | 530 | 612 |
| 32 | 212 | 345 | 428 | 12720 | 530 | 613 |
| 33 | 213 | 345 | 428 | 12780 | 530 | 613 |
| 34 | 214 | 345 | 429 | 12840 | 529 | 614 |
| 35 | 215 | 344 | 429 | 12900 | 529 | 614 |
| 36 | 216 | 344 | 430 | 12960 | 529 | 615 |
|  | 217 | 344 | 430 | 13020 | 529 | 615 |
| 38 | 218 | 344 | 431 | 13080 | 528 | 616 |
| 39 | 219 | 343 | 431 | 13140 | 528 | 616 |
| 40 | 220 | 343 | 432 | 13200 | 528 | 617 |
| 41 | 221 | 343 | 432 | 13260 | 528 | 617 |
| 42 | 222 | 342 | 433 | 13320 | 527 | 618 |
| 43 | 223 | 342 | 434 | 13380 | 527 | 618 |
| 44 | 224 | 342 | 434 | 13440 | 527 | 619 |
| 45 | 225 | 342 | 435 | 13500 | 526 | 620 |
| 46 | 226 | 341 | 435 | 13560 | 526 | 620 |
|  | 227 | 341 | 436 | 13620 | 526 | 621 |
| 48 | 228 | 341 | 436 | 13680 | 526 | 621 |
| 49 | 229 | 340 | 437 | ${ }^{1} 3740$ | 525 | 622 |
| 50 | 230 | 340 | 437 | 13800 | 525 | 622 |
| 51 | 231 | 340 | 438 | 13860 | 525 | 623 |
| 52 | 232 | 340 | 439 | 13920 | 525 | 623 |
| 53 | 233 | 339 | 439 | I $3980^{\circ}$ | 524 | 624 |
| 54 | 234 | 339 | 440 | 14040 | 524 | 625 |
| 55 | 235 | 339 | 440 | 14100 | 524 | 625 |
| 56 | 236 | 338 | 441 | 14160 | 523 | 626 |
|  | 237 | 338 | 441 | 14220 | 523 | 626 |
| 58 | 238 | 338 | 442 | 14280 | 523 | 627 |
| 59 | ${ }^{239}$ | 338 | 443 | 14340 | 522 | 628 |
| 60 | 240 | 337 | 443 | 14400 | 522 | 628 |


| , | M. | $\mathrm{S}^{\prime} . \mathrm{T}^{\prime}$. |  | Sec. | $S^{\prime \prime} . T^{\prime \prime}$. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | 46 |  |  |  |
| 0 | 240 | 337 | 443 | 14400 | 522 | 628 |
| 1 | 241 | 337 | 444 | 14460 | 522 | 629 |
| 2 | 242 | 337 | 444 | 14520 | 522 | 629 |
| 3 | 243 | 336 | 445 | 14580 | 521 | 630 |
| 4 | 244 | 336 | 446 | 14640 | 521 | 631 |
| 5 | 245 | 336 | 446 | 14700 | 521 | 631 |
| 6 | 246 | 336 | 447 | 14760 | 520 | 632 |
| 7 | 247 | 335 | 447 | 14820 | 520 | 632 |
| 8 | 248 | 335 | 448 | 14880 | 520 | 633 |
| 9 | 249 | 335 | 449 | 14940 | 520 | 634 |
| 10 | 250 | 334 | 449 | 15000 | 519 | 634 |
| 11 | 251 | 334 | $4 \overline{5} 0$ | 15060 | 519 | 635 |
| 12 | 252 | 334 | 450 | 15120 | 519 | 635 |
| 13 | 253 | 333 | 451 | 15180 | 518 | 636 |
| 14 | 254 | 333 | 452 | 15240 | 518 | 637 |
| 15 | 255 | 333 | 452 | 15300 | 518 | 637 |
| 16 | 256 | 332 | 453 | 15360 | 517 | 638 |
| 17 | 257 | 332 | 454 | 15420 | 517 | 638 |
| 18 | 258 | 332 | 454 | 15480 | 517 | 639 |
| 19 | 259 | 332 | 455 | 15540 | 516 | 640 |
| 20 | 260 | 331 | 456 | 15600 | 516 | 640 |
| 21 | 261 | 331 | 456 | 15660 | 516 | 641 |
| 22 | 262 | 331 | 457 | 15720 | 515 | 642 |
| 23 | 263 | 330 | 457 | 15780 | 515 | 642 |
| 24 | 264 | 330 | $45^{8}$ | 15840 | 515 | 643 |
| 25 | 265 | 330 | 459 | 15900 | 514 | 644 |
| 26 | 266 | 329 | 459 | 15960 | 514 | 644 |
| 27 | 267 | 329 | 460 | 16020 | 514 | 645 |
| 28 | 268 | 329 | 461 | 16080 | 513 | 646 |
| 29 | 269 | 328 | 461 | 16140 | 513 | 646 |
| 30 | 270 | 328 | 462 | 16200 | 513 | 647 |
| 31 | 271 | 328 | 463 | 16260 | 512 | $64^{8}$ |
| 32 | 272 | 327 | 463 | 16320 | 512 | 648 |
| 33 | 273 | 327 | 464 | 16380 | 512 | 649 |
| 34 | 274 | 327 | 465 | 16440 | 511 | 650 |
| 35 | 275 | 326 | 465 | 16500 | 511 | 650 |
| 36 | 276 | 326 | 466 | 16560 | 511 | 651 |
| 37 | 277 | 326 | 467 | 16620 | 510 | 652 |
| 38 | 278 | 325 | 467 | 16680 | 510 | 652 |
| 39 | 279 | 325 | 468 | 16740 | 510 | 653 |
| 40 | 280 | 325 | 469 | 16800 | 509 | 654 |
| 41 | 281 | 324 | 469 | 16860 | 509 | 654 |
| 42 | 282 | 324 | 470 | 16920 | 509 | 655 |
| 43 | 283 | 324 | 47 I | 16980 | 508 | 656 |
| 44 | 284 | 323 | 472 | 17040 | 508 | 656 |
| 45 | 285 | 323 | 472 | 17100 | 508 | 657 |
| 46 | 286 | 323 | 473 | 17160 | 507 | 658 |
| 47 | 287 | 322 | 474 | 17220 | 507 | 659 |
| 48 | 288 | 322 | 474 | 17280 | 507 | 659 |
| 49 | 289 | 321 | 475 | 17340 | 506 | 660 |
| 50 | 290 | 32I | 476 | 17400 | 506 | 661 |
| 51 | 291 | 321 | 477 | 17460 | 506 | 661 |
| 52 | 292 | 320 | 477 | 17520 | 505 | 662 |
| 53 | 293 | 320 | 478 | 17580 | 505 | 663 |
| 54 | 294 | 320 | 479 | 17640 | 505 | 664 |
| 55 | 295 | 319 | 479 | 17700 | 504 | 664 |
| 56 | 296 | 319 | 480 | 17760 | 504 | 665 |
| 57 | 297 | 319 | 48 s | 17820 | 503 | 666 |
| 58 | 298 | 318 | 482 | 17880 | 503 | 666 |
| 59 | 299 | 318 | 482 | 17940 | 503 | 667 |
| 60 | 300 | 317 | 483 | 18000 | 502 | 668 |

## TABLE XVI.

## THE LOGARITHMS

OF THE

## TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS

## FOR EACH MINUTE.

## Formulas for the Use of the Auxiliaries $S$ and $\boldsymbol{T}$.

1. When $a$ is in the first five degrees of the quadrant:
$\log \sin a=\log a^{\prime}+S!$
$\log \tan a=\log a^{\prime}+T!^{\prime}$
$\log \cot a=\mathrm{cpl} \log \tan a$.
$\log \sin a=\log a^{\prime \prime}+S^{\prime \prime}$
$\log \tan a=\log a^{\prime \prime}+T!^{\prime \prime}$
$\log \cot a=\mathrm{cpl} \log \tan \alpha$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log a^{\prime} & =\log \sin a+\operatorname{cpl} S .^{\prime} \\
& =\log \tan a+\mathrm{cpl} T .^{\prime} \\
& =\mathrm{cpl} \log \cot a+\operatorname{cpl} T \\
\log a^{\prime \prime} & =\log \sin a+\operatorname{cpl} S .^{\prime \prime} \\
& =\log \tan a+\operatorname{cpl} T:^{\prime \prime} \\
& =\mathrm{cpl} \log \cot a+\operatorname{cpl} T .^{\prime \prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

2. When $a$ is in the last five degrees of the quadrant:
$\log \cos a=\log \left(90^{\circ}-a\right)^{\prime}+S!^{\prime}$
$\log \cot a=\log \left(90^{\circ}-a\right)^{\prime}+T!$
$\log \tan a=\mathrm{cpl} \log \cot a$.
$\log \cos a=\log \left(90^{\circ}-a\right)^{\prime \prime}+S .^{\prime \prime}$
$\log \cot a=\log \left(90^{\circ}-a\right)^{\prime \prime}+T .^{\prime \prime}$ $\log \tan \alpha=\mathrm{cpl} \log \cot \alpha$.

$$
a=90^{\circ}-\left(90^{\circ}-a\right)
$$

|  |  | L. Sin. | d. | Cpl. $\mathrm{S}^{\text {' }}$ | Cpl. T', | L. Tan. | c. d. | L. Cot. | L. Cos. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 0 |  |  |  |  | - |  |  | 0.00000 | 60 |
| 60 | 1 | 6.46373 | 30103 | 3.53627 | 3.53627 | $6.46373$ | 30103 | $3.53{ }^{627}$ | 0 | 59 |
| 120 | 2 | 6.76476 | ${ }^{176}$ | 3.53627 | $3.53627$ | $6.76476$ | 176 | $3.23524$ | 0.00000 | 58 |
| 180 | 3 | 6.94085 | 12494 | 3.53627 | 3.53627 | 6.94085 | 494 | 3.05915 | 0.000 | 57 |
| 240 | 4 | 7.06579 | 969 r | 3.53627 | 3.53627 | 7.06579 | 969r | 2.93421 | 0.00 | 56 |
| 300 | 5 | 7.16270 | 798 | 3.53627 | 3.53627 | 7.16270 | 7988 | $2.83730$ | $0.00$ | 55 |
| 360 | 6 | 7.24188 | 7989 | 3.53627 | 3.53627 | 7.24188 | 6694 | $2.75812$ | 0.0 | 54 |
| 420 | 7 | 7.30882 | 5800 | 3.53627 | 3.53627 | 7.3 | 5800 | $2.69118$ | 0.0 | 53 |
| 480 | 8 | 7.36682 | 5 | 3.53627 3.53627 | 3.53627 3.53627 | 7.36682 7.41797 | 5 | $\begin{array}{ll} 2.63 & 318 \\ 2.58 & 202 \end{array}$ | 0.00000 0.00000 | 52 51 |
| 540 | 9 | 7.41797 | 51 | 3.53627 | 3.53627 | 7.41797 | 4576 | 2.58203 | 0.0 | 51 |
| 600 | 10 | 7.46373 |  | 3.53627 | 3.53627 | 7.46373 |  | 2.53627 | 0.00000 | 50 |
| 660 | 11 | 7.50512 |  | 3.53627 | 3.53627 | 7.50512 |  | 2.49488 | 0.00000 | 49 |
| 720 | 12 | 7.54291 | 3476 | 3.53627 | 3.53627 | 7.54291 | 3476 | 2.45709 | 0.00000 | 48 |
| 780 | 13 | 7.57767 |  | 3.53627 | 3.53627 | 7.57767 | 3476 | 2.42233 | 0.00000 | 47 |
| 840 | 14 | 7.60985 |  | 3.53628 | 3.53627 | 7.60986 | 2996 | 2.39014 | 0.00000 | 46 |
|  | 15 | 7.63982 | 2802 | 3.5362 | 3.53627 | 7.63982 | 2803 | 2.36018 | 0.00000 | 45 |
|  | 16 | 7.66784 |  | 3.53628 | 3.53627 | 7.66785 | 283 | 2.33215 | 0.00000 | 44 |
| 1020 | 17 | 7.69417 | 2483 | 3.53628 | 3.53627 | 7.69418 | 2482 | 2.30582 | 9.99999 | 43 |
|  | 18 | 7.71900 | ${ }_{2348}$ | 3.53628 | 3.53627 | 7.71900 | 2348 |  |  | 42 |
|  | 19 | 7.74248 | 2348 | 3.53628 | 3.53627 | 7.74248 | 2348 | 2.25752 | 9.99999 | 41 |
| 1200 | 20 | 7.76475 |  | 3.53628 | 3.53627 | 7.76476 |  | 2.23524 | 9.99999 | 40 |
| 1260 | 21 | 7.78 |  | 3.53628 | 3.53627 | 7.78595 | 2020 | 2.21405 | 9.99999 | 39 |
| ${ }^{132}$ | 22 | 7.80615 | 1930 | 3.53628 | 3.53627 | 7.80615 | 1931 | 2.19385 | 9.99999 | 38 |
| 138 | 23 | 7.82545 | 1848 | 3.536 | 3.53627 | 7.82546 | 1848 | 2.17454 | 9.99 | 37 |
| 1440 | 24 | 7.84393 |  | 3.53628 | 3.53627 | 7.84394 |  | 2.15606 | 9.99999 | 36 |
| 1500 | 25 | 7.86166 | 1704 | 3.53628 | 3.53627 | 7.86167 | 1704 | 2.13833 | 9.99999 | 35 |
| 156 | 26 | 7.87870 | 1639 | 3.53628 | 3.53627 | 7.87871 | 1639 | 2.12129 | 9.99999 | 34 |
| 1620 | 27 | 7.89 | 1579 | 3.53628 | 3.53626 | 7.89510 | 1579 | 2.10 490 | 9.99999 | 33 |
| 1680 | 28 | 7.91088 | 15 | 3.53628 | 3.53 | 7.91089 | 1524 | 2.08911 | 9.99999 | 32 |
| 1740 | 29 | 7.92612 |  | 3.53628 | 3.53626 | 7.92613 | 473 | 2.07387 | 9.9 | 31 |
| 1800 | 30 | 7.94084 |  | 3.53628 | 3.53626 | 7.94086 | 424 | 2.05914 | 8 | 30 |
| 1860 | 31 | 7.95508 |  | 3.536 | 3.53626 | 7.95510 |  | 2.04490 | 9.99998 | 29 |
| 19 | 32 | 7.96887 | 1336 | 3.536 | 3.53626 | 7.96889 | 1336 | 2.03111 | 9.99998 | 28 |
| 198 | 33 | 7.98223 | 1336 | 3. | 3.53 | 7.98225 | 1336 | 2.01775 | 9.99998 | 27 |
| 20 | 34 | 7.99520 |  | 3.53628 | 3.53 626 | 7.99522 |  | 2.00478 | 9.99998 | 26 |
|  | 35 | 8.00779 | 1223 | 3.53628 | 3.53626 | 8.00781 | 1223 | 1.99219 | 9.99998 | 25 |
|  | 36 | 8.02002 | 1190 | 3.53 | 3.53 | 8.02004 | 1190 | 1.97996 | 9.99998 | 24 |
|  | 37 | 8.03192 | 1158 | 3.53628 | 3.53 626 | 803194 |  | 1.96806 | 9.99997 | 23 |
| 2280 | 38 | 8.04350 | 1128 | 3.53628 | 3.53 626 | 8.04353 | 1128 | I. 95647 | 9.99997 | 22 |
| 2340 | 39 | 8.05478 |  | 3.53628 | 3.53626 | 8.05 481 |  | 1.94519 | 9.99997 | 21 |
| 240 | 40 | 8.06578 |  | 3.53628 | 3.53625 | 8.0658 I |  | 1.93419 | 9.99997 | 20 |
| 24 | 41 | 8.07650 | 104 | 3.53628 | 3.53625 | 8.07653 |  | 1.92347 | 9.99997 | 19 |
| 252 | 42 | 8.08696 |  | 3.53628 | 3.53625 | 8.08700 |  | 1.91300 | 9.99997 | 18 |
| 2580 | 43 | 8.09718 |  | 3.53629 | 3.53625 | 8.09722 |  | 1. 90278 | 7 | 17 |
| 2640 | 44 | 8.10 | 976 | 3.53629 | 3.53625 | 8.10 720 |  | 1.89280 | 9.99996 | 6 |
| 270 | 45 | 8.11693 | 954 | 3.53629 | 3.53625 | 8.111 696 | 975 | 1. 88304 | 9.99996 | 15 |
| 2760 | 46 | 8.12647 | 934 | $3 \cdot 5$ | 3.53625 | 8.12651 |  | 1.87349 | 9.99996 | 14 |
| 2820 | 47 | ${ }_{8}^{8.13581}$ |  | 3.53629 | 3.53625 | 8.13 1385 |  | 1.86415 | 9.99996 | 13 |
| 2880 | 48 | 8.14495 | 896 | 3.53629 3.53629 | 3.53625 | 8.14 800 |  | 1.85500 <br> 1.84605 | 9.99996 | 12 |
| 29. | 49 | 8.15391 | 877 | 3.53629 | 3.53624 | 8.15 895 | 878 | 1.84605 | 9.99996 | 11 |
| 3000 | 5 | 8.16268 | 860 | 3.53629 | 3.53624 | 8.16273 |  | 1.83727 | 9.99995 | 10 |
| 3060 3120 | 51 | 8.17128 8.17971 | 843 | $3.53629$ | $3.53624$ | 8.17133 8.17 976 |  | $1.82867$ |  |  |
| 3120 3180 | 52 | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & 8.17971 \\ & 8.18998 \end{aligned}\right.$ | 827 | $\begin{array}{l\|l\|l\|} 3.53 & 629 \\ 3.53 & 620 \end{array}$ | $3.53624$ $3.53624$ | $\begin{aligned} & 8.17976 \\ & 8.18804 \end{aligned}$ | 828 | $\begin{aligned} & 1.82024 \\ & 1.81196 \end{aligned}$ | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{c\|c\|} 9.99995 \\ 0 \end{array}\right.$ | 8 |
| ${ }^{1880}$ | 53 | $8.18798$ | 812 | $3.53629$ | $3.53624$ | 8.18804 8.19616 | 81 | $\begin{aligned} & 1.81196 \\ & 1.80 \\ & 1.884 \end{aligned}$ | 9.99995 | 6 |
| 32 | 54 | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & 8.19610610 \\ & 8.20407 \end{aligned}\right.$ | 797 | $\begin{aligned} & 3.53629 \\ & 3.53629 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3.53624 \\ & 3.53624 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 8.19616 \\ & 8.20413 \end{aligned}$ | 79 | $\begin{aligned} & 1.80384 \\ & 1.79587 \end{aligned}$ | $\left.\begin{aligned} & 9.99995 \\ & 9.99994 \end{aligned} \right\rvert\,$ | 6 |
| 336 | 55 | 8.21489 <br> 8.21 <br> 189 | 782 | $\begin{aligned} & 3.53629 \\ & 3.53629 \end{aligned}$ | 3.53624 3.53624 | 8.20413 8.2195 |  | 1.79587 1.78805 | $\left\|\begin{array}{l} 9.99994 \\ 9.99994 \end{array}\right\|$ | 5 4 |
| 3420 | 57 | $8.2195^{8}$ |  | 3.53629 | 3.53623 | 8.21964 |  | 1. 78036 | 9.99994 | 3 |
| 3480 | 58 | 8.22713 | 743 | 3.53629 | 3.53623 | 8.22720 |  | 1.77280 | 9.99994 | 2 |
| 354 | 59 | 8.23456 | 730 | 3.53630 | 3.53623 | 8.23462 |  | 1.76 538 | 9.99994 | 1 |
| 3600 | 60 | 8.24186 |  | 3.53630 | 3.53623 | 8.24192 |  | 1.75808 | 9.99993 | 0 |
|  |  | L. Cos. | d. |  |  | L. Cot | c. d. | Ta | L. Sin. |  |


| " | , | L. Sin. | d. | Cpl. S'. | Cpl. T'. | L. Tan | c. d. | L. Cot. | L. Cos. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3600 | 0 | 8.24186 |  | 3.53630 | 3.53623 | 8.24192 |  | 1.75808 | 9.99993 | 60 |
| 366 | 1 | 8.24903 |  | 3.53630 | 3.53623 | 8.24910 |  | 1.75090 | 9.99993 | 5 |
| 37 | 2 | 8.25609 | 69 | 3.53630 | 3.53623 | 8.25616 | 696 | $1.743^{88}$ | 9.99.993 | 58 |
| 3780 | 3 | 8.26304 | 695 684 | 3.53630 | 3.53623 | 8.26312 | 696 | I.73688 | 9.99993 | 57 |
| 3840 | 4 | 8.26988 | 684 | 3.53630 | 3.53622 | 8.26996 | 684 673 | 1.73004 | 9.99932 | 56 |
| 39 | 5 | 8.27661 | 673 663 | 3.53630 | 3.53622 | 8.27669 | 673 663 | 1.72331 | 9.99992 | 55 |
| 3960 | 6 | 8.28324 | 653 | 3.53630 | 3.53622 | 8.28332 | 63 | 1.71668 | 9.99992 | 54 |
|  | 7 | 8.28977 | 653 644 | 3.53630 | 3.53622 | 8.28986 | 643 | 1.71014 | 9.99992 | 53 |
| 40 | 8 | 8.29621 | 644 | 3.53630 | 3.53622 | 8.29629 | 643 | 1.70371 | 9.99992 | 52 |
| 4140 | 9 | $8.3025 \overline{5}$ | 634 | 3.53630 | 3.53622 | 8.30263 | 634 | 1.69737 | 9.99991 | 51 |
| 4200 | 10 | 8.30879 |  | 3.53630 | 3.53621 | 8.30888 |  | 1.69112 | 9.99991 | 50 |
| 42 | 11 | 8.31495 | 608 | 3.53630 | 3.53621 | 8.31505 | 607 | 1.68495 | 9.99991 | 49 |
| 43 | 12 | 8.32103 | 60 | 3.53631 | 3.53621 | 8.32112 | 607 | 1.67888 | 9.99990 | 48 |
| 4380 | 13 | 8.32702 |  | 3.53631 | 3.53621 | 8.32711 |  | 1.67289 | 9.99990 | 47 |
| 44 | 14 | 8.33292 |  | 3.53631 | 3.53621 | 8.33302 |  | 1.66698 | 9.99990 | 46 |
| 45 | 15 | 8.33875 |  | 3.53631 | 3.53620 | 8.33886 | 575 | 1.66114 | 9.99990 | 45 |
| 456 | 16 | 8.34450 | 575 568 | 3.53631 | 3.53620 | 8.34461 | 568 | 1. 65539 | 9.99989 | 44 |
| 4620 | 17 | 8.35018 | 568 560 | 3.53631 | 3.53620 | 8.35029 | 568 | 1. 64971 | 9.99989 | 43 |
| 4680 | 18 | 8.35578 | 550 | 3.53631 | 3.53620 | 8.35590 | 561 | 1.64410 | 9.99989 | 42 |
| 4740 | 19 | 8.36131 | 553 | 3.53631 | 3.53620 | 8.36143 | 553 | 1.63857 | 9.99989 | 41 |
| 4800 | 20 | 8.36678 | 547 | 3.53631 | 3.53620 | 8.36689 |  | 1.63311 | 9.99988 | 40 |
| 4860 | 21 | 8.37217 | 539 | 3.53631 | 3.53619 | 8.37229 |  | 1.62771 | 9.99988 | 39 |
| 492 | 22 | 8.37730 | 533 526 | 3.53632 | 3.53619 | 8.37762 | 527 | 1.62238 | 9.99988 | 38 |
| 4980 | 23 | 8.38276 | 520 520 | 3.53632 | 3.53619 | 8.38289 | 527 520 | 1.61711 | 9.99987 | 37 |
| 504 | 24 | 8.38796 | 514 | 3.53632 | 3.53619 | 8.38809 | 514 | 1.61191 | 9.99987 | 36 |
| 51 | 25 | 8.39310 | 508 | 3.53632 | 3.53619 | 8.39323 | 514 509 | 1. 60677 | 9.99987 | 35 |
| 5160 | 26 | 8.39818 | 508 | 3.53632 | 3.53618 | 8.39832 |  | 1.60168 | 9.99986 | 34 |
| 522 | 27 | 8.40320 | 496 | 3.53632 | 3.53618 | 8.40334 | 496 | I. 59666 | 9.99986 | 33 |
| 52 | 28 | 8.40816 | 491 | 3.53632 | 3.53618 | 8.40830 | 491 | 1.59170 | 9.99986 | 32 |
| 5340 | 29 | 8.41307 | 49 | 3.53632 | 3.53618 | 8.41321 | 491 | 1.58679 | 9.99985 | 31 |
| 5400 | 30 | 8.41792 |  | 3.53632 | 3.53617 | 8.41807 |  | 1.58193 | 9.99985 | 30 |
| 5460 | 31 | 8.42272 | 474 | 3.53632 | 3.53617 | 8.42287 |  | 1.57713 | 9.99985 | 29 |
| 552 | 32 | 8.42746 | 474 | 3.53633 | 3.53617 | 8.42762 |  | 1.57238 | 9.99984 | 28 |
| 5580 | 33 | 8.43216 |  | 3.53633 | 3.53617 | 8.43232 |  | 1.56768 | 9.99984 | 27 |
| 5640 | 34 | 8.43680 |  | 3.53633 | 3.53617 | 8.43696 |  | 1.56304 | 9.99984 | 26 |
| 570 | 35 | 8.44139 | 455 | 3.53633 | .3.53616 | 8.44156 |  | 1.55 844 | 9.99983 | 25 |
| 5760 | 36 | 8.44594 | 450 | 3.53633 | 3.53616 | 8.44611 | 455 | 1.55389 | 9.99983 | 24 |
| 58 | 37 | 8.45044 | 450 | 3.53633 | 3.53616 | 8.45061 | 450 | I. 54939 | 9.99983 | 23 |
| 5880 | 38 | 8.45489 | 441 | 3.53633 | 3.53616 | 8.45507 |  | 1.54493 | 9.99982 | 22 |
| 5940 | 39 | 8.45930 | 441 | 3.53633 | 3.53615 | 8.45948 | 441 | 1.54052 | 9.99982 | 21 |
| 6000 | 40 | 8.46306 |  | 3.53634 | 3.53615 | 8.46385 |  | 1.53615 | 9.99982 | 20 |
| 606 | 41 | 8.46799 |  | 3.53634 | 3.53615 | 8.46817 |  | 1.53183 | 9.99981 | 19 |
| 6120 | 42 | 8.47226 | 424 | 3.53634 | 3.53615 | 8.47245 | 424 | 1. $5275 \overline{5}$ | 9.9998 I | 18 |
| 6180 | 43 | 8.47650 | 424 | 3.53634 | 3.53614 | 8.47669 | 424 | 1.52331 | 9.99 98I | 17 |
| 6240 | 44 | 8.48069 |  | 3.53634 | 3.53614 | 8.48089 |  | 1.51911 | 9.99980 | 16 |
| 6300 | 45 | $8.484^{88} 5$ | 411 | 3.53634 | 3.53614 | 8.48505 |  | 1.51495 | 9.99980 | 15 |
| 6360 | 46 | 8.48896 | 411 | 3.53634 | 3.53614 | 8.48917 | 412 | 1.51083 | 9.99979 | 14 |
| 6420 | 47 | 8.49304 | 404 | 3.53634 | 3.53613 |  | 408 | 1.50675 | 9.99979 | 13 |
| 6480 | 48 | 8.49708 | 404 | 3.53635 | 3.53613 | 8.49729 | 404 | 1.50271 | 9.99979 | 12 |
| 6540 | 49 | 8.50108 | 400 | 3.53635 | 3.53613 | 8.50130 | 401 | 1.49870 | 9.99978 | 11 |
| 6600 | 50 | 8.50504 |  | 3.53635 | 3.53613 | 8.50527 |  | 1.49473 | 9.99978 | 10 |
| 666 | 51 | 8.50897 | 390 | 3.53635 | 3.53612 | 8.50920 | 390 | 1.49080 | 9.99977 | 9 |
| 6720 | 52 | 8.51287 | 386 | 3.53635 | 3.53612 | 8.51310 | 396 | 1.48690 | 9.99977 | 8 |
| 6780 | 53 | 8.51673 | 386 | 3.53635 | 3.53612 | 8.51696 |  | 1.48304 | 9.99977 | 7 |
| 6840 | 54 | 8.52055 | 379 | 3.53635 | 3.53611 | 8.52079 | 380 | 1.47921 | 9.99976 | 6 |
| 6900 | 55 | 8.52434 | 379 376 | 3.53635 | 3.53611 | 8.52459 | 376 | 1.47541 | 9.99976 | 5 |
| 6960 | 56 | 8.52810 | 376 | 3.53636 | 3.53611 | 8.52835 | 376 | 1.47165 | 9.99975 | 4 |
| 70 | 57 | 8.53183 | $\begin{aligned} & 373 \\ & 369 \end{aligned}$ | 3.53636 | 3.53611 | 8.53208 | 373 370 | 1.46792 | 9.99975 | 3 |
| 7080 | 58 | 8.53552 8.53919 | 369 367 | 3.53636 3.53636 | 3.53610 3.53610 | 8.53578 | 370 367 | 1.46 422 | 9.99974 | 2 |
| 7140 | 59 | 8.53919 | 363 | 3.53636 | 3.53610 | 8.53945 | 363 | I. 46055 | 9.99974 | 1 |
| 7200 | 60 | 8.54282 | 3 | 3.53636 | 3.53610 | 8.54308 | 36 | 1.45692 | 9.99974 | 0 |
|  |  | L. Cos. | d. |  |  | L. Cot. | c. d. | L. Tan. | L. Sin. |  |

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|  |  | L. Sin. | d. | Cpl. S'. | Cpl. | n. | c. d. | L. | Cos. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7200 | 0 | 8.54282 | 360 | 3.53636 | 3.53610 | 8.54308 |  | 1.45692 | 9.99974 | 60 |
|  |  | 8.54642 | 357 | 3.53636 | 3.53609 | 8.54669 | $358$ | 31 | 3 | 59 |
| 7320 | 2 | 8.54999 | 355 | 3.53637 | 3.53609 | 8.55027 | $\begin{aligned} & 358 \\ & 355 \end{aligned}$ | 1.44973 | 9.99973 | 58 |
| 73 | 3 | 8.55354 | $\begin{aligned} & 355 \\ & 351 \end{aligned}$ | 3.53637 | 3.53609 | 8.55382 | $\begin{aligned} & 355 \\ & 352 \end{aligned}$ | 1.44618 | 9.99972 | 57 |
| 7440 | 4 | 8.55705 | 35 | 3.53637 | 3.53609 | 8.55734 | $35^{2}$ | I. 4426 | 9.99972 | 56 |
| 750 | 5 | 8.56054 | 349 346 | 3.53637 | 3.53608 | 8.56083 | 349 | 1.43917 | 9.99971 | 55 |
| 7560 | 6 | 8.56400 | 346 | 3.53637 | 3.53608 | 8.56429 | 346 | 1.43571 | 9.99971 | 54 |
| 7620 | 7 | 8.56743 | 341 | 3.53637 | 3.53608 | 8.56773 | 341 | 1.43227 | 9.99970 | 53 |
| 76 | 8 | 8.57084 | 341 | 3.53637 | 3.53607 | 8.57114 | 341 348 | I. 42886 | 9.999 | 52 |
| 7740 | 9 | 8.57421 | 337 | 3.53638 | 3.53607 | 8.57452 | 338 | 1.42548 | 9.9 | 51 |
| 7800 | 10 | 8.57757 |  | 3.53638 | 3.53607 | 8.57788 |  | 1.422 | 9.99969 | 50 |
| 7860 | 11 | 8.58089 |  | 3.53638 | 3.53606 | 8.58121 |  | I. 41 | 9.99968 | 49 |
| 792 | 12 | 8.58419 | 330 <br> 328 | 3.536 | 3.53606 | 8.58451 | 328 | I. 41549 | 9.99 | 48 |
| 798 | 13 | 8.58747 | 328 | 3.53638 | 3.53606 | 8.58779 | 328 | I.41 221 | 9.99 | 47 |
| 8040 | 14 | 8.59072 | 325 | 3.53638 | 3.53605 | 8.59 I05 |  | 1.40 895 | 9.99967 | 46 |
| 810 | 15 | 8.59395 | 320 | 3.53639 | 3.53605 | 8.59428 | ${ }_{321}^{323}$ | 1.40572 | 9.99967 | 45 |
| 8 r 60 | 16 | 8.59715 | 320 | 3.53639 | 3.53605 | 8.59749 | 321 | I. 40251 | 9.99966 | 44 |
| 8220 | 17 | 8.60033 | 318 | 3.53639 | 3.53604 | 8.60068 |  | I. 3993 | 9.99 | 43 |
| 82 | 18 | 8.60349 | 316 | 3.53639 | 3.53604 | 8.60384 |  | 1. 3961 | 9.99965 | 42 |
| 83 | 19 | 8.60662 | 313 | 3.53639 | 3.53604 | 8.60698 | 314 | 1.39 30 | 9.99964 | 41 |
| 8400 | 20 | 8.60973 |  | 3.53639 | 3.53603 | 8.61009 |  | 1.38991 | 9.99964 | 40 |
| 84 | 21 | 8.61282 |  | 3.536 | 3.53603 |  |  | 1.38681 | 9.99963 | 39 |
| 85 | 22 | 8.61 |  | 3.5364 | 3.53603 | 8.6 |  | I. 38374 | 9.99963 | 38 |
| 858 | 23 | 8.61 8 |  | 3.5364 | 3.5360 | 8.61931 |  | I. 380 | 9.99 | 37 |
| 86 | 24 | 8.62196 |  | 3.536 | 3.53602 | 8.62 |  | I. 37766 | 9.99962 | 36 |
| 870 | 25 | 8.62 |  | 3.53640 | 3.53602 | 8.62535 |  | 1. 37465 | 9.99 961 | 35 |
| 876 | 26 | 8.62 |  | 3.53640 | 3.53601 | 8.62834 |  | I. 37166 | 9.99 | 34 |
| 8820 | 27 | 8.63 Ogr |  | 3.53641 | 3.53 | 8.63 I 31 |  | 1. 36869 | 9.99 | 33 |
| 88 | 28 | 8.63 |  | 3.53641 | 3.5360 | 8.63426 |  | I. 36574 |  | 32 |
| 8940 | 29 | 8.63 |  | 3.53641 | 3.53600 | 8.63718 |  | I. 36 | 9.9995 | 31 |
| 90 | 30 | 8.63968 | 288 | 3.53641 | 3.53600 | 8.64009 |  | 1.35991 | 9.99959 | 30 |
| 906 | 31 | 8.64 |  | 3.53641 | 3.53599 | 8.64298 |  | 1.35702 | 9.99958 | 29 |
|  | 32 | 8.64543 |  | 3.53642 | 3.53599 | 8.64585 |  | 1. 35415 | 9.99958 | 28 |
|  | 33 | 8.64827 |  | 3.53642 | 3.53599 | 8.64870 |  | 1.35 130 | 9.99957 | 27 |
| 9240 | 34 | 8.65110 |  | 3.53642 | 3.53598 | 8.65154 |  | I. 34846 | 9.99956 | 26 |
|  | 35 | 8.65391 |  | 3.53642 | 3.5359 | 8.654 |  | I. 34565 | 9.99956 | 25 |
| 9360 | 36 | 8.65670 |  | 3.53642 | 3 . | 8.6575 |  | I. 34285 | 90955 | 24 |
| 94 | 37 | 8.65947 |  | 3.53642 | 3.53597 |  |  | I. 34007 | 9.99953 | 23 |
| 9480 9540 | 38 39 | 8.66223 8.66497 | 276 274 | 3.53643 3.53643 | 3.53597 3.53596 | $8.66269$ $8.66543$ | 276 | I. 3373 y I. 33457 | 9.99954 9.99954 | 22 21 |
| 960 | 39 | $\frac{8.66497}{8.66769}$ | 274 272 | $\frac{3.53643}{3.53643}$ | $\frac{3.53596}{3.53596}$ | $\frac{8.66543}{8.66816}$ | 274 | I. 33457 | 9.99 954 | 20 |
| 9660 | 41 | 8.67039 |  | 3.53643 | 3.53596 | 8.67087 |  | I. 32913 | 9.99952 | 19 |
| 97 | 42 | 8.67308 |  | 3.53643 | 3.53595 | 8.67356 |  | I. 32644 | 9.99952 | 18 |
| 97 | 43 | 8.67575 |  | 3.53644 | 3.53595 | 8.67624 |  | 1. 32376 | 9.99951 | 17 |
| 9840 | 44 | 8.67841 |  | 3.53644 | 3.53594 | 8.67890 |  | 1. 32110 | 9.99951 | 16 |
| 9900 | 45 | 8.68104 |  | 3.53644 | 3.53594 | 8.68154 |  | I. 31846 | 9.99950 | 15 |
| 9960 | 46 | 8.68367 |  | 3.53644 | 3.53594 | 8.68417 |  | I.31 583 | 9.99 | 14 |
|  | 47 | 8.68627 |  | 3.536 | 3.53593 | 8.68678 |  | I. 31322 | 9.99949 | 13 |
| 10080 | 48 | 8.68886 | 25 | 3.53645 | 3.53593 | 8.68938 | 260 | 1.31 062 | 9.99948 | 12 |
| Io | 49 | 8.69144 |  | 3.53645 | 3.53592 | 8.69196 |  | 1.3080 | 9.99948 | 11 |
| xo | 50 | 8.69400 |  | 3.53645 | 3.53592 | 8.69453 |  | I. 30547 | 9.99947 | 10 |
|  | 51 | 8.69654 | 253 | 3.536 | 3.53592 | 8.69708 | 254 | 1.30 292 | 9.99946 |  |
|  | 52 | 8.69907 | 253 | 3.53646 | 3.53591 | 8.69962 | 254 | 1. 30038 | 9.99946 | 8 |
| 103 | 53 | 8.70159 | 252 250 | 3.53.646 | 3.53591 | 8.70214 | 252 | 1.29786 | 9.99 | 7 |
| 10 | 54 | 8.70409 | 250 | 3.53646 | 3.53590 | 8.70465 |  | I. 29535 | 9.99944 | 6 |
|  | 55 | 8.70 | 249 | 3.53646 | 3.53590 | $8.70 .714$ | 249 | $1.29286$ | 9.99944 | 5 |
|  | 56 | 8.70905 | 247 | 3.53646 | 3.53589 | 8.70962 | 248 | 1.29038 | 9.9994 | 4 |
| 1068 | 58 | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & 8.71151 \\ & 871205 \end{aligned}\right.$ | 244 | 3.53647 3.53647 | $3.53589$ | $8.71208$ | 245 | $1.28792$ | 9.99 | 3 2 2 |
| 10740 | 59 | 8.71 638 | 2 | 3.53 647 | 3.53588 | 8.71697 | 244 | 1.28 303 | 9.9994r | 1 |
| 10800 | 60 | 8.71880 |  | 3.53647 | 3.53588 | 8.71940 |  | 1.28060 | 9.99940 | 0 |
|  |  | L. Cos. | d. |  |  | L. Cot. | c. | L. Ta | Sin | . |


|  | L. Sin. | d. | L. Tan. | c.d. | L. Cot. | L. Cos. |  | P. P. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 8.71880 | 240 | 8.71940 | 241 | 1.28060 | 9.99940 | 60 |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8.72120 |  | 8.72 181 |  | 1.27819 | 9.99940 | 59 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 8.72359 | 238 | 8.72420 |  | 1.27580 | 9.99939 | 58 |  |  | 23 | 23 | 236234 |
| 3 | 8.72597 | 237 | 8.72659 | 237 | 1.27341 | 9.99938 | 57 | 1 | 24.1 48.2 | 23.9 47.8 | 23.7 47.4 | $\begin{array}{ll}23.6 & 23.4 \\ 47.2 & 46.8\end{array}$ |
| 4 | 8.72834 | 235 | 8.72896 | 236 | 1.27104 | 9.99938 | 56 | + | 48.2 72.3 | 47.8 71.7 | 4.4 71.1 | $\begin{array}{ll}47.2 & 46.8 \\ 70.8 & 70.2 \\ 9.4 & \end{array}$ |
| 5 | 8.73069 | 235 | 8.73132 | 2 | I. 26868 | 9.99937 | 55 | 4 | 96.4 120.5 | 95.6 119.5 | 94.8 118.5 | $\begin{array}{rrr}94.4 & 93.6 \\ 118.0 & 117.0\end{array}$ |
| 6 | 8.73303 | 232 | 8.73366 | 234 | I. 26634 | 9.99936 | 54 | 5 | 120.5 144.6 | 119.5 143.4 | 118.5 142.2 | 118.0 141.6 114.0 14.4 |
| 7 | 8.73535 | 232 | 8.73600 | 232 | 1. 26400 | 9.99936 | 53 | 7 | 168.7 192.8 |  | 165.9 189.6 | $\begin{array}{lll}165.2 & 163.8 \\ 188.8 & 187.2\end{array}$ |
| 8 | 8.73767 | 230 | 8.73832 | 231 | 1.26168 | 9.99935 | 52 | 8 | 192.8 216.9 | 191.2 215.1 | 189.6 213.3 | $\begin{array}{llll}188.8 & 187.2 \\ 212.4 & \text { 210.6 }\end{array}$ |
| 9 | 8.73997 | 229 | 8.74063 | 229 | 1.25937 | 9.99934 | 51 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10 | 8.74226 | 22 | 8.74292 |  | 1.25708 | 9.99934 | 50 |  | 232 | 231 | 229 | 227226 |
| 11 | 8.74454 | 226 | 8.7452 I |  | 1.25479 | 9.99933 | 49 | 2 |  |  | 22.9 | $\begin{array}{lll}22.7 & 22.6\end{array}$ |
| 12 | 8.74680 | 226 | 8.74748 | 226 | 1.25 252 | 9.99932 | 48 | 2 | 46. 69. | 46.2 69.3 | 45.8 68.7 | $\begin{array}{lll}45.4 & 45.2 \\ 68.1 & 67.8\end{array}$ |
| 13 | 8.74906 |  | 8.74974 |  | 1.25026 | 9.99932 | 47 | 3 | 92.8 | 92.4 | 98.6 | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { 90. } 8 & 90.4\end{array}$ |
| 14 | 8.75130 |  | 8.75199 |  | 1.24801 | 9.99931 | 46 | 5 | 116.0 139.2 | 115.5 138.6 | 114.5 137.4 | 113.5 136.2 1835.6 |
| 15 | 8.75353 | 223 | 8.75423 | 224 | 1.24577 | 9.99930 | 45 | 6 | 139.2 168.4 |  | 137.4 160.3 | 136.2 135.6 <br> 158.9  <br> 1588.2  <br> 8.6  |
| 16 | 8.75575 | 220 | 8.75645 |  | 1.24355 | 9.99929 | 44 | 8 | 185. | 184.8 | 83.2 | 188.6 180.8 |
| 17 | 8.75795 | 220 | 8.75867 | 222 | 1.24133 | 9.99929 | 43 | 9 | 208 | 207.9 | 26.1 | 204.3203 .4 |
| 18 | 8.76015 | 220 | 8.76087 | 220 | 1.23913 | 9.99928 | 42 |  |  | 222 |  |  |
| 19 | 8.76234 |  | 8.76306 |  | 1.23694 | 9.99927 | 41 | 1 | 224 |  |  |  |
| 20 | 8.76451 |  | 8.76525 |  | 1.23475 | 9.99926 | 40 | 2 | 44 | 4 | 44. | $\begin{array}{lll}43.8 & 43.4\end{array}$ |
| 21 | 8.76667 | 216 | 8.76742 | 216 | 1.23258 | 9.99926 | 39 | 3 | 67.2 89.6 | 66.6 88.8 | 66.0 88.0 | $\begin{array}{lll}65.7 & 65.1 \\ 87.6 & 86.8\end{array}$ |
| 22 | 8.76883 |  | 8.76958 | 216 | 1.23042 | $9.9992 \overline{5}$ | 38 | 6 | 112.0 | I11.0 | 110.0 1320 | $\begin{array}{rrr}87.6 \\ 109.5 & 108.8 \\ 13.5\end{array}$ |
| 23 | 8.77097 |  | 8.77173 |  | 1.22827 | 9.99924 | 37 | 6 | 134.4 156.8 | 133.2 | 132.0 154.0 | 131.4 130.2 |
| 24 | 8.77310 |  | 8.77387 |  | 1.22613 | 9.99923 | 36 | 7 | 156.8 179.2 | 155.4 177.6 | 154.0 | $\begin{array}{llll}153.3 & 151.9 \\ 175.2 & 173.6\end{array}$ |
| 25 | 8.77522 | 211 | 8.77600 | 211 | 1.22400 | 9.99923 | 35 | , | 201.6 | 199.8 | 198.0 | 197. 19195 |
| 26 | 8.77733 | 211 | 8.7781 I | 211 | 1.22189 | 9.99922 | 34 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 27 | 8.77943 |  | 8.78022 |  | 1.21978 | 9.99921 | 33 |  |  | 21 | 213 | $\begin{array}{ll}211 & 209 \\ \text { 1, } 120.9\end{array}$ |
| 28 | 8.78152 | 208 | 8.78232 8.78 |  | 1.21768 | 9.99920 | 32 | 1 2 2 | 43.2 | 42.8 | 21.3 42.6 | $\begin{array}{ll}21.1 & 20.9 \\ 42.2 & 41.8\end{array}$ |
| 29 | 8.78360 | 208 | 8.7844 I | 209 | 1.21559 | 9.99920 | 31 | 3 |  | 42.8 64.2 8.6 |  | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { 61.1 } & 42.8 \\ 63.3 & 62.7 \\ 84.4 & 83.6\end{array}$ |
| 30 | 8.78568 |  | 8.78649 |  | $1.2135^{1}$ | 9.99919 | 30 | 4 | 86.4 108.0 | 85.6 107.0 | 85.2 106.5 | $\begin{array}{rrr}84.4 & 83.6 \\ 05.5 & 104.5\end{array}$ |
| 31 | 8.78774 |  | 8.78855 |  | $1.2114 \overline{5}$ | 9.99918 | 29 | 6 | 129.6 | 128.4 | 127.8 19.8 | $\begin{array}{ll}105.5 & 18.5 \\ 126.6 & 125.4 \\ 147.7 & 16.3\end{array}$ |
| 32 | 8.78979 | 204 | 8.79061 |  | 1.20 939 | 9.99917 | 28. | 7 | 151.2 172.8 197 | 149.8 17 t .2 | 149.1 170.4 | $147.7 \quad 146.3$ <br> 168.8167 .2 |
| 33 | 8.79183 | 204 | 8.79266 | 205 | 1.20734 | 9.99917 | 27 | 8 | 172.8 194.4 | 171.2 192.6 | $\begin{aligned} & 170.4 \\ & 191.7 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{ll} 168.8 & 167.2 \\ 189.9 & 188.1 \end{array}$ |
| 34 | 8.79386 | 203 | 8.79470 | 204 | 1.20530 | 9.99916 | 26 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 35 | 8.79588 | 202 | 8.79673 | 203 | 1.20327 | 9.99915 | 25 |  | 208 | 206 | 203 | 201199 |
| 36 | 8.79789 | 201 | 8.79375 | 201 | 1.20125 | 9.99914 | 24 | 1 | 20.8 | 20.6 | 20.3 | $\begin{array}{lll}20.1 & 19.9\end{array}$ |
| 37 | 8.79990 | 199 | 8.80076 | 201 | 1.19 924 | 9.99913 | 23 | 3 | 41.6 62.4 | 41.2 6 I .8 | 40.6 60.9 | $\begin{array}{ll}40.2 & 39.8 \\ 60.3 & 59.7\end{array}$ |
| $3^{8}$ | 8.80189 | 199 | 8.80277 | 201 | 1.19723 | 9.99913 | 22 | 1 | 83.2 | 82.4 | 81.2 | $\begin{array}{lll}80.4 & 79.6\end{array}$ |
| 39 | 8.80388 |  | 8.80476 | $198$ | 1.19524 | 9.99912 | 21 | 5 | 104.0 124.8 | $\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{1 0 3 . 0} \\ & 123.6 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { xor. } 5 \\ & 121.8 \end{aligned}$ | $100.5 \quad 99.5$ $120.5 \quad 119.4$ |
| 40 | $8.805^{85}$ |  | 8.80674 | 198 | 1.19326 | 9.99911 | 20 | 7 |  |  |  |  |
| 41 | 8.80782 |  | 8.80872 |  | 1.19128 | 9.99910 | 19 | 8 | 166.4 187.2 | 164.8 185.4 | 162.4 182.7 | $\begin{array}{ll}160.8 & 159.2 \\ 180.9 & 179.1\end{array}$ |
| 42 | 8.80978 |  | 8.81 068 | 196 | 1.18932 | 9.99909 | 18 |  |  | $185 \cdot 4$ | 82.7 | 179.1 |
| 43 | 8.81 173 |  | 8.81 264 | 196 | 1.18736 | 9.99909 | 17 |  | 198 | 196 | 194 | 192190 |
| 44 | 8.81367 | 193 | 8.81 459 |  | 1.18541 | 9.99908 | 16 | I | 19.8 | 19.6 | 19. | $19.2 \quad 19.0$ |
| 45 | 8.81560 | 193 | 8.81 653 | 193 | 1.18347 | 9.99907 | 15 | 3 |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{ll}38.4 & 38.0 \\ 57.6 & 57.0\end{array}$ |
| 46 | 8.81 752 | 192 | 8.81 846 | 193 | 1.18154 | 9.99906 | 14 | 3 | 59.4 79.2 | 58.8 78.4 | 58.2 77.6 | $\begin{array}{ll}57.6 & 57.0 \\ 76.8 & 76.0\end{array}$ |
| 47 | 8.81944 | 190 | 8.82038 |  | 1.17962 | 9.99905 | 13 | 5 | 99.0 188.8 | 98.0 117.6 | 97.0 | 96.095 .0 |
| 48 | 8.82134 | 190 | 8.82230 | 190 | $1.17770$ | 9.99904 | 12 | 6 | 18.8 138.6 | 117.6 137.2 | 116.4 135.8 | $\begin{array}{lll}115.2 & 114.0 \\ 134.4 & 133.0\end{array}$ |
| 49 | 8.82324 | 189 | 8.82420 | 190 | 1.17580 | 9.99904 | 11 | 8 | 158.4 | 156.8 | 155.2 | $\begin{array}{lll}153.6 & 152.0\end{array}$ |
| 50 | 8.82513 |  | 8.82610 |  | 1.17390 | 9.99903 | 10 | 9 | 178. | 176.4 | 74.6 | 172.8171 .0 |
| 51 | 8.82701 | 187 | 8.82799 | 188 | 1.17201 | 9.99902 | 9 |  |  |  |  | 182 |
| 52 | 8.82888 | 187 | 8.82987 | 188 | 1.17013 | 9.99901 | 8 | 1 | 18.8 | 18.6 | 18.4 | $\begin{array}{lll}18.2 & 18.1\end{array}$ |
| 53 | 8.83075 | 186 | 8.83175 | 188 | 1.16825 | 9.99900 |  | 2 | 37.6 | 37.2 | 36.8 | $36.4 \quad 36.2$ |
| 54 | 8.83261 | 185 | 8.83361 | 186 | I. 16639 | 9.99899 | 6 | 3 | 56.4 75.2 | 55.8 | 55.2 73.6 | $\begin{array}{lll}54.6 & 54.3 \\ 72.8 & 72.4\end{array}$ |
| 55 | 8.83446 | 184 | 8.83547 | 185 | I. 16453 | 9.99898 | 5 | 4 |  | 74.4 93.0 | 73.6 92.0 | $\begin{array}{ll}72.8 & 72.4 \\ 91.0 & 90.5\end{array}$ |
| 56 | 8.83630 | 183 | 8.83732 | 184 | 1.16268 | 9.99898 | 4 | 7 |  | 111.6 130.2 |  | $\begin{array}{lll}109.2 & 108.6 \\ 127.4 & 126.7\end{array}$ |
| 58 | 8.83813 | 183 | 8.83916 | 184 | 1.16084 | 9.99897 | 3 | 7 | 131.6 150.4 169 | 130.2 148.8 | 128.8 147.2 | $\begin{array}{llll}127.4 & 126.7 \\ 145.6 & 14.8\end{array}$ |
| 58 | 8.83996 8.84177 | 181 | 8.84100 | 182 | I.15900 | 9.99896 | 2 | 9 | 169.2 | 167.4 | 165.6 |  |
| 59 | 8.84177 | 181 | 8.84282 | 182 | 1.15718 | 9.99895 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 60 | 8.84358 |  | -8.84 464 |  | 1.15536 | 9.99894 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | L. Cos. | d. | L. Cot. | d. | L. Tan. | L. Sin. | , |  |  |  | P. P. |  |



|  | L. Sin. | d. | L. Tan. | c.d. | L. Cot. | L. Cos. |  | P. P. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 8.94030 |  | 8.94195 |  | 1.05805 | 9.99834 | 60 |  |  |  |
|  | 8.94174 | 144 | 8.94340 | 145 145 | 1.05660 | 9.99833 | 59 |  | 146 |  |
|  | 8.94 | 144 | 8.94 | 145 | 1.05515 1.05370 | 9.99832 9.99831 | 57 |  | ${ }^{146}$ |  |
|  | 8.94603 | 142 | 8.94773 | 143 144 1 | 1.05227 | 9.99830 | 56 |  | 29.8. |  |
| 6 | 8.94746 <br> 8.9488 | $\begin{aligned} & 143 \\ & 141 \end{aligned}$ | 8.949 8.950 8.95 | 144 | 1.05083 1.04940 20, |  | 54 |  |  |  |
|  | $8.95029$ | 142 | 8.95202 | $1{ }^{142}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1.04798 \\ & 1.04 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9.99828 \\ & 9.99827 \\ & \hline 97 \end{aligned}$ | 54 | ${ }_{8} 88$ |  |  |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & 8.95029 \\ & 8.95 \text { I } 70 \end{aligned}$ | 141 | 8.95 844 | 142 142 | 1.04656 | 9.99 825 | 52 | ${ }_{9}^{8}{ }_{9}^{81}$ | . ${ }_{4} 11$ |  |
|  | 8.95310 | 140 | 8.95486 | 142 | 1.04514 | 9.99824 | 51 |  |  |  |
| 10 | 8.95430 |  | 8.95627 | 140 | 1.04373 | 9.99823 | 50 | 143 | 142 | 140 |
| 12 | 8.955 | 139 | 8.95767 | 141 | 1.04233 | 9.99822 | 49 | 1483 | St. ${ }_{28}$ | 14.0. |
|  |  | 139 |  | 139 | 1.04092 1.03953 1 |  | 48 |  | ${ }_{56}^{46} 8$ |  |
| 13 |  | $13^{8}$ |  | 140 | 1.03953 | 9.99 | 47 |  | $\substack{56.0 \\ 7.0}$ |  |
|  | 8.96005 | 138 | 8 | 138 | 1.03813 1.03675 | 9.99 | 45 |  | -85.2 |  |
|  | 8.96280 | 137 | 8.96464 | 139 | 1.03536 | 9.99816 | 44 |  | 3.6 |  |
| 17 | 8.96417 | 137 | 8.96602 |  | 1.03398 | 9.99 | 43 |  |  |  |
|  | 8.96553 |  | 8.96739 8.96877 8 | 138 | 1.03261 1.03123 | 9.99 |  |  | 138 |  |
| 20 | 8.96825 | 136 | $\frac{8.97013}{8.913}$ | 136 | $\frac{1.03188}{1.02987}$ | $\frac{9.99813}{9.9912}$ | 40 | 13.9 | 137.6 |  |
| 21 | 8.96960 | 135 | 8.97150 | 137 | 1.02850 | 9.99 | 39 |  | 55.2 |  |
|  |  | 135 |  | 135 | 1.027 |  | 38 | $\begin{array}{lll}5 \\ 5 & 69.9 \\ 88.4 \\ 88 .\end{array}$ | - 69.8 |  |
| 23 | 8.97229 | 134 <br> 134 | 8.974 |  | 1.025 |  | 37 |  |  |  |
| 24 | 8.97363 | I33 | 8.97556 8.97691 | 135 | 1.02444 1.02309 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.99 \\ & 9.99 \end{aligned}$ |  | 9125.1 |  |  |
| 26 | 8.97629 | 133 | 8.97825 | 134 | 1.02175 | 9.99804 | 34 |  |  |  |
| 27 | 8.97762 | 133 | 8.97959 |  | 1.02041 | 9.99 803 | 33 |  |  |  |
|  | 8.978 | 132 | 8.98 |  | 1.01908 |  |  |  | . 8 |  |
|  |  | 131 | 8.98225 | ${ }_{133}$ | 1.01 |  | 31 |  | 53.6 |  |
| 30 | $\frac{8.98157}{888}$ | 131 | $\frac{8.9835{ }^{8}}{8.98}$ | 132 | I.01642 | 9.99800 |  | $\begin{array}{llll}5 & 67.5 \\ 5 & 8.5 \\ 8\end{array}$ | 67.0 |  |
| 31 | 8.98 8 | 131 | 8.98 490 | 132 | 1.01510 | 9.99 798 | 28 |  |  |  |
| 33 | 8.98 |  | 8.98753 | 131 | 1.01247 | 9.99796 | 27 | 121 | 107.2 |  |
| 34 | 8.98 | 130 | 8.98 | 131 | 1.01 | 9.99793 | 26 |  |  |  |
|  | 8.98 | 129 | 8.9 | 131 | 1.00 |  |  |  | 130 |  |
| $3^{6}$ |  |  | 8.99 |  |  | 9.99 | 24 | 13.12 | 33.0 |  |
| 37 <br> 38 <br> 38 | 8.99066 | 128 | 8.99 | 130 | 1.007 | 9.9 | 23 |  | 35.0. |  |
| $\left\|\begin{array}{l} 38 \\ 39 \end{array}\right\|$ | ${ }_{8}^{8.99} 1924$ | 128 | 8.994054 | 129 | 1.00 595 | 9.99790 | 21 | ${ }^{4} 5$ | 78.0 |  |
| 40 | 8.99450 | 127 | 8.99662 | 129 | $1.0033^{8}$ | 9.99787 | 20 | coty | \% |  |
| 41 | 8.995 | 127 | 8.99791 | 128 | 1.00 209 | 9.99 | 19 | ${ }_{9} 1178$ | $17 \%$ |  |
| 43 | 8.99 830 | 126 | 8.99919 9.00046 | 127 | 1.099514 | 9.99783 | 17 | 127 | 128 |  |
| 44 | 8.99956 | 12 | 9.00 174 | ${ }_{128}^{128}$ | 0.99826 | 9.99 | 16 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 125 | 9.00 301 | 127 | 0.99699 | 9.99 | 14 |  | 25.8. |  |
|  | 9.00207 | 125 | 9.00 427 | 126 | 0.99573 | 9.99750 | 14 |  |  |  |
| 47 | 9.00 | 124 | 9.00 553 | 126 | 0.99447 | 9.99 778 |  |  | 29.6 |  |
| 4 | 9.00 581 | 125 | 9.00805 |  | O.99 195 | 9.99 | 11 |  | -0. 8 |  |
| 50 | 9.00704 | 124 | $9.0093^{\circ}$ | 125 | 0.99070 | 9.99775 | 10 |  |  |  |
| 51 | 9.00828 |  | 9.01 055 | 122 | 0.98 | 9.99 773 |  | 123 | 122 |  |
|  | 9.00 951 |  | 9.01 179 | 124 | 0.98821 | 9.99 |  |  | 12.2 |  |
| 53 | 9.01074 | $\begin{aligned} & 123 \\ & 122 \end{aligned}$ | 9.01 303 | $\begin{aligned} & 124 \\ & 124 \end{aligned}$ | 0.98697 | 9.99771 | 7 |  | 24.6. |  |
| 54 55 | 9.01 196 | 122 | 9.01427 | 123 | 0.98 573 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.99769 \\ & 0.99768 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | 58.9 |  |
| 56 | 9.01440 | 122 | 9.01 673 | 123 | 0.98327 | 9.99767 | 4 |  | 73.2 |  |
| 57 | 9.01 5 |  | 9.01796 | 122 | 0.98204 | 9.99 | 3 |  |  |  |
| 5 | 9.01682 | 121 | ${ }^{9.01918} 9$ | 122 | 0.98082 | 9.99764 |  |  |  |  |
| 60 | 9.01923 |  | 9.02162 |  | 0.97838 | 9.99761 | 0 |  |  |  |
|  | L. Cos. | d. | L. Cot. | c. ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | L. T | L. Sin. |  |  | P. P |  |



| , | L. Sin. | d. | L. Tan. | c.d. | L. Cot. | L. Cos. |  |  |  | P. P. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 9.08589 |  | 9.08914 | 105 | 0.91086 | 9.99675 | 60 | 105 |  | 104 | 103 |
| 1 | 9.08692 | 103 | 9.09019 |  | 0.90981 | 9.99674 | 59 |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 9.08795 | $\begin{aligned} & 103 \\ & 102 \end{aligned}$ | 9.09123 | $\begin{aligned} & 104 \\ & 104 \end{aligned}$ | 0.90877 | 9.99672 | 58 |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 9.08897 | 102 | 9.09227 | $103$ | 0.90773 | 9.99670 | 57 | 1 | 10.5 | 10.4 | 10.3 |
| 4 | 9.08999 |  | 9.09330 |  | 0.90670 | 9.99669 | 56 | 2 | 21.0 | 20.8 | 20.6 |
| 5 | 9.09101 | 102 | 9.09434 | $\begin{aligned} & 104 \\ & 103 \end{aligned}$ | 0.90566 | 9.99667 | 55 | 3 | 31.5 | 31.2 | 30.9 |
| 6 | 9.09202 |  | 9.09537 |  | 0.90463 | 9.99666 | 54 | 4 | 42.0 | 41.6 | 41.2 |
| 7 | 9.09304 | 102 | 9.09640 | $\begin{aligned} & 103 \\ & 102 \end{aligned}$ | 0.90360 | 9.99664 | 53 | 6 | 52.5 | 52.0 | 51.5 |
| 8 | 9.09403 | 101 | 9.09742 | $\begin{aligned} & 103 \\ & 102 \end{aligned}$ | 0.90258 | 9.99663 | 52 | 6 | 63.0 | 62.4 | 61.8 |
| 9 | 9.09506 |  | 9.09845 |  | 0.90155 | 9.99661 | 51 | 7 | 73.5 84.0 | 72.8 | 72.1 |
| 10 | 9.09606 | 101 | 9.09947 | 102 | 0.90053 | 9.99659 | 50 | 9 |  | . 2 | 2.4 |
| 1 | 9.09707 | 100 | 9.10049 | 101 | 0.89951 | 9.99658 | 49 |  |  |  |  |
| 12 | 9.09807 | 100 | 9.10150 | 102 | 0.89850 | 9.99656 | 48 | 102 |  | 101 | 99 |
| 13 | 9.09907 | 100 | 9.10252 | 101 | 0.89748 | 9.99655 | 47 |  |  |  |  |
| 14 | 9.10006 | 100 | 9.10353 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { IOI } \\ & \text { IOI } \end{aligned}$ | 0.89647 | 9.99653 | 46 |  |  |  |  |
| 15 | 9.10106 |  | 9.10454 9.10555 |  | 0.89546 | 9.9965 I | 45 | 1 | 10.2 | 10.1 | 9.9 |
| 16 | 9.10205 | $99$ | 9.10553 | IoI | 0.89445 | 9.99650 | 44 | 2 | 20.4 | 20.2 | 19.8 |
| 17 | 9.10304 | $\begin{aligned} & 99 \\ & 98 \end{aligned}$ | 9.10 656 | $\begin{aligned} & 100 \\ & 100 \\ & 100 \\ & 100 \end{aligned}$ | 0.89344 | 9.99648 | 43 | 3 | 30.6 | 30.3 | 29.7 |
| 18 | 9.10402 | $\begin{aligned} & 99 \\ & 98 \end{aligned}$ | 9.10756 |  | 0. 89244 | 9.99647 | 42 | 4 | 40.8 | 40.4 | 39.6 |
| 19 | 9.10501 |  | 9.10856 |  | 0.89144 | 9.99645 | 41 | 5 | 51.0 61.2 | 50.5 60.6 | 49.5 |
| 20 | 9.10599 | 98 | 9.10956 |  | 0.89044 | 9.99643 | 40 | 6 | 61.2 71.4 | 60.6 70.7 | 59.4 69.3 |
| 21 | 9.10697 | 98 | 9.11056 |  | 0.88944 | 9.99642 | 39 | 7 8 | 71.4 81.6 | 70.7 80.8 | 69.3 79.2 |
| 22 | 9.10 795 | 98 | 9.11 155 | $\begin{aligned} & 99 \\ & 99 \end{aligned}$ | 0.88845 | 9.99640 | 38 | 9 | 91.8 | 90.9 | 89.1 |
| 23 | 9.10893 | 97 | 9.11 254 | $99$ | 0.88746 | 9.99638 | 37 |  |  |  |  |
| 24 | 9.10990 | 97 | 9.11353 | 99 | 0.88647 | 9.99637 | 36 |  |  |  |  |
| 25 | 9.111087 | 97 | 9.11 452 | 99 | 0.88 548 | 9.99635 | 35 |  |  |  |  |
| 26 | 9.11184 | 97 | 9.11551 | $\begin{aligned} & 99 \\ & 98 \end{aligned}$ | 0.88449 | 9.99633 | 34 |  | 98 | 97 | 96 |
| 27 | 9.11281 | 96 | 9.11649 |  | 0.88351 | 9.99632 | 33 | 1 | 9.8 | 9.7 | 9.6 |
| 28 | 9.11377 | 97 | 9.11 747 | 98 | 0.88253 | 9.99630 | 32 | 2 | 19.6 | 19.4 | 19.2 |
| 29 | 9.11 474 | $96$ | 9.11845 | 98 | 0.88 155 | 9.99629 | 31 | 3 | 29.4 | 29.1 | 28.8 |
| 30 | 9.11570 |  | 9.11943 |  | 0.88057 | 9.99627 | 30 | 4 | 39.2 | 38.8 | 38.4 |
| 31 | 9.11666 | $96$ | 9.12040 | $97$ | 0.87960 | 9.99625 | 29 | 5 | 49.0 58.8 | 48.5 58.2 | 48.0 57.6 |
| 32 | $9.11{ }^{7} 71$ | $\begin{aligned} & 95 \\ & 96 \end{aligned}$ | 9.12138 | 98 | 0.87862 | 9.99624 | 28 | 7 | 68.6 | 67.9 | 67.2 |
| 33 | 9.11857 | $96$ | $9.1223 \overline{5}$ | 97 | 0.87765 | 9.99622 | 27 | 8 | 78.4 | 77.6 | 76.8 |
| 34 | 9.11952 | 95 | 9.12332 | $\begin{aligned} & 97 \\ & 96 \end{aligned}$ | 0.87668 | 9.99620 | 26 | 9 | 88.2 | 87.3 | 86.4 |
| 35 | 9.12047 | $\begin{aligned} & 95 \\ & 95 \end{aligned}$ | 9.12428 | $97$ | 0.87572 | 9.99618 | 25 |  |  |  |  |
| 36 | 9.12142 | $95$ | 9.12525 |  | 0.87475 | 9.99617 | 24 |  |  |  |  |
| 37 | 9.12236 | 95 | 9.12621 | 96 | 0.87379 | 9.99615 | 23 |  | 95 | 94 | 93 |
| 38 | 9.12331 | 9494 | 9.12717 |  | 0.87283 | 9.99613 | 22 |  |  |  | 93 |
| 39 | 9.1242 万 |  | 9.12813 |  | 0.87187 | 9.99612 | 21 | 2 | 9.5 19.0 | 9.4 18.8 | 9.3 |
| 40 | 9.12519 |  | 9.12909 | 96 | 0.87091 | 9.99610 | 20 | 2 | 19.0 28.5 | 18.8 28.2 | 18.6 27.9 |
| 41 | 9.12612 | 93 | 9.13004 | 95 | 0.86996 | 9.99608 | 19 | 4 | 38.0 | 37.6 | 27.9 37.2 |
| 42 | 9.12706 | 94 | 9.13099 9.13194 | $\begin{aligned} & 95 \\ & 95 \end{aligned}$ | 0.86901 | 9.99607 | 18 | 5 | 38.0 47.5 | 47.0 | 46.5 |
| 43 | 9.12799 | $93$ | 9.13194 |  | 0.86806 | 9.99605 | 17 | 6 | 57.0 | 56.4 | 55.8 |
| 44 | 9.12892 | 93 | 9.13289 9.13384 | 95 | 0.86711 0.86616 | 9.99603 | 16 | 7 | 66.5 | 65.8 | 65.1 |
| 45 | 9.12985 9.13078 | 93 | 9.13384 9.13478 | $\begin{aligned} & 95 \\ & 94 \end{aligned}$ | 0.86616 <br> 0.86522 | 9.99601 | 15 | 8 | 76.0 | 75.2 | 74.4 |
| 46 | 9.13078 |  | 9.13478 |  |  | 9.99600 | 14 | 9 | $85 \cdot 5$ | 84.6 | 83.7 |
| 47 48 | 9.13171 | 93 | 9.13573 | 95 | 0.86427 | 9.99598 | 13 |  |  |  |  |
| 48 | 9.13263 9.13355 | $\begin{aligned} & 92 \\ & 92 \end{aligned}$ | 9.13667 9.13761 | $94$ | 0.86 333 | 9.99596 | 12 |  |  |  |  |
| 49 | 9.13355 | $92$ | $\frac{9.13761}{9.13854}$ |  | 0.86239 | 9.99595 | 11 |  | 92 | 91 | 90 |
| 50 | 9.13447 |  | 9.13854 | 93 | 0.86146 | 9.99593 | 10 |  |  |  | . 0 |
| 51 | 9.13539 | 92 | 9.13948 | 94 | 0.86052 | 9.99591 | 8 | 2 | 18.4 | 18.2 | 18.0 |
| 52 | 9.13630 | $\begin{aligned} & 91 \\ & 92 \end{aligned}$ | 9.14041 9.14134 | $\begin{aligned} & 93 \\ & 93 \end{aligned}$ | 0.85959 | 9.99589 9.9958 | 8 | 3 | 27.6 | 27.3 | 27.0 |
| 53 | 9.13722 | $\begin{aligned} & 92 \\ & 91 \end{aligned}$ | 9.14134 | 93 | 0.85866 | 9.99588 | 7 | 4 | 36.8 | 36.4 | 36.0 |
| 54 | 9.13813 | $\begin{aligned} & 91 \\ & 91 \end{aligned}$ | 9.14227 | 93 | 0.85773 | 9.99586 | 6 | 5 | 46.0 | $45 \cdot 5$ | 45.0 |
| 55 | 9.13904 | 90 | 9.14320 9.14412 | 92 | 0.85680 0.85588 | 9.99584 9.99582 | 5 | 6 | 55.2 | 54.6 | 54.0 |
| 56 | 9.13994 |  | 9.14412 | 92 | 0.85588 | $9.995^{82}$ | 4 | 8 | 64.4 | 63.7 | 63.0 |
| 57 | 9.14085 | 91 | 9.14504 | 92 | 0.85496 | 9.99581 | 3 | 8 | 73.6 | 72.8 | 72.0 |
| 58 | 9.14 175 | $\begin{aligned} & 90 \\ & 91 \end{aligned}$ | 9.14597 9.14688 | $\begin{aligned} & 93 \\ & 91 \\ & 92 \end{aligned}$ | 0. 85403 | 9.99579 | 2 | 9 |  | 81.9 | 81.0 |
| 59 | 9.14266 | 90 | 9.14688 |  | 0.85312 | 9.99577 | 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 60 | 9.14356 |  | 9.14780 |  | 0.85220 | 9.99575 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
|  | L. Cos. | d. | L. Cot. | c.d. | L. Tan. | L. Sin. | , |  |  | P. P. |  |



| , | L. Sin. | d. | L. Tan. | c.d. | L. Cot. | L. Cos. |  |  |  | P. P. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 9.19 433 | 80 | 9.1997 I | 82 | 0.80029 | 9.99462 | 60 |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 9.19513 |  | 9.20 053 | 81 | 0.79947 | 9.99460 | 59 |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9.19592 | 89 | 9.20134 | 82 | 0. 79866 | 9.99458 | 58 |  | 82 | 81 | 80 |
| 3 | 9.19672 | 79 | 9.20216 | 81 | 0.79784 | 9.99456 | 57 | 1 | 8.2 | 8.1 | 8.0 |
| 4 | 9.19751 | 79 | 9. 20297 | 81 | 0.79703 | 9.99454 | 56 | 2 | 16.4 | 16.2 | 16.0 |
| 5 | 9.19830 | 79 | 9.20378 | 81 | 0.79622 | 9.99452 | 55 | 3 | 24.6 | 24.3 | 24.0 |
|  | 9.19909 | 79 | 9.20459 | 8 I | 0.79541 | 9.99450 | 54 | 4 | 32.8 | 32.4 | 32.0 |
| 7 | 9.19988 | 79 | 9.20540 | 81 | 0.79460 | 9.99448 | 53 | 5 | 41.0 | 40.5 | 40.0 |
|  | 9.20067 | 79 | 9.20 621 | 80 | 0.79379 | 9.99446 | 52 |  | 49.2 | 48.6 | 48.0 |
| 9 | 9.20145 | 78 | 9.20701 | 81 | 0.79299 | 9.99444 | 51 | 8 | 57.4 65.6 | 56.7 64.8 | 56.0 64.0 |
| 10 | 9.20223 | 79 | 9.20782 | 80 | 0.79218 | 9.99442 | 50 | 9 |  | 72.9 | 72.0 |
| 11 | 9.20302 | 78 | 9.20862 9.20942 | 80 | 0.79138 | 9.99440 | 49 |  |  |  |  |
| 12 | 9.20380 <br> 9.20458 <br> 20 | 78 | 9.20 942 9.21022 | 80 | 0.79058 0.78978 | 9.99438 9.99436 | 48 |  | 79 | 8 | 7 |
| 14 | 9.20535 | 77 | 9.21102 | 80 | 0.78898 | 9.99434 | 46 |  |  | 7.8 | 7.7 |
| 15 | 9.20613 | 78 | 9.21182 | 80 | 0.78818 | 9.99432 | 45 | 2 | 15.8 | 15.6 | 15.4 15 |
| 16 | 9.20691 | 78 | 9.21261 | 79 | 0.78739 | 9.99429 | 44 | 3 | 23.7 | 23.4 | 23.1 |
| 17 | 9.20768 | 77 | 9.21341 | 80 | 0.78659 | 9.99427 | 43 | 4 | 31.6 | 31.2 | 30.8 |
| 18 | 9.20845 | 77 | 9.21420 | 79 | 0.78580 | 9.99425 | 42 | 5 | 39.5 | 39.0 | 38.5 |
| 19 | 9.20922 | 77 | 9.21 499 |  | 0.78501 | 9.99423 | 41 | 6 | 47.4 | 46.8 | 46.2 |
| 20 | 9.20999 | 77 | 9.21 578 | 79 | 0.78422 | 9.99421 | 40 | 8 |  | 54.6 | 53.9 6.6 |
| 21 | 9.21076 | 17 | 9.21657 | 79 | 0.78343 | 9.99419 | 39 | 9 |  | 70.2 | 69.3 |
| 22 | 9.21153 | 77 | 9.21736 | 79 | 0.78264 | 9.99417 | 38 | 9 |  |  | 9.3 |
| 23 | 9.21229 | 76 | 9.21814 | 78 | 0.78186 | 9.99415 | 37 |  |  |  |  |
| 24 | 9.21306 | 77 | 9.21893 | 79 | 0.78107 | 9.99413 | 36 |  | 76 | 75 | 74 |
| 25 | 9.21382 | 76 | 9.21971 | 78 | 0.78029 | 9.99411 | 35 | 1 | 7.6 | 7.5 | 7.4 |
| 26 | $9.2145^{8}$ | 76 | 9.22049 |  | 0.77951 | 9.99409 | 34 | 2 | 15.2 | 15.0 | 14.8 |
| 27 | 9.21534 | 76 | 9.22 127 | 78 | 0.77873 | 9.99407 | 33 | 3 | 22.8 | 22.5 | 22.2 |
| 28 | 9.21610 | 76 | 9.22205 | 78 | 0.77795 | 9.99404 | 32 | 4 |  | 30.0 | 29.6 |
| 29 | 9.21685 | 75 | 9.22283 | 78 | 0.77717 | 9.99402 | 31 | 5 |  | 37.5 | 37.0 |
| 30 | 9.21761 |  | 9.22361 |  | 0.77639 | 9.99400 | 30 |  |  | 52.5 | ${ }_{51.8}$ |
| 31 | 9.21836 | 75 | 9.22 438 | 78 | 0.77562 | 9.99 398 | 29 | 8 |  | 60.0 | 59.2 |
| 32 | 9.21912 | 75 | 9.22516 9.22593 |  | 0.77484 | 9.99396 |  |  |  | 67.5 | 66.6 |
| 33 | 9.21987 | 75 | 9.22593 | 77 | 0.77407 | 9.99394 | 27 |  |  |  |  |
| 34 | 9.22062 | 75 75 | 9.22670 | 77 | 0.77330 | 9.99392 | 26 |  |  |  |  |
| 35 | 9.22137 | 75 74 | 9.22747 | 77 | 0.77253 | 9.99390 | 25 |  | 73 | 72 | 71 |
| 36 | 9.22211 | 74 | 9.22824 | 77 | 0.77176 | 9.99388 | 24 | 1 | 7.3 | 7.2 | 7.1 |
| 37 | 9.22286 | 75 | 9.22901 | 77 | 0.77099 | 9.99385 | 23 | 2 | 14.6 | 14.4 | 14.2 |
| 38 | 9.22361 | 75 | 9.22977 | 76 | 0.77023 | 9.99383 | 22 | 3 | 21.9 | 21.6 | ${ }^{21.3}$ |
| 39 | 9.22435 | 74 | 9.23054 | 77 | 0.76946 | 9.99381 | 21 | 4 | 29.2 | 28.8 | 28.4 |
| 40 | 9.22509 | 74 | 9.23130 | 76 | 0.76870 | 9.99379 | 20 | 5 | 36.5 43.8 | 36.0 43.2 | $\begin{aligned} & 35 \cdot 5 \\ & 42.6 \end{aligned}$ |
| 41 | 9.22583 | 74 | 9.23206 |  | 0.76794 | 9.99377 | 19 | 7 |  | 50.4 |  |
| 42 | 9.22657 | 74 | 9.23283 |  | 0.76717 | 9.99375 | 18 | 8 |  | 57.6 | 56.8 |
| 43 | 9.22731 | 74 | 9.23359 |  | 0.76641 | 9.99372 | 17 | 9 |  | 64.8 | 63.9 |
| 44 | 9.22805 | 73 | 9.23435 | 75 | 0.76565 | 9.99370 | 16 |  |  |  |  |
| 45 | 9.22878 | 73 74 | 9.23510 | 75 | 0.76490 | 9.99368 | 15 |  |  |  |  |
| 46 | 9.22952 | 74 | $9.235^{86}$ | 76 | 0.76414 | 9.99366 | 14 |  |  |  |  |
| 47 | 9.23025 | 73 | 9.23661 | 75 76 | 0.76339 | 9.99364 | 13 |  |  |  | 7 |
| 48 | 9.23098 | 73 | 9.23737 | 76 | 0.76263 | 9.99362 | 12 |  | 79 | 78 | 77 |
| 49 | 9.23171 | 73 | 9.23812 | 75 | 0.76188 | 9.99359 | 11 |  | 3.2 | 13.0 | 12.8 |
| 50 | 9.23244 | 73 | 9.23887 |  | 0.76113 | 9.99357 | 10 |  |  | 39.0 | 38.5 |
| 51 | 9.23317 | 73 | 9.23962 | 75 | 0.76038 | 9.99355 | 9 |  |  | 65.0 | 64.2 |
| 52 | 9.23390 | 73 | 9.24037 | 75 | 0.75963 | 9.99353 | 8 |  |  |  |  |
| 53 | 9.23462 | 72 | 9.24112 | 75 74 | 0.75888 | 9.99351 | 7 |  | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 54 | 9.23535 | 73 | 9.24186 | 74 | 0.75814 | 9.99348 | 6 |  | 76 | 75 | 74 |
| 55 | 9.23607 | 72 | 9.24261 | 75 74 | 0.75739 | 9.99346 | 5 |  |  |  |  |
| 56 | 9.23679 | 72 | 9.24335 | 74 | 0.75665 | 9.99344 | 4 |  |  | 12.5 | 12.3 |
| 57 | 9.23752 |  | 9.24410 |  | 0.75590 | 9.99342 |  |  |  | 37.5 62.5 | 37.0 61.7 |
| 58 | 9.23823 9.23895 9.23967 | 72 | 9.24484 9.24558 | 74 74 74 | 0.75516 0.75442 0.7538 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.99340 \\ & 9.99337 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 2 |  |  | 62.5 | 61.7 |
| 60 | 9.23967 | 72 | 9.24632 | 74 | 0.75368 | 9.99335 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
|  | L. Cos. | d. | L. Cot. | c.d. | L. Tan. | L. Sin. | , |  |  | P. P. |  |


|  | L. Sin. | d. | L. Tan. | c. d. | , | L. Cos. | d. |  | P. P. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 9.23967 |  | 9.24632 | 74 | 0.75368 | 9.99335 |  | 60 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.24039 |  | 9.2 | $73$ | 0.7 | 9.99333 |  | 59 |  |  |  |
| 2 | 9.24110 | 71 | 9.24779 |  | 0.75221 | $9.9933 \mathrm{3I}$ | 2 | 58 |  |  | $73 \quad 72$ |
| 3 | 9.24181 | 72 | 9.24853 |  | 0.75147 | 9.99328 | 2 | 57 | 1 |  | 37.2 |
| 4 | 9.24253 | 71 | 9.24926 |  | 0.75074 | 9.9932 | 2 | 56 | 2 | 14.8 | 14.614 .4 |
| 5 | 9.24324 | 71 | 9.25000 | 74 | 0.75000 | 9.99324 | 2 | 55 | 3 | 22.2 | 21.921 .6 |
| 6 | $9.2439 \overline{5}$ | 71 | 9.25073 |  | 0.74927 | 9.99322 |  | 54 | 4 | 29.629 | 29.228 .8 |
| 7 | 9.24466 | 70 | 9.25146 | 73 | 0.74854 | 9.99319 | 3 | 53 | 5 | 37.0 | 36.536 .0 |
| 8 | 9.24536 | 71 | 9.25219 | 73 | 0.74781 | 9.99317 | 2 | 52 | 6 | 44.4 4.8 | 43.8 43.2 |
| 9 | 9.24607 | 71 | 9.25292 | $\begin{aligned} & 73 \\ & 72 \end{aligned}$ | 0.74708 | 9.99315 | 2 | 51 | 7 | 51.85 59.258 | $\begin{array}{lll}\text { I.1. } & 50.4 \\ 8.4 & 57.6\end{array}$ |
| 10 | 9.24677 | 71 | 9.25365 |  | 0.74635 | 9.99313 | 3 | 50 |  | 59.2 6 | $\begin{array}{lll}8.4 & 57.0 \\ 5.7 & 64.8\end{array}$ |
| 11 | 9.24 | 70 | 9.25437 |  | 0.74563 | 9.99310 | 2 | 49 |  |  |  |
| 12 | 9.24818 | 70 | 9.25510 |  | 0.74490 | 9.99308 | 2 | 48 |  |  | $70 \quad 69$ |
| 13 | 9.24888 | 70 | $9.255^{82}$ |  | 0.74418 | 9.99306 | 2 | 47 |  |  | $70 \quad 60$ |
| 14 | 9.24 .958 | 70 | 9.25655 | $\begin{aligned} & 73 \\ & 72 \end{aligned}$ | 0.74345 | 9.99304 | 3 | 46 |  | 71 | $\begin{array}{lll}7.0 & 6.9\end{array}$ |
| 15 | 9.25028 | 70 | 9.25727 |  | 0.74273 | 9.99301 | 2 | 45 |  | 14.21 | $\begin{array}{lll}4.0 & 13.8\end{array}$ |
| 16 | 9.250 | 70 | 9.25799 |  | 0.74201 | 9.99299 | 2 | 44 |  | 21.32 | 21.0 20.7 |
| 17 | 9.25168 | 69 | 9.25871 |  | 0.74129 | 9.99297 | 2 | 43 |  | 28.4 28.5 | $\begin{array}{llll}28.0 & 27.6 \\ 35.0 & 34.5\end{array}$ |
| 18 | 9.25237 |  | 9.25943 |  | 0.74057 | 9.99294 | 3 2 2 | 42 | 6 | 35.5 42.6 | $\begin{array}{lll}35.0 & 34.5 \\ 42.0 & 41.4\end{array}$ |
| 19 | 9.25307 | 69 | 9.26015 |  | 0.739 | 9.99292 | 2 | 41 |  | 49.74 | l2.0 41.4 <br> 49.0  <br> 8.3  |
| 20 | 9.25376 | 69 | 9.26086 |  | 0.73914 | 9.99290 | 2 | 40 | 8 | 56.85 | 56.0 55.2 |
| 21 | 9.25445 |  | 9.26158 |  | 0.73842 | 9.99 |  | 39 | 9 | 63.963 | 63.062 .1 |
| 22 | 9.25514 | 69 | 9.26229 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.73771 \\ & 0.73699 \end{aligned}$ | 9.99285 | 3 2 2 | 38 |  | 6.9 | . |
| 23 | 9.25583 | 69 | 9.26301 |  |  | 9.99283 | 2 | 37 |  | 68 | $67 \quad 66$ |
| 24 | 9.25652 | 69 | 9.26372 |  | 0.73.628 | 9.99 281 |  | 36 |  |  |  |
| 25 | 9.25721 | 69 | 9.26443 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.73557 \\ & 0.73486 \end{aligned}$ | 9.99278 | 3 2 2 | 35 |  | 1 | $\begin{array}{rrr}6.7 & 6.6 \\ 3.4 & 13.2\end{array}$ |
| 26 | 9.25790 | 68 | 9.26514 |  |  | 9.99276 | 2 | 34 |  | 13.61 20.4 20.4 | 3.4 13.2 <br> 0.1 19.8 |
| 27 | 9. 25858 | 69 | 9. 26585 | 717171 | 0.73415 | 9.99274 | 3 | 33 |  | 20.4 27.2 26.8 | 26.8 26.4 |
| 28 | 9.25927 | 68 | 9.26655 |  | 0.73345 | 9.99271 | 3 2 2 | 32 |  | 34.0 | $\begin{array}{ll}33.5 & 33.0\end{array}$ |
| 29 | 9.25995 | 68 | 9.26726 | $\begin{aligned} & 71 \\ & 71 \end{aligned}$ | 0.73274 | 9.99269 | 2 | 31 | 6 | 40.8 | 40.2 39.6 |
| 30 | 9.26063 | 68 | 9.26 |  | 0.73203 | 9.99267 | 3 | 30 |  | 47.6 | 46.946 .2 |
| 31 | $9.26 \mathrm{I}^{1}$ | 68 | 9.26867 | 70 | 0.73133 | 9.99264 | 2 | 29 | 8 | 54.4 | 53.652 .8 |
| 32 | 9.26199 | 68 | 9.26937 | $\begin{aligned} & 71 \\ & 70 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.73063 \\ & 0.72992 \end{aligned}$ | 9.99262 | 2 | 28 | 9 | 1.26 | 60.359 .4 |
| 33 | 9.26267 | 68 | 9.27 |  |  | 9,99 |  | 27 |  |  |  |
| 34 | 9.26335 | 68 | 9.27078 |  | 0.72922 | 9.99257 | 3 2 2 | 26 |  | 65 | 3 |
| 35 | 9.26403 | 67 | 9.27148 | $\begin{aligned} & 70 \\ & 70 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.72852 \\ & 0.72782 \end{aligned}$ | 9.99255 | 3 | 25 |  |  |  |
| 36 | 9.26470 | 68 | 9.27218 |  |  | 9.99252 | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \\ & 2 \end{aligned}$ | 24 |  | 13.0 | 0.3 0.6 |
| 37 | 9.26538 | 67 | 9.27288 |  | 0.72712 | $9.99250$ | 2 | 23 |  | 19.5 | 0.9 |
| 38 | 9.26605 | 67 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.27357 \\ & 9.27427 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 79 \\ & 70 \\ & 69 \end{aligned}$ | 0.72643 0.72573 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.99248 \\ & 9.99245 \end{aligned}$ | 3 | 22 |  | 26.0 | 1. 2 |
| 40 | 9.26 | 67 | 9.27496 | 70 | 0.72504 | 9.99243 | 2 | 20 |  | 32.5 |  |
| 41 | 9.26 So | 67 | 9.27566 | $\begin{aligned} & 69 \\ & 69 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.72434 \\ & 0.72365 \end{aligned}$ | 9.99 241 |  | 19 |  | 45.5 | 2.1 |
| 42 | 9.26873 |  | 9.27635 |  |  | 9.99238 | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \\ & 2 \end{aligned}$ | 18 |  | 52.0 |  |
| 43 | 9.2 | 67 | 9. |  | 0.72296 | 9.99236 |  | 17 | $9 \begin{array}{lll}58.5 & 2.7\end{array}$ |  |  |
| 44 | 9.27007 | 66 | 9.27773 | $\begin{aligned} & 69 \\ & 69 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.72227 \\ & 0.72158 \end{aligned}$ | 9.99233 | 2 | 16 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.27073 |  | 9.27842 |  |  | 9.99231 | 2 | 15 |  |  |  |
| 46 | 9.27140 | 66 | 9.27911 |  | 0.72089 | 9.99229 |  | 14 |  |  | 3 3 3 |
| 47 | 9.27 206 | 67 | 9.27980 9.28049 |  | 0.72020 | $9.99226$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \\ & 2 \end{aligned}$ | 13 |  | 74 | $\overline{73} \quad \overline{72}$ |
| 48 | 9.27273 9.27339 | 66 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.28 \mathrm{O} 49 \\ & 9.28 \mathrm{In}^{2} \end{aligned}$ | 68 | $\begin{array}{r} 0.71951 \\ 0.71883 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9.99224 \\ & 9.99221 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 2 3 2 2 | 12 |  | 2.312 | 12.212 .0 |
| 50 | 9.27405 | 66 | 9.28186 | 68 | 0.71814 | 9.99219 | 2 | 10 |  | 7 | 536.0 |
| 51 | 9.2747 I | 66 | 9.28254 | $\begin{aligned} & 69 \\ & 68 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.71746 \\ & 0.71677 \end{aligned}$ | 9.99217 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 52 | 9.27537 |  | 9.28323 |  |  | 9.99214 |  | 8 |  |  |  |
| 53 | 9.27602 | $\begin{aligned} & 65 \\ & 66 \end{aligned}$ | 9.28391 | $\begin{aligned} & 68 \\ & 68 \end{aligned}$ | 0.71609 | 9.99212 |  | 7 |  | 3 | $3 \quad 3$ |
| 54 | 9.27668 | $\begin{aligned} & 66 \\ & 66 \end{aligned}$ | 9.28459 | $\begin{aligned} & 68 \\ & 68 \end{aligned}$ | 0.71 541 |  | 2 | 6 |  | 70 | 6968 |
| 55 56 | 9.27734 9.27799 | 65 | $9.28527$ $9.28595$ |  | 0.71473 <br> 0.71405 | $9.99204$ | $3$ | $\begin{aligned} & 5 \\ & 4 \end{aligned}$ | 0 11.8 11.7 11.5 11.3 <br> I 35.5 35.0 34.5 34.0 $2 \begin{array}{lll}35.5 & 35.0 & 34.5 \\ 59.2 & 58.3 & 57.5 \\ 56.7\end{array}$ |  |  |
| 56 | 9.27799 |  | 9.28595 | 67 |  |  |  | $4$ |  |  |  |
| 57 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.27864 \\ & 0.27030 \end{aligned}$ | 66 | 9.28662 9.28730 | 68 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.71338 \\ & 0.71270 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9.99202 \\ & 0.99200 \end{aligned}$ |  | 3 2 |  |  |  |
| 59 | 9.27995 | 65 | 9.28798 | 67 | $\bigcirc$ | 999197 | 3 <br> 2 | 1 |  |  |  |
| 60 | 9.28 o60 |  | 9.28865 |  | 0.71135 | $9.9919 \overline{5}$ |  | 0 |  |  |  |
|  | L. Cos. | d. | L. Cot. | c. | L. Tan | L. Sin | d. |  |  | P. P. |  |



|  | L. Sin. | d. | L. | d | L. Cot |  |  |  | P. P |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 9.31788 |  | 9.32747 | 63 | 0.67253 | 9.99040 | 2 | 60 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.3184 | 60 | 9.328 | 62 | 0.67190 | 9.99038 |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9.3190 9.3196 |  | 9.32872 9.32933 |  | 0.67128 0.67067 | $9.99035$ $0.99032$ | 3 |  |  |  | $62 \quad 61$ |
| 3 | 9.3196 | 59 | 9.32933 | 62 | 0.67067 | $9.9903^{2}$ | 3 2 2 | 57 |  | 12.6 | 6.26 .1 |
|  | 9.32025 | 59 | 9.329 | 62 | $0.6700 \overline{5}$ | $9.99030$ |  | 56 |  | 12.61 | $\begin{array}{lll}12.4 & 12.2 \\ 18.6 & 18.3\end{array}$ |
| 5 | 9.32084 9.32143 | 59 | 9.33057 9.33119 | 62 | 0.66943 0.66881 | $9.99027$ | 3 | 55 |  | 18.918 | 18.6 <br> 18.3 <br> 2.8 <br> 18.4 |
|  | 9.32143 |  | 9.33119 | 61 | 0.66881 | 9.99024 | 2 | 54 |  | 25.22 | 24.8 24.4 <br> 1.0  |
|  | 9.3220 |  | - | 62 | 0.66820 | $9.99022$ | 3 | 53 |  | 31.5 37.8 3 | $\begin{array}{ll}31.0 & 30.5 \\ 37.2 & 36.6\end{array}$ |
|  | 9.32261 9.32319 | 59 | 9.33242 9.33303 | 61 | 0.66758 0.66697 | 9.99019 9.99016 | 3 | 52 51 |  | 37.8 4 | 37.2 <br> 43.4 <br> 42.6 <br> 1.7 |
|  | 9.32 319 |  | 9.33303 | 62 | 0.66697 | 9.99 O16 | 3 | 51 |  | 44.1 50.4 49 | 43.442 .7 49.648 .8 |
| 10 | 9.32 378 |  | 9.33 | 61 | 0.66635 | O13 | 2 | 50 |  |  | 8 |
| 11 | 9.32 |  | 9.33 | 61 | 0.66 | 9.99011 |  | 49 |  |  |  |
| 12 | 9.32495 | 58 | 9.334 | 61 | 0.66 | 0.9 | 3 | 48 |  | 60 | 59 |
| 13 | 9.32 553 |  | 9.335 | 61 |  | 9.9 | 3 <br> 3 | 47 |  |  |  |
| 14 | 9.32 61 |  | 9.336 | 61 | . 66391 | 9.99002 | 3 2 2 | 46 |  |  | 5.9 |
| 15 | 9.32670 |  | 9.33 6 | 61 | 0.66 | 9.99000 | 3 | 45 |  | 12.0 | 11.8 |
| 16 | 9.32728 | 58 | 9.337 | 61 |  | 9.9 | 3 | 44 |  | 18.0 | 17.7 23 |
| 17 | 9.3278 |  |  | 61 | 0.66 | 9.98994 | 3 3 3 | 43 |  | 24.0 30.0 | 23.6 29.5 |
|  | 9.32.84 |  | $\begin{array}{r} 9.33853 \\ 9.33913 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | 60 | 0.66147 0.66087 | $9.98991$ | 3 2 2 | 42 |  | 30.0 36.0 | 29.5 35.4 |
| 19 | 9.32902 |  |  |  | $\frac{0.66087}{0.66026}$ | 9.98989 | 3 | 41 |  | 36.0 | 35.4 41.3 |
| 20 | 9.32960 |  | 9.33974 | 60 | 0.66026 | 9.98986 | 3 | 40 |  | 48.0 | 47.2 |
| 21 | 9.33 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 9.34034 \\ & 9.34095 \end{aligned}$ | 6160 | 0.65 |  |  | 39 |  | 54.0 | 53.1 |
| 22 | 9.33 o |  |  |  | - 6.65 | 9.9 | 2 | 38 |  |  |  |
| 23 | 9.33 | 57 | $9.34 \text { I } 55$ | $\begin{aligned} & 60 \\ & 60 \end{aligned}$ | 0.65 | 9.9 | 3 | 37 |  | 58 |  |
| 24 | 9.33 | 57 | 9.34215 |  | 0.65785 | 9.9 |  | 36 |  |  |  |
| 25 | 9.3324 | 58 | 9.342769.34336 | 6 | 0.65724 | 9.98 | 3 3 3 | 35 |  |  | 5.7 |
| 26 | 9.3330 | $\begin{aligned} & 57 \\ & 58 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | 0.65 |  | 3 2 2 | 34 |  | II. | 11.4 |
| 27 | 9.33 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 9.34396 \\ & 9.34456 \\ & 9.34516 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 60 <br> 60 <br> 60 | 0.65 | 9.9 | 3 | 33 |  |  |  |
| 28 | 9.33 | 57 |  |  | 0. 65 | 9.98 | 3 | 32 |  |  |  |
| 29 | 9.33 |  |  |  | 0.65 | 9.98961 | 3 | 31 |  | 34.8 | 34.2 |
| 30 | 9.3353 |  | 9.34576 | 59 | 0.65424 | 58 | 3 | 30 |  | 40. | 39.9 |
| 31 | 9.33 | 57 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.34635 \\ & 9.34695 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 60 \\ & 60 \end{aligned}$ | 0.6 | 9.9 | 2 | 29 |  | 46. | 45.6 |
| 32 | 9.33647 |  |  |  | 0. 65 |  | 3 | 28 |  | 52.2 | 51.3 |
| 33 | 9.33704 | 57 | 9.34755 |  | 0. 65 |  |  | 27 |  |  |  |
| 34 | 9.337 |  | 9.34814 |  | 0.65 |  |  | 26 |  | 56 | 55 |
| 35 | 9.33818 | $\begin{aligned} & 57 \\ & 56 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9.34874 \\ & 9.34933 \end{aligned}$ |  | 0.65067 |  |  | 25 |  |  |  |
| 36 | 9.338 |  |  |  |  |  | 3 3 3 | 2 |  |  | $\begin{array}{cc}5.5 & 0.3 \\ 11.0 & 0.6\end{array}$ |
| 37 | 9.33931 | $\begin{aligned} & 57 \\ & 56 \\ & 56 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9.34992 \\ & 9.35051 \\ & 9.35 \mathrm{III} \end{aligned}$ | 5960 | 0.65008 |  |  | 23 |  | 16.8 | $\begin{array}{llll}16.5 & 0.9\end{array}$ |
| 3 | 9.33987 |  |  |  | 0.649490.64889 |  |  | 22 |  | 22.4 | 22.0 |
| 39 | 9.34043 | 5756 |  |  |  | 9.98 |  | 21 |  | 28, | $\begin{array}{lll}27.5 & 1.5\end{array}$ |
| 40 | 9.341 |  | 9.35170 | 59 | 0.64830 | 9.98930 |  | 20 |  | 33.6 | 33.0 I. 8 |
| 41 | 9.34 |  | 9.35229 <br> 9.35288 <br> .35 | 59 | 0.64771 <br> 0.64712 | 9.98927 |  | 19 |  | 39.2 | $38.5 \quad 2.1$ |
| 42 | 9.34 |  |  |  |  | 9.98924 |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{llllll}44.8 & 44.0 & 2.4\end{array}$ |  |
| 43 | 9.34268 |  | 9.35347 | 58 | 0.645 | 9.98921 |  | 17 |  | 50.4 | 49.5 |
| 44 | 9.34 | 56 | 9.35464 | $\begin{array}{\|} 59 \\ 59 \\ \hline \end{array}$ |  | 9.98919 |  | 16 |  |  |  |
| 45 | 9.34 38 |  |  |  | 0.64536 | 9.98916 | 3 3 | 15 |  |  |  |
| 46 | 9.34 | 5 | $9.355^{2}$ |  | 0.64477 | 9.98913 | 3 | 14 |  |  | $3 \quad 3$ |
| 47 | 9.34 | 56 | 9.355 |  | 0.64419 | 9.98910 | 3 | 13 |  | 626 | 60 |
| 48 | 9.34547 | 55 | 9.35 6 | 59 <br> 58 <br> 59 <br> 58 <br> 58 <br> 58 <br> 58 <br> 58 <br> 58 <br> 58 <br> 58 <br> 58 <br> 57 | 0.64360 | 9.98 | 3 3 3 | 12 |  | . |  |
| 49 | 9.34 | 56 | 9.356 |  | 0.6430 | 9.98904 |  | 11 |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | 9.346 |  | 9.35757 |  | 0.64243 | 9.98901 |  | 10 |  |  | 530.0 |
| 5 | 9.347 | 565555555555555555 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.35815 \\ & 9.35873 \end{aligned}$ |  | 0.64185 | 9.9 |  | 9 |  |  |  |
| 52 | 9.34769 |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.04115 \\ & 0.64127 \\ & 0.64069 \end{aligned}$ | 9.98896 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 53 | 9.34 |  | 9.35931 |  |  | 9.98893 |  | 7 |  |  |  |
| 54 | 9.34879 |  | 9.35989 |  | 0.64011 0.63953 | 9.98880 | $3$ | 5 |  59  58 <br> 0 58   <br> 1 9.8 9.7  <br> 2 29.5 9.7  <br> 3 49.5   <br> 3 49.2 48.3 28.5 <br>     |  |  |
| 55 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.34934 \\ & 9.34989 \end{aligned}$ |  | 9.36047 9.36105 |  | 0.63953 0.63895 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.98887 \\ & 0.0888{ }_{2} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9.35044 | $\begin{array}{r} 55 \\ 55 \\ 55 \\ -55 \end{array}$ | 9.36163 9.36221 <br> 9.36279 |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { c. } 63837 \\ & \text { o. } 63779 \\ & \text { o. } 63721 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 9.9888 I 9.98878 9.98875 | 333 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 58 | 9.35099 |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 58 \\ & 58 \\ & 57 \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \\ & 2 \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 59 | 9.35154 | - 55 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 60 | 9.35209 |  | 9.36336 | $57$ | 0.63664 | 9.98872 |  | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | . |  |  | c. d. L. Tan. |  | L. Sin. | d. |  | P, P. |  |  |



|  |  | d. |  |  |  | L. Cos. | d. |  | P. P. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 9.38368 |  | 9.39677 |  | 0.60323 | 9.98690 |  | 60 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.38 | 51 | 9.39731 | $\begin{aligned} & 54 \\ & 53 \end{aligned}$ | $0.60269$ | 9.98687 | $3$ | $\begin{aligned} & 59 \\ & 58 \end{aligned}$ |  | 54 | 53 |
| 2 | 9.38469 9.38519 | 50 | 9.39785 9.39838 |  | 0.60215 | $9.98684$ |  | 58 |  | 54 |  |
| 3 | 9.38 519 | 50 | 9.39838 |  | 0.60162 | 9.98681 | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \\ & 3 \end{aligned}$ | 57 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.38 | 50 | 9.39892 | 54 | 0.60 | 9.986 | 3 | 56 |  |  |  |
| 5 | 9.38 | 50 | 9.39945 9.39999 | 54 | 0.60055 0.60001 | 9.98675 | 4 | 55 |  | 21.6 | 1.2 |
|  | 9.38 | 51 | 9.40 9 | 53 | 0. 5 |  | 3 |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9.38771 | 5 | 9.40106 |  | 0.59894 | 9.98665 | 3 | 52 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.38821 |  | 9.40159 | $53$ | 0.59841 | 9.98662 | 3 3 3 | 51 |  |  |  |
| 10 | 9.38871 |  | 9.40212 |  | 0.59788 | 9.98659 |  | 50 |  |  | 47.7 |
| 11 | 9 |  | 9.40 |  |  | 9.98 |  | 49 |  |  |  |
| 12 | 9.38 | 50 | 9.40319 | 53 | 0. 59681 | 9.98652 | 4 | 48 |  |  | 150 |
| 13 | 9.390 | 50 | 9.40372 | 53 | 3 0.59628 | 9.98649 |  | 47 |  |  |  |
| 14 | 9.39 O | 50 | 9.40 | 53 | 0.59575 | 9.98 |  | 46 |  |  | $\begin{array}{lr}1 & 5.0 \\ 2 & 10.0\end{array}$ |
| 15 | 9.39121 | 49 | 9.40478 | 53 | 0.59522 0.59469 | 9.98643 | 3 <br> 3 | 45 |  | 5.4 | 210.0 315.0 |
| 16 | 9.39170 | 50 | 9.40531 |  | 0.59469 | 9.986 | 3 4 4 | 44 |  | 15.6 20.8 | 15.0 20.0 |
| 17 | 9.39 | 50 | 9.40584 | 52 | 0.59416 | 9.98 | 4 3 | 43 |  |  | 25.0 |
| 18 | 9.39270 | 49 | 9.406 | $53$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.59364 \\ & 0.5031 \end{aligned}$ | 9.98633 | 3 | 42 | 6 | 1.2 | 30.0 |
| 19 | 9.39319 | 49 | 9.406 |  |  | 9.98630 | 3 | 4 4 |  |  | 35.0 |
| 20 | 9.393 | 49 | 9.40742 | 53 | 0.59258 | 9.9862 |  | 40 | 8 |  | 40.0 |
| 21 | 9.39 |  | 9.40 | 52 | . 59 | 9.9 |  | 39 | 9 | 4 | 945.0 |
| 22 | 9.3946 | 49 | 9.40847 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.59 \\ & 0.53 \\ & 0.59 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 9.98620 | 3 3 3 | 38 |  |  |  |
| 23 | 9.39517 |  | 9.40900 |  |  | 9.98617 | 3 | 37 |  |  | 847 |
| 24 | 9.39566 |  | 9.4095 |  | 0.59048 | 9.9 |  | 36 |  |  |  |
| 25 | 9.39615 | 49 | $9.41{ }^{1005}$ | 53 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.58995 \\ & 0.58943 \end{aligned}$ | 9.98 |  | 35 |  |  |  |
| 26 | 9.39664 |  | 9.41057 |  |  | 9.98 | 3 3 3 | 34 |  |  |  |
| 27 | 9.39 |  | 9.41109 | $52$ | 0.58891 | 9.98 | 3 | 33 |  | 19.61 | 18.8 |
| 28 | 9.39762 |  | 9.41161 | $53$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.58839 \\ 0.58786 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | 9.98601 | 4 | 32 |  |  | 23.5 |
| 29 | 9.39811 | $\begin{aligned} & 49 \\ & 49 \\ & 49 \end{aligned}$ | 41214 |  |  | 9.98597 | 3 | 31 |  | . 4 | 28.2 |
| 30 | 9.39 |  | 9.41266 | 52 | 0.58734 | 9.98 | 3 | 30 |  |  | 32.9 |
| 3 I | 9.39 |  | 9.41318 | 52 | 0.58682 | 9.98591 |  | 29 |  | 9.2 | 437.6 |
| 32 | 9.399 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 9.41370 \\ & 9.41422 \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.58630 \\ & 0.58578 \end{aligned}$ | 9.98 |  | 28 |  | 1 | 22.3 |
| 33 | 9.40 | 48 |  | 52 52 |  |  |  | 27 |  |  |  |
| 34 | 9.40053 | $49$ | 9.41474 |  | 0.58526 | 9.98 |  | 26 |  |  |  |
| 35 | 9.40103 | 8 | 9.41 |  | 0.58474 | 9.98 |  | 25 |  | 0.4 |  |
| 36 | $9.40{ }^{152}$ | 49 | 9.41 |  | 0.58422 | 9.9 |  | 24 |  | 0.8 | . 6 |
| 37 | 9.40200 | $48$ | 9.41629 |  | 0.58371 | 9.98 |  | 23 |  | 1.2 | . 9 |
| 3 | 9.40249 |  | 9.4168 |  | $\begin{array}{r} 0.58319 \\ 0.58267 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | 9.98568 |  | 22 |  | 1. 6 | , |
| 39 | 9.40297 | $\begin{aligned} & 48 \\ & 49 \end{aligned}$ | 9.41733 |  |  | 9.98565 |  | 1 |  |  |  |
| 40 | 9.40346 | 48 | 9.41784 | $52$ | 0.58216 | 9.98 |  | 20 |  |  |  |
| 41 | 9.40 | 48 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.41836 \\ & 9.41887 \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.58164 \\ & 0.58113 \end{aligned}$ | 9.98 |  | 19 |  |  |  |
| 42 | 9.40442 | 48 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 51 \\ & 51 \\ & 52 \end{aligned}$ |  | 9.98555 |  | 18 |  |  |  |
| 43 | 9. | 48 | 89.41939 | $\begin{aligned} & 52 \\ & 51 \end{aligned}$ | 0.58061 | 9.98 |  | 16 | 93.6 |  |  |
| 44 | 9.40538 | $\begin{aligned} & 48 \\ & 48 \end{aligned}$ | $9.42041$ |  | 0.58010 | 9.98548 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 45 | 9.40586 |  |  | 52 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.57959 \\ & 0.57907 \end{aligned}$ | 9.9854 I |  | 15 |  |  |  |
| 46 | 9.40 | 48 | 9.42093 | 5151 |  |  |  | 14 |  |  |  |
| 47 | 9.40682 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 9.42195 \\ & 9.42246 \end{aligned}$ |  | $0.57856$ |  |  | 13 |  |  |  |
| 48 | 9.40730 | 48 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 51 \\ & 51 \\ & 51 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.57805 \\ & 0.57754 \end{aligned}$ | $9.9853 \mathrm{I}$ |  | 12 |  |  |  |
| 49 | 9.40778 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 20.219 .919 .519 .1 |  |  |
| 50 | 9.40825 | $\begin{aligned} & 47 \\ & 48 \end{aligned}$ | 9.42297 | 51 | 0.57703 | $9.98528$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \\ & 3 \end{aligned}$ | 10 |  |  | 32.531 .9 |
| 51 | 9.40873 | 48 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.42348 \\ & 9.42399 \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.57652 \\ & 0.57601 \end{aligned}$ | 9.98523 <br> 9.98521 | 4 | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \\ & 8 \end{aligned}$ | $4{ }^{4}$ |  |  |
| 52 | 9.40921 |  |  | $\left\|\begin{array}{l} 51 \\ 51 \end{array}\right\|$ |  |  |  | $8$ |  |  |  |
| 53 | 9.40 | 48 | $9.42450$ | $\begin{aligned} & 5^{\mathrm{I}} \\ & 5^{\prime} \end{aligned}$ | $0.57550$ | 9.98518 | 3 3 | 7 |  |  |  |
| 54 | 9.41016 9.41063 | 47 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.425 \mathrm{OI} \\ & 9.42552 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 51 \\ & 51 \\ & 51 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.57499 \\ & 0.57448 \end{aligned}$ | $9.98515$ | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \\ & 3 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \\ & 5 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{lllll}\frac{3}{54} & \frac{3}{53} & \frac{3}{52} & \frac{3}{51}\end{array}$ |  |  |
| 55 | 9.41063 |  |  |  |  | $9.98511$ |  | 5 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.41158 | 47 | 9.42653 | 50 |  |  |  |  | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{lllll} 0 & 9.0 & 8.8 & 8.7 & 8.5 \\ 1 & 27.0 & 86.8 & 26.0 & 8.5 \\ 2 & 27.0 & 26.5 & 26.0 & 25.5 \\ \hline 4.0 & 44.2 & 43.3 & 42.5 \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |
|  | 9.41205 | 47 | 9.42704 |  | 0.57296 | 9.98501 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 59 | $9.4125^{2}$ | 47 | 9.42755 | 50 | 0. 57245 | 9.98498 |  | 1 |  |  |  |
| 60 | 9.41300 |  | 9.42805 |  | 0.57195 | 9.98494 |  | O |  |  |  |
|  | L. Cos | d. L. Cot. | d. L. Cot. | c. | L. Tan. |  |  |  |  | P. P. |  |



|  | Sin. | d. | L. Tan. | c. d. | L. cot. | L. Cos. |  |  | P. P. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 9.44034 |  | 9.45750 |  | 0.54250 | 9.98284 |  | 60 |  |
|  | 9.44078 | 44 | 9.45797 | 48 | 0.54203 | 9.98281 |  | 59 | $\begin{array}{llll}48 & 47 & 46\end{array}$ |
|  | ${ }_{9}^{9.44122} 106$ | 44 | 9.45845 9.45892 | 47 | 0.54155 0.54108 | ${ }_{9}^{9.98277}$ | 4 |  | 4.6 |
|  | 9.44210 | 44 | 9.45940 | 48 | 0.54060 |  | 3 | 56 | $\begin{array}{llll}9.6 & 9.4 & 9.2 \\ 9.2\end{array}$ |
| 5 | 9.44253 | 43 | ${ }_{9}^{9.45987}$ | 48 | - $\begin{aligned} & 0.54013 \\ & 0.53065\end{aligned}$ | 9.98266 | 4 | 55 | $\begin{array}{cccc}14.4 & 14.1 \\ 19.2 & 13.8 \\ 18.8 & 18.4\end{array}$ |
|  | ${ }_{9}^{9.44297} 9$ | 44 | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & 9.46035 \\ & 9.46082 \end{aligned}\right.$ | 47 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.53965 \\ & 0.53918 \end{aligned}$ | 9.98262 <br> 9.98259 | 3 | 54 |  |
| 7 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.44341 \\ & 9.44385 \end{aligned}$ | 44 | $9.46{ }^{\text {I }} 30$ |  | ${ }_{0}^{0.53870}$ | 9.98 955 | 4 | $5{ }_{5} 5$ | $\begin{array}{ll}28.8 & 28.2 \\ 33.6 \\ \text { 27.6 }\end{array}$ |
|  | 9.44 | 43 | 9.46177 | 47 | 0.53823 | 9.98251 | 4 | 52 | 33.6 32.9 32.2 <br> 38.4 37.6  <br> 36.8   |
| 10 | $9.4447^{2}$ |  | 9.46224 |  | $\bigcirc$ | 9.98248 |  | 50 | 43.2 42.341 .4 |
| 11 | 9.44516 |  | 9.4627 I | 48 | 0.53729 | 9.98244 |  | 49 |  |
| 12 | 9.44599 | 43 |  | 47 | ${ }^{0.53681}$ | 9.98240 | 4 |  | 4544 |
| 14 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 43 \\ & 44 \end{aligned}$ | $9.46366$ | 47 | 0.53634 0.53587 | 9.98237 9.98233 | 4 |  |  |
| 14 | 9.44646 9.44689 | 43 | 9.46413 | 47 | 0.53587 0.53540 | ${ }^{9.98233} 9$ | 4 |  | 4.5 4.4 4.3 <br> 9.0 8.8 8.6 <br> 13.5   <br> 8.5   <br> 13   |
| 16 | 9.44733 | 44 | 9.46507 | 47 | 0.53 493 | 9.98226 | 3 | 44 | $\begin{array}{llll}13.5 & 13.2 & 12.9 \\ 18.0 & 1.6 \\ 2.5\end{array}$ |
| 17 | 9.4 | 43 | 9.46554 | 47 | 0.53446 | 9.98 | 4 | 43 |  |
|  |  | 43 |  |  | 0.53 |  | 4 | 42 | 18.5  <br> 27.0 26.4 <br> 26.8  <br> 1.8  |
| 19 | 9.44862 |  | 9.46 648 | 46 | $0.5335^{2}$ | 9.98215 |  | 41 | 31.530 .830 .1 |
| 20 | 9.44 | 43 | 9.46694 | 47 | 0.53306 | 9.98 2II |  | 40 | 8 36.0 35.2384 .4 |
| 21 | 9.44 |  | 9.46741 |  | 0.53259 | 9.98207 |  |  | 40.539 .6 |
| 22 |  | 44 | 9.46 |  | 0.53212 | 9.98 | 3 | 38 |  |
| 23 | 9.45035 |  | 9.46833 | 47 | 0.53165 | 9.98200 |  | 37 | 4241 |
| 24 | 9.45077 | 43 | 9.4688 I | 47 | 0.53119 | 9.98196 |  | 36 | 1 4.2 <br> 1.1  |
| 25 26 | 9.45 12 | 43 | ${ }_{9}^{9.4}$ | 47 | 0.53072 0.53025 0.5 | 9.98192 9.98189 | 4 | 35 |  |
|  | 9.45 | 43 |  | 46 | -.5 |  | 4 |  | $\begin{array}{llll}12.6 \\ 16.6 & 12.3\end{array}$ |
| 28 | 9.45 206 | 43 | 9.4 | 47 | 0.52 | 9.98 | 4 | 33 32 3 | - 20 |
| 29 | 9.45292 | 43 | 9.47114 | 46 | 0.52886 | 9.98177 | 4 | ${ }^{31}$ | $\begin{array}{lll}25.2 & 24.6\end{array}$ |
| 30 | 9.45 |  | 9.47160 |  | $\bigcirc 0.52840$ | 9.98174 |  | 30 | 29.428 .7 |
|  | 9.45 | 42 | 9.47207 |  |  | 9.98 I |  | 29 | $\begin{array}{ll}33.6 & 32.8 \\ 37.8 & 36.9\end{array}$ |
| 32 | 9.45 |  | 9.47253 | 46 | 0.52 74 | 9.98 | 4 |  |  |
| 33 | 9.4 | ${ }_{42}$ | 9.47299 |  | 0.52701 | 9.981 | 4 | 27 |  |
| 34 | 9.45504 | 43 | 9.47346 |  | ${ }^{0.52654}$ | 9.98159 |  | 26 |  |
| 35 36 3 |  | 42 | ${ }^{9.47} 392$ | 46 | ${ }_{0}^{0.52}$ | 9.98 155 | 4 | 24 | 1 0.4 0.3 |
|  | 9.4 | 43 |  | 46 |  |  | 4 |  | 0.8 |
| 38 <br> 38 | 9.45632 | 42 | 9.47 930 |  | -0.52 <br> 0.52 <br> 0 | ${ }_{9} 9.98$ 144 | 3 | 22 | $\begin{array}{ll}1.6 & 1.2\end{array}$ |
| 40 | 9.45716 | 42 | 9.47576 | 46 | 0.52 224 | 9.98140 | 4 | 21 | 5 2.0 <br>  1.5 |
| 40 | 9.45758 | 43 | 9.47622 |  | 0.52378 | 9.98136 |  | 20 |  |
| 4 4 | 9.45801 | 42 | 9.47668 |  | ${ }^{0.52332}$ | 9.98132 |  | 兂 |  |
|  |  |  | 9.4 | 46 | 0.52 286 | 9.98 | 3 |  | 3.6 |
|  | 9.45885 | 42 |  | 46 |  |  | 4 | 17 |  |
| 44 | 9.45927 | 42 | ${ }_{9}^{9.47806}$ | 46 | 0.52 194 | 9.98121 | 4 |  |  |
| 46 | 9.4 | 42 |  | 45 | 0.52148 0.52103 0.51 | ${ }^{9.98117}$ | 4 |  | $\begin{array}{lllll}4 & 4 & 4 & 4\end{array}$ |
| 47 | 9.4 | 42 | 9.47943 |  | 0.52057 | 9.9 | 3 | 1 | $\begin{array}{lllll}48 & 47 & \overline{46} & \frac{45}{}\end{array}$ |
|  | 9.4 | ${ }_{41}^{42}$ |  | 46 | 0.52011 |  | 4 | 1 | . 6 |
| 49 | 9.46136 |  | 9.48035 |  | 0.51965 | 9.98102 |  |  | 18.017 .617 .216 .9 |
| 50 | 9.46178 | 42 | 9.48080 |  | 0.51920 | 9.98098 |  | 10 | ${ }_{3}^{2} 30.029 .428 .8$ 28.1 |
| 51 <br> 52 | 9.4 |  | 9.48 126 |  | 0.51874 0.51 0.529 | 9.980 | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \\ & 4 \end{aligned}$ | 9 |  |
| 53 | ${ }^{9.46262}$ | $\left\|\begin{array}{l} 42 \\ 41 \end{array}\right\|$ | 9.48171 | 46 | 0.51829 0.51 0 | 9.980 | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \\ & 3 \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| 54 | 9.46 | 42 | 9.48262 | 45 | 0.51738 | 9.98083 | $4$ |  | $\frac{3}{45}$ |
| 55 | 9.46386 | 42 | 9.48307 | 45 | 0.51693 | 9.98079 | ${ }_{4}^{4}$ |  | 46 |
| 56 | 9.46428 |  | 9.48353 |  | 0.51 647 | 9.98075 |  | 4 |  |
| 57 | 9.46 |  | 9.48398 |  | 0.51602 | 9.98071 |  | 3 | 2.5 |
| 59 | 0.4655 | 41 | 9.48443 9.48489 | 46 | 0.51587 0.51511 | 9.98067 | ${ }_{4}^{4}$ | 2 <br> 1 <br> 1 | $3^{40.0} 39.238 .337 .5$ |
| 60 | 9.46594 |  | 9.48534 | 45 | 0.51466 | 9.98060 |  | 0 |  |
|  | L. Cos. | d. | L. Cot. | c.d. | L. Ta | L. Sin. | d. |  | P. P. |




| $\frac{1}{0}$ | L. Sin. | d. 1 | L. Tan. | c. d. | L. Cot. | L. Cos. | d |  | P. P. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 9.51 264 | 37 | 9.53697 | 41 | 0.46303 | 9.97567 | 4 | 60 |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 9.51301 |  | 9.53738 |  | 0.46262 | 9.97563 |  | 59 |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 9.51338 | 37 36 | 9.53779 | 41 | 0.46221 | $9.9755^{8}$ | 5 4 | 58 |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 9.51374 | 36 37 | 9.53820 | 41 | 0.46180 | 9.97554 | $4$ | 57 |  | 41 | 40 | 39 |
| 4 | 9.51411 | 36 | 9.53861 | 41 | 0.46139 | 9.97530 |  | 56 | 1 |  | 4.0 |  |
| 5 | 9.51447 | 36 37 | 9.53902 | 41 | 0.46098 | 9.97545 | 4 | 55 | 2 |  |  |  |
| 6 | 9.51484 | 36 | 9.53943 | 4 I | 0.46057 | 9.97541 | 5 | 54 | 3 4 | 16.4 | 16.0 | 11.7 $\mathbf{1} 5.6$ |
| 7 | 9.51520 | 37 | 9.53984 | 41 | 0.46016 | 9.97536 | 4 | 53 | 4 | 16.4 20.5 | 120.0 | 15.6 19.5 |
| 8 | 9.51557 | 37 36 | 9.54025 | 40 | 0.45975 | 9.97532 | 4 | 52 | 6 | 24.6 | 24.0 |  |
| 9 | 9.51593 | 36 36 | 9.54065 | 41 | 0.45935 | 9.97528 | 4 5 | 51 | 7 | 28.7 | 28.0 | 27.3 |
| 10 | 9.51629 | 37 | 9.54106 | 41 | 0.45894 | 9.97523 | 5 | 50 | 8 | 32.8 | 32.0 | 31.2 |
| 11 | 9.51666 | 36 | 9.54147 | 40 | 0.45853 | $9.975^{19}$ | 4 | 49 | 9 | 36.9 | 36.0 | 35.1 |
| 12 | 9.51702 | 36 | 9.54187 | 41 | 0.45813 | 9.97513 | 5 | 48 |  |  |  |  |
| 13 | $9.5173^{8}$ | 36 36 | 9.54228 | 41 | 0.45772 | 9.97510 | 5 | 47 |  |  |  |  |
| 14 | 9.51774 | 36 37 | 9.54269 | 40 | 0.45731 | 9.97506 | 4 | 46 |  |  |  |  |
| 15 | 9.51811 | 37 36 | 9.54309 | 41 | 0.45691 | 9.97501 | 4 | 45 |  | 37 | 36 | 35 |
| 16 | 9.51847 | 36 | $9.5433 \bigcirc$ | 40 | 0.45650 | 9.97497 | 4 | 44 | 1 | 3.7 | 3.6 |  |
| 17 | 9.51883 | 36 | 9.54390 | 41 | 0.45610 | 9.97492 | 4 | 43 | 2 | 7.4 | 7.2 | 7.0 |
| 18 | 9.51919 | 36 36 | 9.5443 I | 41 | 0.45569 | 9.97488 | 4 | 42 | 3 | 11.1 | 10.8 | 10.5 |
| 19 | 9.51955 | 36 | 9.54471 | 40 | 0.45529 | 9.97484 |  | 41 | 4 | 14.8 | 14.4 | 14.0 |
| 20 | 9.51991 | 36 | $9.545^{12}$ |  | 0.45488 | 9.97479 |  | 40 |  |  | 18.0 |  |
| 21 | 9.52027 | 36 | 9.54552 | 41 | 0.45448 | 9.97475 | 5 | 39 | 7 |  |  |  |
| 22 | 9.52063 | 36 | 9.54593 | 40 | 0.45407 | 9.97470 | 4 | 38 | 8 | 29.6 | 28.8 |  |
| 23 | 9.52099 | 36 | 9.54633 | 40 | 0.45367 | 9.97466 | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \\ & 5 \end{aligned}$ | 37 | 9 | $33 \cdot 3$ | 32.4 | 31.5 |
| 24 | 9.52135 | 36 | 9.54673 | 4 I | 0.45327 | 9.97461 | $\begin{aligned} & 5 \\ & 4 \end{aligned}$ | 36 |  |  |  |  |
| 25 | 9.52171 | 36 | 9.54714 | 40 | 0.45286 | 9.97457 | 4 | 35 |  |  |  |  |
| 26 | 9.52207 | 35 | 9.54754 | 40 | 0.45246 | 9.97453 | 4 | 34 |  |  |  |  |
| 27 | 9.52242 | 35 36 | 9.54794 | 41 | 0.45206 | 9.97448 | 5 | 33 |  | 34 | 5 |  |
| 28 | 9.52278 | 36 | 9.54835 | 40 | 0.45165 | 9.97444 | 5 | 32 | 1 | 3. | 0.5 | 0.4 |
| 29 | 9.52314 | 36 | 9.54875 | 40 | 0.45125 | 9.97439 | 5 | 31 | 2 | 6.8 | 1.0 | 0.8 |
| 30 | $9.523{ }^{2} 0$ | 3 | 9.54915 | 40 | 0.45085 | 9.97435 | 5 | 30 | 3 | 10.2 | 1.5 | 1.2 |
| 31 | 9.52385 | 36 | 9.54955 | 40 | 0.45045 | 9.97430 | 5 | 29 | 4 | 13.6 | 2.0 | . 6 |
| 32 | 9.5242 I | 36 35 | 9.54995 | 40 | 0.45005 | 9.97426 | 5 | 28 | 5 | 17.0 | 2.5 | 2.0 |
| 33 | 9.52456 | 35 36 | 9.55 O35 | 40 | 0.44965 | 9.97421 | $\begin{aligned} & 5 \\ & 4 \end{aligned}$ | 27 | 6 | 20.4 | 3.0 |  |
| 34 | 9.52492 | 35 | 9.55075 | 40 | 0.44925 | 9.97417 |  | 26 | 8 |  |  |  |
| 35 | 9.52527 | 35 36 | 9.55115 | 40 | 0.44885 | 9.97412 | 4 | 25 | 9 |  | 4.5 |  |
| 36 | 9.52563 | 35 | 9.55155 | 40 | 0.44845 | 9.97408 | 4 | 24 | 9 |  |  |  |
| 37 | 9.52598 | 36 | 9.55195 | 40 | 0.44805 | 9.97403 | 4 | 23 |  |  |  |  |
| 38 | 9.52634 | 36 35 | 9.55235 | 40 | 0.44765 | 9.97399 | 4 | 22 |  |  |  |  |
| 39 | 9.52669 | 35 | 9.55275 | 40 | 0.44725 | 9.97394 | 5 | 21 |  |  |  |  |
| 40 | 9.52705 |  | 9.55315 |  | 0.44685 | 9.97390 |  | 20 |  |  |  |  |
| 41 | 9.52740 |  | 9.55355 |  | 0.44645 | 9.97385 |  | 19 |  | 5 | 5 |  |
| 42 | 9.52775 | 35 36 | 9.55395 | 39 | 0.44605 | 9.97381 | 5 | 18 |  | 41 | 40 | 39 |
| 43 | 9.52811 | 35 | 9.55434 | 40 | 0.44566 | 9.97376 | 5 | 17 | 0 |  |  |  |
| 44 | 9.52846 | 35 35 | 9.55474 | 40 | 0.44526 | 9.97372 | 4 | 16 | 1 |  | 12.0 |  |
| 45 | 9.52881 | 35 35 | 9.55514 | 40 | 0.44486 | 9.97367 | 4 | 15 | 2 |  |  |  |
| 46 | 9.52916 | 35 35 | 9.55554 | 39 | 0.44446 | 9.97363 | 5 | 14 | 3 | 28.7 | 28.0 | $27 \cdot 3$ |
| 47 | 9.52951 | 35 | 9.55593 | 40 | 0.44407 | 9.97358 | 5 | 13 | 4 | 36.9 | 36.0 |  |
| 48 | 9.52986 | 35 35 | 9.55633 | 40 | 0.44367 | 9.97353 | 5 4 | 12 | 5 |  |  |  |
| 49 | 9.53021 | 35 35 | 9.55673 | 39 | 0.44327 | 9.97349 | 4 | 11 |  |  |  |  |
| 50 | 9.53056 | 36 | 9.55712 |  | 0.44288 | 9.97344 | 4 | 10 |  |  |  |  |
| 51 | 9.53092 | 34 | 9.55752 | 39 | 0.44248 | 9.97340 | 5 | 9 |  |  |  |  |
| 52 | 9.53126 | 34 | 9.55791 | 40 | 0.44209 | 9.97335 | 4 | 8 |  |  | 40 |  |
| 53 | 9.53161 | 35 | 9.55831 | 39 | 0.44169 | 9.97331 | 5 | 7 |  |  |  |  |
| 54 | 9.53196 | 35 | 9.55870 | 40 | 0.44130 | 9.97326 | $\begin{aligned} & 5 \\ & 4 \end{aligned}$ | 6 | I | 5.1 | 5.0 |  |
| 55 | 9.53231 9.53266 | 35 | 9.55910 | 39 | 0.44090 | 9.97322 | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \\ & 5 \end{aligned}$ | 5 | 1 |  | 15.0 | 14.6 |
| 56 | 9.53266 | 35 | 9.55949 | 40 | 0.44051 | 9.97317 | 5 | 4 | 3 |  | 25.0 |  |
| 57 58 | 9.53301 9.53336 | 35 | 9.55989 <br> 9.56028 <br> .5607 | 39 | 0.44011 0.43972 | 9.97312 9.97308 | 4 | 3 | 4 |  | 35.0 |  |
| 58 59 | 9.53336 | 34 | 9.56028 9.56067 | 39 | 0.43972 | 9.97308 | 5 | 2 |  |  |  |  |
| 59 | 9.53370 | 35 | $9 \cdot 56067$ | 40 | 0.43933 | 9.97303 | 4 | 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 60 | 9.53405 |  | 9.56107 |  | 0.43893 | 9.97299 |  | 0 |  |  |  |  |
|  | L. Cos. | d. | L. Cot. | c. d. | L. Tan. | L. Sin. | d. | , |  | P, | P. |  |







|  | L. Sin. | d. | L. T | c. d. | L. | L. Cos. | d. |  |  | P |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 9.62 505 |  | 9.66867 | 33 | 0.33 | 9.95 728 | 6 | 60 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.62622 | 27 | 9.66900 |  | 0.33100 | 9.95722 | 6 | ${ }_{5}^{59}$ |  |  |  |
| 2 | 9.62649 <br> 9.62676 | 27 | ${ }_{9}^{9.66933} 9$ |  | 0.33 O 0.330 | 9.95716 9.95710 | 6 | 58 57 57 |  |  |  |
| 4 | 9.62703 | ${ }_{27}^{27}$ | 9.66999 | $\begin{aligned} & 33 \\ & 33 \\ & 33 \end{aligned}$ | 0.33001 <br> 0.32968 <br> 0.3 | 9.95704 | 6 | 56 56 |  | 33 | 32 |
| 5 | 9.62730 | ${ }_{27}^{27}$ | 9.67032 <br> 9.67065 <br> 9.0 |  |  | 9.95698 9.9569 | 6 | 55 <br> 54 | 1 | 3.3 |  |
|  | 9.62784 | 27 | 9.67098 | 3333333 | 0. ${ }^{2} 935$ | 9.95686 |  | 54 | 3 | 9.9 |  |
| 8 | 9.62811 | 27 | 9.67131 |  | 0.328690.32837 | 9.95680 |  | ${ }^{53}$ |  |  | ${ }_{12.8}$ |
|  | 9.62838 |  | 9.67163 | $\begin{aligned} & 33 \\ & 32 \\ & 33 \end{aligned}$ |  | 9.95 674 | - | 51 |  | 6. | 16.0 |
| 10 | 9.62805 |  | 9.67196 | 33 | 0.32804 | 9.95668 |  | 50 |  | 9,8 | 92 |
| 11 | 9.62892 | 26 | 9.67229 | 33 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.3771 \\ & 0.32738 \end{aligned}$ | 9.95663 | 6 | 49 |  | I |  |
|  | 9.62918 | 27 | 9.67262 |  |  |  | 6 | 48 |  |  |  |
| 13 | 9.62945 | 27 | 9.67295 | $\begin{aligned} & 32 \\ & 32 \\ & 33 \end{aligned}$ | 0.32705 | 9.95651 | 6 | 47 |  |  |  |
| 14 | 9.62972 | 27 | 9.67327 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.32705 \\ & 0.32673 \end{aligned}$ | 9.95 645 | 6 | 46 |  |  |  |
| 15 | ${ }^{9.62}$ |  | 9.67360 9.67393 | 33 | $0.32640$ $0.32607$ | 9.95639 9.9563 | 6 | 45 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.63052 | 26 | 9.67426 | $\begin{aligned} & 33 \\ & 32 \\ & 32 \end{aligned}$ | ${ }^{0} \mathrm{O} 32574$ | 9.95627 |  |  |  |  | 26 |
| 18 | 9.630 | 27 | 9.67458 |  | $\begin{array}{r} 0.32542 \\ 0.32509 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | 9.9 |  | ${ }_{42}$ |  |  |  |
| 19 | 9.63106 |  | 9.67491 |  |  | 9.95615 |  | 硡 |  |  |  |
| 20 | 9.63 133 | 26 | 9.67524 |  | 0.32476 | 9.95609 |  | 40 |  |  |  |
| 21 | 9.63159 | 27 | 9.67556 |  | 0.32 444 | 9.95603 |  | 39 |  | 10.8 | , |
|  | 9.631 | 27 | 9.67589 9.67622 | 333332 | 0.32411 $0.323-8$ 0.324 | ${ }^{9.95597}$ | 6 |  |  | 13.5 |  |
| 23 | 9.93213 | 26 | 9.67622 |  |  |  | 6 | 37 |  |  |  |
| 24 25 25 | ${ }^{9.63239}$ | 27 | 9.67654 | $\begin{aligned} & 32 \\ & 33 \end{aligned}$ | - 0.32313 | 9.95 985 | 6 | $\left.\begin{aligned} & 36 \\ & 35 \end{aligned} \right\rvert\,$ | 8 | 21.6 |  |
| 26 | 9.63292 |  | 9.67719 |  |  | 9.95573 |  | 34 | 9 | 4 |  |
| 27 | 9.63319 | 26 | 9.67752 | 33 | $0.32248$ | 9.95567 | 6 | 33 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.63345 |  | 9.677 | $\begin{aligned} & 32 \\ & 32 \end{aligned}$ |  | 9.95561 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 29 | 9.633 | 26 | 9.67817 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.32215 \\ & 0.32183 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 55 |  | ${ }^{31}$ |  |  |  |
| 30 | 9.63398 |  | $9.6785^{\circ}$ |  | -0.32150 | 9.95549 |  | 30 |  | $7 \quad 6$ | 5 |
| 31 | 9.63425 | 26 | 9.67882 | 33 | $\begin{array}{r} 0.3218 \\ 0.32085 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | 9.95543 | 6 | 29 |  | 0.7 0.6 |  |
| 32 | 9.63451 |  | 9.67915 | 32 |  | 9.95 933 |  |  | 21. | 1.4 |  |
|  | 9.03478 | 26 | 9.67980 | 33 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.32053 \\ & 0.32020 \end{aligned}$ | 9.955 | 6 | 27 |  | , |  |
| 34 | 9.63 904 | 27 | 9.67 9.68 or2 | 32 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.31988 \\ & 0.31956 \end{aligned}$ | 9.95 925 | 6 | 25 |  | 2.8 |  |
| 36 | 9.63 5537 |  | 9.68044 | 33 |  | 9.95513 | 6 | 25 24 |  | 3.53 .0 |  |
| 37 | 9.63583 |  | 9.68 o77 |  | 0.319230.31891 | 9.95507 |  | 23 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.63610 | 26 | 9.68109 |  |  |  | 7 | 22 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.63636 | 26 | 9.68142 | 3332 | 0.31891 0.31858 | 9.95494 |  |  |  | 6.35 |  |
| 40 | 9.63662 | 27 | 9.68174 |  |  | 9.95488 |  | 20 |  |  |  |
| 41 | 9.63689 | 26 | 9.68206 | 3233 | ${ }^{0.31826}$ | 9.95482 |  | 19 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.63715 | 26 | 9.68 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.3176 \mathrm{r} \\ & 0.31729 \end{aligned}$ | 9.95476 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 43 | 9.63741 | 26 | 9.68 | $\left.\begin{gathered} 32 \\ 33 \end{gathered} \right\rvert\,$ |  | 9.95470 |  | 17 |  |  |  |
| 44 | 9.63767 | 27 | 9.68303 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.31697 \\ & 0.31664 \end{aligned}$ | 9.95 464 |  | 16 |  |  |  |
| 45 | 9.63794 0.63820 |  | 9.688336 | $\begin{aligned} & 33 \\ & 32 \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  | 15 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.63820 | 26 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 32 \\ & 32 \end{aligned}$ | $0.31600$$0.31568$ | 9.95452 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 47 | ${ }_{9}^{9.63}$ | 26 | 9.68432 |  |  | ${ }^{9.95}$ | $6$ | 13 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.63898 | 26 | 9.68465 | $\begin{aligned} & 33 \\ & 32 \end{aligned}$ | 0.31 535 | 9.95434 |  | 1 |  |  |  |
| 50 | 9.63924 | 26 | 9.68497 |  | 0.31503 | 9.95427 |  | 10 |  |  |  |
| 51 | 9.639 | 26 | 9.68529 | $\begin{aligned} & 32 \\ & 32 \end{aligned}$ | 0.310.310 0.31407 | 9.95421 |  | 9 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.63976 | 26 | 9.68 561 | $\begin{aligned} & 32 \\ & 32 \\ & 32 \end{aligned}$ |  | 9.95415 | 6 | 8 | 316.0 |  |  |
| 53 | 9.64002 | 26 | 9.68593 | 3332 |  | 9.95409 |  | 7 | 4 | 2 |  |
| 54 | 9.64028 | 26 | 9.68626 |  | o.3I 374 0.31 310 | 9.95403 |  | 6 |  |  |  |
| 55 <br> 56 | 9.64054 9.64080 | 26 | 9.68658 | $\begin{aligned} & 32 \\ & 32 \end{aligned}$ |  | 9.95397 | $6$ |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9.64 106 | $26$ | 9.68722 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.31278 \\ & 0.31246 \end{aligned}$ | 9.95384 | $7$ | 3 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.6 | 26 | 9.68 |  |  | 9.95 |  | 2 |  |  |  |
| 59 | 9.64 158 | 26 | 9.68786 | $\begin{aligned} & 32 \\ & 32 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} .31240 \\ 0.31214 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | 9.95372 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 60 | 9.64184 |  | 9.68818 |  | 0.31182 | 9.95366 |  | 0 |  |  |  |
|  | L. Cos. | d. | L. Cot. | c. d. | L. T | L. Sin. | d. |  |  | P. P. |  |

$26^{\circ}$

$27^{\circ}$

$28^{\circ}$




| , | L. Sin. | d. | L. Tan. | c. d. | L. Cot. | L. Cos. | d. |  | P. P. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & 0 \\ & 1 \\ & 2 \\ & 3 \\ & 4 \\ & 5 \\ & 6 \end{aligned}$ | 9.71184 | 21 | 9.77877 | 29 | 0.22123 | 9.93307 | 8 | 60 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.71205 | 21 | 9.77906 | $\begin{aligned} & 29 \\ & 28 \end{aligned}$ | 0.22094 | 9.93299 | 8 | 59 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.71226 |  | 9.77935 |  | 0.22065 | 9.93291 | 8 | 58 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.71247 | $2 I$ | 9.77963 |  | 0.22037 | 9.93284 | 8 | 57 |  |  |  |
|  | 9.71268 | 21 | 9.77992 | 29 | 0.22008 | 9.93276 | 8 | 56 |  | 29 | 28 |
|  | 9.71289 | 21 | 9.78020 | $\begin{aligned} & 29 \\ & 28 \end{aligned}$ | 0.21980 | 9.93269 | 8 | 55 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.8 |
|  | 9.71310 | 21 | 9.78049 |  | 0.21951 | 9.93261 | 8 | 54 | 2 | 5.8 | 5.6 |
| $\begin{array}{r} 7 \\ 8 \\ 9 \\ 10 \end{array}$ | 9.71331 | 21 | 9.78077 | 29 | 0.21923 | 9.93253 |  | 53 | 3 | 8.7 | 8.4 |
|  | 9.71352 |  | 9.78106 |  | 0.21894 | 9.93246 | 8 | 52 | 4 | 11.6 | 11.2 |
|  | 9.71373 | $\begin{aligned} & 21 \\ & 20 \end{aligned}$ | 9.78135 | $\begin{aligned} & 29 \\ & 28 \end{aligned}$ | 0.21865 | 9.93238 | 8 | 51 | 5 | 14.5 | 14.0 |
|  | 9.71393 | 21 | 9.78163 | 29 | 0.21837 | 9.93230 |  | 50 | 6 | 17.4 | 16.8 |
| 11 | 9.71414 | 21 | 9.78192 | 28 | 0.21808 | 9.93223 | 8 | 49 | 7 | 20.3 | 19.6 |
| 12 | 9.71435 | 21 | 9.78220 9.78249 | $29$ | 0.21780 | 9.93215 | 8 | 48 |  | 23.2 26.1 | 22.4 25.2 |
| 13 | 9.71456 | 21 | 9.78249 |  | 0.21751 | 9.93207 | 8 | 47 |  |  | 25.2 |
| 14 | 9.71477 | 21 | 9.78277 | $\begin{aligned} & 29 \\ & 28 \end{aligned}$ | 0.21723 | 9.93200 | 8 | 46 |  |  |  |
| 15 | 9.71498 | 21 | 9.78306 |  | 0.21694 | 9.93192 | 8 | 45 |  |  |  |
| 16 | 9.71519 | 21 | 9.78334 | 29 | 0.21666 | 9.93184 |  | 44 |  |  |  |
| 17 | 9.71 539 | 21 | 9.78363 | 28 | 0.21637 | 9.93177 | 8 | 43 |  | 21 | 20 |
| 18 | 9.71560 | 21 | 9.78391 | 28 | 0.21609 | 9.93169 | 8 | 42 | I | 2.1 | 2.0 |
| 19 | 9.71581 | 21 | 9.78419 | $29$ | 0.21581 | 9.93161 | 8 | 41 | 2 | 4.2 | 4.0 |
| 20 | 9.71602 |  | 9.78448 |  | 0.21552 | 9.93154 |  | 40 | 3 | 6.3 | 6.0 |
| 21 | 9.71622 | 21 | 9.78476 |  | 0.21524 | 9.93146 | 8 | 39 | 4 | 8.4 | 8.0 |
| 22 | 9.71643 | 2 I | 9.78505 | 28 | 0.21495 | 9.93138 | 8 | 38 | 5 | 10.5 | 10.0 |
| 23 | 9.71664 | 21 | 9.78533 | 28 | 0.21467 | 9.93131 | 7 | 37 | 6 | 12.6 | 12.0 |
| 24 | 9.71685 | 20 | 9.78562 | 28 | $0.2143^{8}$ | 9.93123 | $8$ | 36 | 7 |  | 14.0 |
| 25 | 9.71705 | 21 | 9.78590 | 28 | 0.21410 | 9.93 I 15 |  | 35 |  |  | 16.0 |
| 26 | 9.71726 | 21 | 9.78618 | 28 | 0.21382 | 9.93108 | 8 | 34 |  |  |  |
| 27 | 9.71747 | 20 | 9.78647 | 28 | 0.21353 | 9.93100 | 8 | 33 |  |  |  |
| 28 | 9.71767 | 21 | 9.78675 | 29 | $0.2132 \overline{5}$ | 9.93092 | 8 8 | 32 |  |  |  |
| 29 | 9.71788 | 21 | 9.78704 | 29 | 0.21296 | 9.93084 | 8 | 3 I |  |  |  |
| 30 | 9.71809 | 20 | 9.78732 | 28 | 0.21268 | 9.93077 | 8 | 30 |  | 8 | 7 |
| 31 | 9.71829 | 21 | 9.78760 | 29 | 0.21240 | 9.93069 | 8 | 29 | 1 | 0.8 | 0.7 |
| 32 | 9.71850 | 21 | 9.78789 | 28 | 0.21211 | 9.93061 | 8 | 28 | 2 | 1.6 | 1.4 |
| 33 | 9.71870 |  | 9.78817 | 28 | 0.21183 | 9.93053 |  | 27 | 3 | 2.4 | 2.1 |
| 34 | 9.71891 | 20 | 9.78845 | $29$ | 0.21155 | 9.93046 | 7 | 26 | 4 | 3.2 | 2.8 |
| 35 | 9.71911 | 21 | 9.78874 |  | 0.21126 | 9.93038 | 8 8 | 25 | 5 | 4.0 | $3 \cdot 5$ |
| 36 | 9.71932 | 20 | 9.78902 | 28 | 0.21098 | 9.93030 | 8 | 24 | 6 | 4.8 | 4.2 |
| 37 | 9.71952 | 21 | 9.78930 | 29 | 0.21070 | 9.93022 | 8 | 23 | 7 |  |  |
| 38 | 9.71973 | 21 | 9.78959 |  | 0.21041 | 9.93014 | 8 | 22 |  | 6.4 |  |
| 39 | 9.71994 | 20 | 9.78987 | 28 | 0.21013 | 9.93007 | 8 | 21 |  |  |  |
| 40 | 9.72 O14 | 20 | 9.79015 | 28 | 0.20985 | 9.92999 | 8 | 20 |  |  |  |
| 41 | 9.72034 | 21 | 9.79043 |  | 0.20957 | 9.92 991 | 8 | 19 |  |  |  |
| 42 | $9.7205 \overline{5}$ |  | 9.79072 |  | 0.20928 | 9.92983 | $7$ | 18 |  |  |  |
| 43 | 9.72075 | 20 | 9.79100 | $28$ | 0.20900 | 9.92976 | 8 | 17 |  |  |  |
| 44 | 9.72096 | 20 | 9.79128 | 28 | 0.20872 | 9.92968 | 8 | 16 |  |  |  |
| 45 | 9.72116 | 21 | 9.79156 |  | 0.20844 | 9.92960 | 8 | 15 |  |  |  |
| 46 | 9.72137 | 20 | 9.79183 | $29$ | 0.20815 | 9.92952 | 8 | 14 | 8 | 8 | 8 |
| 47 | 9.72157 | 20 | 9.79213 | 28 | 0.20787 | 9.92944 | 8 | 13 | 30 | - 29 | 28 |
| 48 | 9.72177 |  | 9.79241 | 28 28 | 0.20759 | 9.92936 | $7$ | 12 |  |  |  |
| 49 | 9.72198 | 21 | 9.79269 | 28 | 0.20731 | 9.92929 | 8 | 11 | 1 | 1.8 |  |
| 50 | 9.72218 | 20 | 9.79297 | 28 | 0.20703 | 9.92921 | 8 | 10 | 2 | 5.4 | 5.2 |
| 51 | 9.72238 | 21 | 9.79326 | 28 | 0.20674 | 9.92913 | 8 | 8 | 313 | + 12.7 | 8.8 12.2 |
| 52 | 9.72259 | 20 | 9.79354 | 28 | 0.20646 | 9.92905 | 8 | 8 | 416 | 16.3 | 15.8 |
| 53 | 9.72279 | 20 | 9.79382 | 28 | 0.20618 | 9.92897 | 8 | 7 | ${ }_{5} 5120.6$ | 19.3 | 19.2 |
| 54 | 9.72299 | 21 | 9.79410 | 28 | 0.20590 | 9.92889 | 8 | 6 | ${ }^{6}$ 24.4 | 23.6 | 22.8 |
| 55 | 9.72320 | 20 | 9.79438 | 28 | 0.20562 | 9.92881 | $7$ | 5 | 7828.1 | 27.2 | 26.2 |
| 56 | 9.72340 | 20 <br> 21 <br> 20 <br> 20 | 9.79466 | $\begin{aligned} & 29 \\ & 28 \\ & 28 \\ & 28 \end{aligned}$ | 0.20534 | 9.92874 | 8 | 4 |  |  |  |
| 57 | 9.72360 |  | 9.79495 |  | 0.20505 | 9.92866 | 8 | 3 |  |  |  |
| 58 | 9.72381 |  | 9.79523 |  | 0.20477 | 9.92858 | 8 | 2 |  |  |  |
| 59 | 9.7240 I |  | 9.79551 |  | 0.20449 | 992850 | 8 | 1 |  |  |  |
| 60 | 9.72421 |  | 9.79579 |  | $0.204^{21}$ | 9.92842 |  | 0 |  |  |  |
|  | L. Cos. | d. | L. Cot. | c. d. | L. Tan. | L. Sin. | d. | , |  | P. P. |  |




|  | L. Sin. | d. | L. Tan. | c. d. | L. Cot. | L. Cos. | d. |  | P. P. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 9.74756 | 19 | 9.82899 | 27 | 0.17101 | 9.91857 | 8 | 60 |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 9.74775 |  | 9.82926 |  | 0.17074 | 9.911 849 | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \\ & 8 \end{aligned}$ | $\left.\begin{array}{\|} 59 \\ 58 \end{array} \right\rvert\,$ |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 9.74794 |  | 9.82953 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | 0.17047 | $9.91840$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 9.74812 | 19 | 9.82980 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 28 \end{aligned}$ | 0.17020 | $9.91832$ |  | 57 |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | 9.74831 0.74850 | 19 | 9.83008 |  | $0.16992$ | 9.91823 | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \\ & 8 \end{aligned}$ | 56 |  |  | 27 |  |
| 5 | 9.74850 | 18 | 9.83035 9.83062 | 27 27 | 0.16965 | 9.91 815 | 9 | 55 |  | 2.8 | . 7 |  |
|  | 9.74 | 19 | 9.83062 | 27 | 0.16938 | 9.91806 | 8 | 54 |  | 5.6 | 5.4 |  |
| 7 | 9.74887 9.74906 | 19 | 9.83089 9.83117 |  | 0.16911 | 9.91798 | 9 | 53 |  | 8.4 11.2 10 | 8.1 |  |
| 9 | 9.74924 | 18 | 9.83144 |  | -. 16856 | 9.91781 | 8 | 51 |  | 14.01 | 3.51 |  |
| 10 | 9.74943 | 18 | 9.83171 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | 0.16829 | 9.91772 |  | 50 |  | 16.81 | , |  |
| 11 | 9.74961 |  | 9.83198 | $27$ | 0.16802 | 9.91763 |  | 49 |  | 19.6 | 8.918 |  |
| 12 | 9.74980 | 19 | 9.83225 | 2728 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.10775 \\ & 0.16748 \end{aligned}$ | 9.91755 | 8 | $4^{8}$ |  | 22.4 | 1.620 |  |
| 13 | 9.74999 | 19 | $9.8325^{2}$ |  |  | 9.91746 | 8 | 47 |  | 22 | 3 |  |
| 14 | 9.75017 | 19 | $9.83280^{\circ}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.16720 \\ & 0.16693 \end{aligned}$ | 9.91738 | 9 | 46 |  |  |  |  |
| 15 | 9.75036 | 18 | 9.83307 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ |  | 9.91729 | 9 | 45 |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | 9.75054 | 18 | 9.83334 | $27$ | 0.16666 | 9.91720 |  | 44 |  |  |  |  |
| 17 | 9.75073 | 18 | 9.83361 |  | 0.16639 | 9.91712 |  | 43 |  |  |  |  |
| 18 | 9.75091 | 19 | 9.83388 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | -0. 16585 | 9.91703 | 8 | 41 |  |  |  |  |
| 19 | 9.75110 | 18 | 9.83415 |  |  | 9.91695 |  |  | 2 | 3.8 |  |  |
| 20 | 9.75128 |  | 9.83442 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | 0.16558 | 9.91686 |  | 40 | 3 | 5.7 |  |  |
| 21 | 9.75147 | 18 | 9.83470 |  | 0.16530 | 9.91677 | 8 | 39 |  |  |  |  |
| 22 | 9.75165 | 18 | 9.83497 | 27 27 | 0.16503 | 9.91669 | 8 | 38 |  | 9.5 |  |  |
| 23 | 9.75184 | 18 | $9.835^{24}$ | $27$ | 0.16476 | 9.91660 |  | 37 |  | 11.4 |  |  |
| 24 | 9.75202 |  | 9.83551 |  | 0.16449 | 9.91651 | 8 | 36 | 8 | 15.2 |  |  |
| 25 | 9.75221 | 18 | 9.83578 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | 0.16422 | 9.91643 | 9 | 35 |  | 17.1 |  |  |
| 26 | 9.75239 | 19 | 9.83605 |  | 0.16395 | 9.91634 |  | 34 |  |  |  |  |
| 27 | $9.75{ }^{258}$ | 18 | 9.83632 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \\ & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | 0.16368 | 9.91625 | 8 | 33 |  |  |  |  |
| 28 | 9.75276 | 18 | 9.83659 |  | 0.163410.16314 | 9.91617 |  | 32 |  |  |  |  |
| 29 | 9.75294 | 19 | 9.83686 |  |  | 9.91608 |  | 31 |  |  |  |  |
| 30 | 9.75313 | 18 | 9.83713 | 27 | 0.16287 | 9.91599 | 8 | 30 |  |  |  |  |
| 31 | 9.75 331 |  | 9.83740 | 28 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.16260 \\ & 0.16232 \end{aligned}$ | 9.91591 |  | 29 |  | $1{ }^{1} 0.9$ | 8 |  |
| 32 | 9.75350 | 18 | 9.83768 |  |  | 9.91582 |  | 28 |  | 21.8 |  |  |
| 33 | 9.75368 | 18 | 9.83795 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 0.16205 | 9.91573 | 8 | 27 |  |  |  |  |
| 34 | 9.75386 |  | 9.83822 |  | $0.16151$ | 9.91565 |  | 26 |  |  |  |  |
| 35 | 9.75405 | 18 | 9.83849 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ |  | 9.91556 |  | 25 |  |  |  |  |
| 36 | 9.75423 | 18 | 9.83876 |  | $0.16124$$0.16097$ | 9.91547 |  | 24 |  | 7 |  |  |
| 37 <br> 38 | 9.7544 I | 18 | 9.83903 9.83930 |  |  | 9.91538 | 8 | 23 |  | , |  |  |
| 38 | 9.75459 | 19 | 9.83930 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | 0.16070 0.16043 | 9.91530 |  | 22 21 |  | 18 |  |  |
| 39 | 9.75478 | 18 | 9.83957 |  |  | 9.91521 |  | 21 |  |  |  |  |
| 40 | 9.75496 | 18 | 9.83984 | 27 | 0.16016 | 9.91512 | 8 | 20 |  |  |  |  |
| 41 | 9.75514 |  | 9.84011 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.15989 \\ & 0.15962 \end{aligned}$ | 9.91504 |  | 19 |  |  |  |  |
| 42 | 9.75533 | 18 | 9.84038 |  |  | 9.91495 |  | 18 |  |  |  |  |
| 43 | $9.75565^{1}$ | 18 | 9.84063 | 27 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.15935 \\ & 0.15908 \end{aligned}$ | 9.91486 |  | 17 |  |  |  |  |
| 44 | 9.75569 | 18 | 9.84092 |  |  | 9.91477 |  | 16 |  |  |  |  |
| 45 | 9.75587 | 18 | 9.84119 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | 0.15881 | 9.91469 |  | 15 |  |  |  |  |
| 46 | 9.75605 | 19 | 9.84146 |  | 0.15854 | 9.91460 |  | 14 |  |  |  |  |
| 47 | 9.75624 | 18 | $9.84173$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | 0. 15827 | $9.91451$ |  | 13 |  | 28 |  |  |
| 48 | 9.75642 9.75660 | 18 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.84200 \\ & 9.84227 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.15800 \\ & 0.15773 \end{aligned}$ | 9.91442 9.91433 | 9 | 12 |  |  | 28 |  |
| 49 | 9.75660 | 18 | $\frac{9.84227}{9.84254}$ |  |  | 9.91433 | 8 | 10 |  |  |  |  |
| 50 | 9.75678 | 18 | 9.84254 | 26 | 0.15746 | 9.91425 | 9 | 10 |  | 4.7 | 5.2 |  |
| 51 | 9.75696 | 18 | 9.84280 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.15720 \\ & 0.15693 \end{aligned}$ | 9.91416 |  | 8 | 3 |  |  |  |
| 52 53 | 9.75 714 9.75733 | $19$ | 9.84307 9.84334 |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 9.9 \mathrm{y} 407 \\ & 9.91398 \end{aligned}$ | 9 | 8 |  | 14.0 | 15.8 |  |
| 54 | 9.75751 | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \\ & 18 \end{aligned}$ | 9.84361 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.15639 \\ & 0.15612 \end{aligned}$ | 9.91389 | 9 8 | 6 |  | 17.1 | 1 |  |
| 55 | 9.75769 | $18$ | 9.84388 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ |  | 9.91381 | 8 |  |  | 20.2 23.3 | 22.8 |  |
| 56 | 9.75787 |  | 9.84415 |  | 0.15585 | 9.91372 | 9 | 4 |  | 26.4 |  |  |
| 57 | 9.75805 | 18 | 9.84442 | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \\ & 27 \\ & 27 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.15558 \\ & 0.15531 \end{aligned}$ | 9.91363 | 9 | 3 | 9 |  |  |  |
| 58 | 9.75823 |  | 9.84469 |  |  | 9.91354 | 9 | 2 |  |  |  |  |
| 59 | 9.75841 | 18 | 9.84496 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.15504 \\ & \hline 0.15477 \end{aligned}$ | 9.91345 |  | 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 60 | 9.75859 |  | 9.84523 |  |  | 9.91336 |  | 0 |  |  |  |  |
|  | L. Cos. | d. | L. Cot. | c. d. | L. Tan. | L. Sin. | d. | , |  |  | P. |  |


|  | L. Sin. | d. | L. Tan. | c. d. | L. Cot. | L. Cos. | d. |  |  | P. P. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 9.75859 | 18 | $9.845^{23}$ |  | 0.15477 | 9.91336 | 8 | 60 |  |  |  |
| 1 | 9.75877 | 18 | 9.84550 | 26 | 0.15450 | 9.91328 |  | 59 |  | 27 | 26 |
| 2 | 9.75895 | 18 | 9.84576 | 27 | 0.15424 | 9.91319 | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \\ & 9 \end{aligned}$ | 58 | 1 | 2.7 | 2.6 |
| 3 | 9.75913 | 18 | 9.84603 | 27 | 0.15397 | 9.91310 | 9 | 57 | 2 | 5.4 | 5.2 |
|  | 9.75931 | 18 | 9.84630 | 27 | 0.15370 | 9.91301 | 9 | 56 | 3 | ${ }_{10}^{8.1}$ | 7.8 |
| 5 | 9.75949 | 18 | 9.84657 | 27 | 0.15343 0.15316 | 9.91292 | 9 | 55 | 4 | 10.8 | 10.4 |
|  |  | 18 | 9.84684 | 27 | -.11 |  | 9 | 54 | 5 | 10.8 16.2 | 13.6 15.6 |
| 8 | 9.76003 | 18 | 9.84738 | 27 26 | 0.15262 | 9.91266 | 8 | 52 | 7 | 18.9 | 18.2 |
|  | 9.76021 | 18 | 9.84764 |  | 0.15236 | 9.91257 | 9 | 51 | 8 | 21.6 | . 8 |
| 10 | 9.76039 | 18 | 9.84791 |  | 0.15209 | 9.91248 |  | 50 | 9 | 4.3 | 3.4 |
| 11 | 9.76057 | 18 | 9.84818 |  | 0.15182 | 9.91239 |  | 49 |  |  |  |
| 12 | 9.76075 | 18 | 9.84845 | 27 27 | 0.15155 | 9.91230 | 9 | 48 |  | 18 | 17 |
| 13 | 9.76093 | 18 | 9.84872 | 27 | 0.15128 | 9.91221 | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \\ & 9 \end{aligned}$ | 47 | 1 | 1.8 | 1.7 |
| 14 | 9.76111 | 18 | 9.84899 | 26 | 0.15 101 | 9.91212 | $9$ | 46 | 2 | 3.6 | 3.4 |
| 15 | 9.76129 | 17 | 9.84925 | 27 | 0.15075 | 9.91203 | 9 | 45 | 3 | 5.4 | 5.1 6.8 |
| 16 | 9.76146 | 18 | 9.84952 | 27 | 0.15048 | 9.91194 | 9 | 44 | 4 | 9.0 | 8.5 |
| 17 | 9.76164 | 18 | 9.84979 | 27 | 0.15021 | 9.91185 | 9 | 43 | 6 | 10.8 | 10.2 |
| 18 | 9.76182 | 18 | 9.85006 | 27 | 0.14994 0.14967 | 9.91176 | 9 | 42 | 7 | 12.6 | 1.9 |
| 20 | 9.76218 | 18 | 9.85059 | 26 | 0.14941 | 9.91158 | 9 | 40 | 8 | 14.4 | 13.6 |
| 21 | 9.76236 |  | 9.85086 |  | 0.14914 | 9.91149 | 9 | 39 |  |  | 15.3 |
| 22 | 9.76253 | 17 | 9.85113 | 7 | 0.14887 | 9.91141 | 8 | 38 |  |  |  |
| 23 | 9.76271 | 18 | 9.85140 | 26 | 0.14860 | 9.91132 | 9 | 37 |  |  |  |
| 24 | 9.76289 | 18 | 9.85166 | 27 | 0.14834 | 9.91123 | 9 | 36 |  | 2.0 | 1. 6 |
| 25 | 9.76307 | 17 | 9.85193 | 27 | 0.14807 | 9.91114 | 9 | 35 |  | 3.0 |  |
| 26 | 9.76324 | 18 | 9.85220 | 27 | 0.14780 | 9.91105 |  | 34 |  | 4.0 | 3.2 |
| 27 | 9.76342 | 18 | 9.85247 | 27 | 0.14753 | 9.91096 |  | 33 |  | $5.0 \quad 4.5$ |  |
| 28 | 9.76360 | 18 | 9.85273 | 27 | 0.14727 | 9.91087 |  | 32 |  | - |  |
| 29 | 9.76378 | 17 | 9.85300 | 27 | 0.14700 | 9.91078 |  | 31 |  | . 0 |  |
| 30 | 9.76395 | 18 | 9.85327 | 27 | 0.14673 | 9.91069 |  | 30 |  | 8.0 |  |
| 31 | 9.76413 | 18 | 9.85354 | 26 | 0.14646 | 9.91060 |  | 29 |  |  |  |
| 32 | 9.76431 | 17 | 9.85380 | 27 | 0.14620 | 9.91051 |  | 28 |  |  |  |
| 33 | 9.76448 | 18 | 9.85407 | 27 | 0.14593 | 9.91042 |  | 27 |  |  |  |
| 34 | 9.76466 | 18 | 9.85434 | 26 | 0.14566 | 9.91033 |  | 26 |  |  |  |
| 35 | 9.76484 |  | 9.85460 | 27 | 0.14540 | 9.91023 |  | 25 |  | 0 | 10 |
| 36 | 9.76501 | 18 | 9.85487 | 27 27 | 0.14513 | 9.91014 |  | 24 |  | 27 | 26 |
| 37 | 9.76519 | 18 | 9.85514 | 26 | $0.14486$ | $9.91005$ |  |  | I |  |  |
| 38 39 | 9.76537 <br> 9.76554 <br> .7657 | 17 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.85540 \\ & 9.85567 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 27 27 | $0.14460$ $0.14433$ | 9.90996 9.90987 | 9 | 22 21 | 1 |  | 3.9 |
| 40 | 9.76572 | 18 | 9.85594 | 27 | 0.14406 | 9.90978 | 9 | 20 | 3 |  | . 5 |
| 41 | 9.76590 |  | 9.85620 |  | 0.14380 | 9.90969 |  | 19 | 4 | 12.2 | 11.7 |
| 42 | 9.76607 | 18 | 9.85647 | 27 27 | 0.14 1353 | 9.90960 |  | 18 | 5 | 14.8 | 14.3 |
| 43 | 9.76625 | 17 | 9.85674 | 26 | 0.14326 | $9.9095{ }^{1}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \\ & 9 \end{aligned}$ | 17 | 7 | 17.6 | 16.9 |
| 44 | 9.76642 | 18 | 9.85700 | 27 | 0.14300 | 9.90942 | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \\ & 9 \end{aligned}$ | 16 | 8 | 20.2 | 19.5 |
| 45 | 9.76660 9.76677 | 17 | 9.85727 9.85754 | 27 | 0.14273 <br> 0.14246 | 9.90933 9.90924 | 9 | 15 |  |  | .1 |
| 47 | 9.76695 | 18 | 9.85780 | 26 | 0.14220 | 9.90915 | 9 | 14 | 10 |  |  |
| 48 | 9.76712 | 17 | 9.85807 | 27 | 0.14193 | 9.90906 | 10 | 12 |  |  |  |
| 49 | 9.76730 | 17 | 9.85834 | 27 26 | 0.14166 | 9.90896 |  | 1 |  |  |  |
| 50 | 9.76747 | 18 | 9.85860 |  | 0.14140 | 9.90887 |  | 10 |  |  |  |
| 51 | 9.76765 |  | 9.85887 | 26 | 0.14113 | 9.90878 |  |  | 1 | 1. 5 | 1.4 |
| 52 | 9.76782 9.76800 | 18 | 9.85913 | 27 | 0.14087 | 9.90869 9.90860 | 9 | 8 | 2 | 4.5 | 4.3 |
| 53 | 9.76800 |  | 9.85940 | 27 | 0.14060 | 9.90860 | 9 | 7 | 3 |  | 7.2 10.1 |
| 54 | 9.76817 | 18 | 9.85967 | 26 | 0.14033 | 9.90851 | 9 | 6 | 4 | 10.5 13.5 | 10.1 13.0 |
| 55 | 9.76835 9.76852 | 17 | $9.85993$ | 27 | 0.14007 <br> 0.13980 | 9.90842 <br> 9.90832 | 10 | 5 | 5 | 16.5 | 15.9 |
| 56 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.76852 \\ & 9.76870 \end{aligned}$ | 18 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.86020 \\ & 9.86046 \end{aligned}$ | 26 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.13980 \\ & 0.13954 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9.90832 \\ & 9.90823 \end{aligned}$ | 9 | 4 | 7 | 19.5 | 8 |
| 58 | 9.76887 | 17 | 9.86073 | 27 | O.13927 | $\begin{aligned} & 9.9081 \\ & 9.90814 \end{aligned}$ | 9 | 3 2 2 | 8 | 22. |  |
| 59 | 9.76904 | 17 | 9.86100 |  | 0.13900 | 9.90805 | 9 | 1 |  |  |  |
| 60 | 9.76922 |  | 9.86126 |  | 0.13874 | 9.90796 |  | 0 |  |  |  |
|  | L. Cos. | d. | L. Cot. | c. d | L. Tan | L. Sin. | d. | , | P. P. |  |  |

$36^{\circ}$


$38^{\circ}$








## TABLES XVII., XVIII.

NATURAL TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS.

Natural Sines.

| Angle. | $0^{\prime}$ | $10^{\prime}$ | $20^{\prime}$ | $30^{\prime}$ | $40^{\prime}$ | $50^{\prime}$ | $60^{\prime}$ | Angle. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $0^{\circ}$ | . 000000 | . 002909 | . 005818 | .008727 | . 011635 | . 014544 | . 017452 | $89^{\circ}$ | 2.9 |
| 1 | . $01745^{2}$ | . 02036 | . 02327 | .0261 8 | . 02908 | .0319 9 | . 03490 | 88 | 2.9 |
| 2 | . 03490 | . 03781 | . 04071 | . 04362 | . 04653 | . 04943 | . 05234 | 87 | 2.9 |
| 3 | . 05234 | . 05524 | .0581 4 | . 06105 | . 06395 | . 06685 | . 06976 | 86 | 2.9 |
| 4 | . 06976 | . 07266 | . 07556 | . 07846 | . 08136 | . 08426 | .0871 6 | 85 | 2.9 |
| 5 | .0871 6 | .09005 | . 09295 | .09585 | . 09874 | .10164 | .10453 | 84 | 2.9 |
| 6 | . 10453 | . 10742 | . 11031 | . 11320 | .11609 | .11898 | .12187 | 83 | 2.9 |
| 7 | .12187 | . 12476 | . 12764 | .1305 3 | . 1334 | . 1363 | . 1392 | 82 | 2.9 |
| 8 | . 1392 | . 1421 | . 1449 | . 1478 | . 1507 | . 1536 | . 1564 | 81 | 2.9 |
| 9 | . 1564 | . 1593 | . 1622 | . 1650 | . 1679 | . 1708 | . 1736 | 80 | 2.9 |
| 10 | . 1736 | . 1765 | . 1794 | . 1822 | .1851 | . 1880 | . 1908 | 79 | 2.9 |
| 11 | . 1908 | . 1937 | .1965 | . 1994 | . 2022 | . 2051 | . 2079 | 78 | 2.9 |
| 12 | . 2079 | . 2108 | . 2136 | . 2164 | . 2193 | . 2221 | . 2250 | 77 | 2.8 |
| 13 | . 2250 | . 2278 | . 2306 | . 2334 | . 2363 | . 2391 | . 2419 | 76 | 2.8 |
| 14 | . 2419 | . 2447 | . 2476 | . 2504 | .2532 | . 2560 | .2588 | 75 | 2.8 |
| 15 | . 2588 | . 2616 | . 2644 | . 2672 | . 2700 | . 2728 | . 2756 | 74 | 2.8 |
| 16 | . 2756 | . 2784 | . 2812 | . 2840 | . 2868 | . 2896 | . 2924 | 73 | 2.8 |
| 17 | . 2924 | . 2952 | . 2979 | .3007 | . 3035 | . 3062 | . 3090 | 72 | 2.8 |
| 18 | . 3090 | .3118 | . 3145 | . 3173 | . 3201 | . 3228 | . 3256 | 71 | 2.8 |
| 19 | . 3256 | .3283 | . 3311 | . 3338 | .3365 | . 3393 | . 3420 | 70 | 2.7 |
| 20 | - 3420 | . 3448 | . 3475 | . 3502 | . 3529 | . 3557 | . 3584 | 69 | 2.7 |
| 21 | . 3584 | . 3611 | . 3638 | . 3665 | .3692 | . 3719 | . 3746 | 68 | 2.7 |
| 22 | . 3746 | . 3773 | . 3800 | . 3827 | .3854 | . 3881 | . 3907 | 67 | 2.7 |
| 23 | . 3907 | . 3934 | .3961 | .3987 | . 4014 | . 4041 | . 4067 | 66 | 2.7 |
| 24 | . 4067 | . 4094 | . 4120 | . 4147 | . 4173 | . 4200 | . 4226 | 65 | 2.7 |
| 25 | . 4226 | . 4253 | . 4279 | . 4305 | .433I | . 4358 | .4384 | 64 | 2.6 |
| 26 | . 4384 | . 4410 | . 4436 | . 4462 | . 4488 | . 4514 | . 4540 | 63 | 2.6 |
| 27 | . 4540 | . 4566 | . 4592 | . 4617 | . 4643 | . 4669 | . 4695 | 62 | 2.6 |
| 28 | . 4695 | . 4720 | . 4746 | . 4772 | . 4797 | . 4823 | . 4848 | 61 | 2.6 |
| 29 | . 4848 | .4874 | . 4899 | . 4924 | . 4950 | . 4975 | . 5000 | 60 | 2.5 |
| 30 | . 5000 | . 5025 | . 5050 | . 5075 | . 5100 | . 5125 | . 5150 | 59 | 2.5 |
| 31 | . 5150 | . 5175 | . 5200 | . 5225 | . 5250 | :5275 | . 5299 | 58 | 2.5 |
| 32 | . 5299 | . 5324 | . 5348 | . 5373 | . 5398 | . 5422 | . 5446 | 57 | 2.5 |
| 33 | . 5446 | . 5471 | . 5495 | . 5519 | . 5544 | . 5568 | . 5592 | 56 | 2.4 |
| 34 | .5592 | . 5616 | . 5640 | . 5664 | . 5688 | . 5712 | . 5736 | 55 | 2.4 |
| 35 | . 5736 | . 5760 | .5783 | . 5807 | . 5831 | . 5854 | .5878 | 54 | 2.4 |
| 36 | . 5878 | . 5901 | . 5925 | . 5948 | . 5972 | . 5995 | . 6018 | 53 | 2.3 |
| 37 | . 6018 | . 6041 | . 6065 | . 6088 | .6111 | . 6134 | .6157 | 52 | 2.3 |
| 38 | .6157 | .6180 | . 6202 | . 6225 | . 6248 | . 6271 | . 6293 | 51 | 2.3 |
| 39 | . 6293 | . 6316 | . 6338 | .636I | . 6383 | . 6406 | . 6428 | 50 | 2.3 |
| 40 | . 6428 | . 6450 | . 6472 | . 6494 | . 6517 | . 6539 | .656I | 49 | 2.2 |
| 41 | .656I | . 6583 | . 6604 | . 6626 | . 6648 | . 6670 | .6691 | 48 | 2.2 |
| 42 | .6691 | . 6713 | . 6734 | . 6756 | . 6777 | . 6799 | . 6820 | 47 | 2.2 |
| 43 | . 6820 | . 6841 | . 6862 | . 6884 | . 6905 | . 6926 | $.6947$ | $46$ | 2.1 |
| 44 | . 6947 | . 6967 | . 6988 | . 7009 | .7030 | . 7050 | .7071 | 45 | 2.1 |
|  | $60^{\prime}$ | $50^{\prime}$ | $40^{\prime}$ | $30^{\prime}$ | $20^{\prime}$ | $10^{\prime}$ | $0^{\prime}$ | Angle. |  |

Natural Sines.

| Angle. | $0^{\prime}$ | $10^{\prime}$ | 20' | $30^{\prime}$ | $40^{\prime}$ | $50^{\prime}$ | $60^{\prime}$ | Angle. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Prop. } \\ & \text { Parts } \\ & \text { for 1'. } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 45 | .7071 | .7092 | .7112 | .7133 | . 7153 | .7173 | .7193 | 44 | 2.0 |
| 46 | . 7193 | . 7214 | . 7234 | . 7254 | . 7274 | . 7294 | . 7314 | 43 | 2.0 |
| 47 | . 7314 | . 7333 | . 7353 | . 7373 | . 7392 | .7412 | .7431 | 42 | 2.0 |
| 48 | .7431 | .7451 | . 7470 | . 7490 | . 7509 | . 7528 | . 7547 | 41 | 1.9 |
| 49 | . 7547 | . 7566 | . 7585 | .7604 | .7623 | . 7642 | .7660 | 40 | 1.9 |
| 50 | . 7660 | . 7679 | . 7698 | . 7716 | . 7735 | . 7753 | .7771 | 39 | 1.9 |
| 51 | .7771 | . 7790 | . 7808 | . 7826 | . 7844 | . 7862 | . 7880 | 38 | 1.8 |
| 52 | . 7880 | . 7898 | . 7916 | . 7934 | . 7951 | . 7969 | . 7986 | 37 | 1. 8 |
| 53 | . 7986 | . 8004 | . 8021 | . 8039 | . 8056 | . 8073 | . 8090 | 36 | 1.7 |
| 54 | . 8 cgo | . 8107 | .8124 | .8141 | .8158 | .8175 | .8192 | 35 | 1.7 |
| 55 | . 8192 | . 8208 | . 8225 | . 8241 | . 8258 | . 8274 | . 8290 | 34 | 1.6 |
| 56 | . 8290 | . 8307 | . 8323 | . 8339 | . 8355 | . 8371 | . 8387 | 33 | 1. 6 |
| 57 | . 8387 | . 8403 | . 8418 | . 8434 | . 8450 | . 8465 | . 8480 | 32 | I. 6 |
| 58 | . 8480 | . 8496 | . 8511 | . 8526 | . 8542 | . 8557 | . 8572 | 31 | 1.5 |
| 59 | . 8572 | . 8587 | .8601 | . 8616 | .8631 | . 8646 | . 8660 | 30 | 1. 5 |
| 60 | . 8660 | . 8675 | . 8689 | . 8704 | . 8718 | . 8732 | . 8746 | 29 | 1.4 |
| 61 | . 8746 | . 8760 | . 8774 | . 8788 | . 8802 | . 8816 | . 8829 | 28 | 1.4 |
| 62 | . 8829 | . 8843 | . 8857 | . 8870 | . 8884 | . 8897 | . 8910 | 27 | 1.4 |
| 63 | . 8910 | . 8923 | . 8936 | . 8949 | . 8962 | . 8975 | . 8988 | 26 | 1.3 |
| 64 | . 8988 | . 9001 | . 9013 | . 9026 | . 9038 | .9051 | . 9063 | 25 | 1.3 |
| 65 | . 9063 | . 9075 | . 9088 | .9100 | . 9112 | . 9124 | .9135 | 24 | 1.2 |
| 66 | .9135 | . 9147 | . 9159 | .9171 | . 9182 | . 9194 | . 9205 | 23 | 1.2 |
| 67 | . 9205 | . 9216 | . 9228 | . 9239 | . 9250 | . 9261 | . 9272 | 22 | 1.1 |
| 68 | . 9272 | . 9283 | . 9293 | . 9304 | . 9315 | . 9325 | . 9336 | 21 | 1.1 |
| 69 | . 9336 | . 9346 | . 9356 | . 9367 | . 9377 | . 9387 | . 9397 | 20 | 1.0 |
| 70 | . 9397 | . 9407 | . 9417 | . 9426 | . 9436 | . 9446 | . 9455 | 19 | 1.0 |
| 71 | . 9455 | . 9465 | . 9474 | . 9483 | . 9492 | . 9502 | . 9511 | 18 | 0.9 |
| 72 | . 9511 | . 9520 | . 9528 | . 9537 | . 9546 | . 9555 | . 9563 | 17 | 0.9 |
| 73 | . 9563 | . 9572 | . 9580 | . 9588 | . 9596 | . 9605 | . 9613 | 16 | 0.8 |
| 74 | . 9613 | .9621 | . 9628 | . 9636 | . 9644 | . 9652 | . 9659 | 15 | 0.8 |
| 75 | . 9659 | . 9667 | . 9674 | .9681 | . 9689 | . 9696 | . 9703 | 14 | 0.7 |
| 76 | . 9703 | . 9710 | . 9717 | . 9724 | . 9730 | . 9737 | . 9744 | 13 | 0.7 |
| 77 | . 9744 | . 9750 | . 9757 | . 9763 | . 9769 | -9775 | . 9781 | 12 | 0.6 |
| 78 | . 9781 | . 9787 | . 9793 | . 9799 | . 9805 | .9811 | . 9816 | 11 | 0.6 |
| 79 | . 9816 | . 9822 | . 9827 | . 9833 | . 9838 | . 9843 | . 9848 | 10 | 0.5 |
| 80 | . 9848 | . 9853 | . 9858 | . 9863 | . 9868 | . 9872 | . 9877 | 9 | 0.5 |
| 81 | . 9877 | .9881 | . 9886 | . 9890 | . 9894 | . 9899 | . 9903 | 8 | 0.4 |
| 82 | . 9903 | . 9907 | . 9911 | . 9914 | . 9918 | . 9922 | . 9925 | 7 | 0.4 |
| 83 | . 9925 | . 9929 | . 9932 | . 9936 | . 9939 | . 9942 | . 9945 | 6 | 0.3 |
| 84 | . 9945 | . 9948 | . 9951 | . 9954 | . 9957 | . 9959 | . 9962 | 5 | 0.3 |
| 85 | . 9962 | . 9964 | . 9967 | . 9969 | . 9971 | . 9974 | . 9976 | 4 | 0.2 |
| 86 | . 9976 | . 9978 | . 9980 | .9981 | . 9983 | . 9985 | . 9986 | 3 | 0.2 |
| 87 | . 9986 | . 9988 | . 9989 | . 9990 | . 9992 | . 9993 | . 9994 | 2 | 0.1 |
| 88 | . 9994 | . 9995 | . 9996 | . 9997 | . 9997 | . 9998 | . 9998 | 1 | 0.1 |
| 89 | . 9998 | . 9999 | . 9999 | 1.0000 | 1.0000 | 1.0000 | 1.0000 | 0 | 0.0 |
|  | $60^{\prime}$ | $50^{\prime}$ | $40^{\prime}$ | $30^{\prime}$ | $20^{\prime}$ | $10^{\prime}$ | $0^{\prime}$ | Angle. |  |

Natural Tangents.

| Angle. | $0^{\prime}$ | $10^{\prime}$ | $20^{\prime}$ | $30^{\prime}$ | $40^{\prime}$ | $50^{\prime}$ | $60^{\prime}$ | Angle. | Prop. <br> Parts <br> for $1^{1}$. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $0^{\circ}$ | . 00000 | . 0029 I | . 00582 | . 00873 | . $11164{ }^{*}$ | . 01455 | . 101746 | $89^{\circ}$ | 2.9 |
| 1 | . 01746 | . 02036 | . 02328 | .026I 9 | . 02910 | . 03201 | . 03492 | 88 | 2.9 |
| 2 | . 03492 | . 03783 | . 04075 | . 04366 | . 04658 | . 04949 | . 05241 | 87 | 2.9 |
| 3 | . 05241 | . 05533 | . 05824 | . 06116 | .0640 8 | . 06700 | . 06993 | 86 | 2.9 |
| 4 | . 06993 | . 07285 | . 07578 | . 07870 | .0816 3 | . 08456 | . 08749 | 85 | 2.9 |
| 5 | . 08749 | . 09042 | . 09335 | . 09629 | . 09923 | . 10216 | . 10510 | 84 | 2.9 |
| 6 | .10510 | .1080 5 | . 11099 | .11394 | .11688 | .1198 3 | . 12278 | 83 | 2.9 |
| 7 | . 12278 | . 12574 | .12869 | .13165 | . 1346 | . 1376 | .1405 | 82 | 3.0 |
| 8 | . 1405 | . 1435 | . 1465 | . 1495 | . 1524 | . 1554 | . 1584 | 81 | 3.0 |
| 9 | . 1584 | .1614 | . 1644 | . 1673 | . 1703 | . 1733 | .1763 | 80 | 3.0 |
| 10 | . 1763 | . 1793 | . 1823 | . 1853 | . 1883 | . 1914 | . 1944 | 79 | 3.0 |
| II | . 1944 | . 1974 | . 2004 | . 2035 | . 2065 | . 2095 | . 2126 | 78 | 3.0 |
| 12 | . 2126 | . 2156 | . 2186 | . 2217 | . 2247 | . 2278 | . 2309 | 77 | 3.1 |
| 13 | . 2309 | . 2339 | . 2370 | . 2401 | .2432 | . 2462 | . 2493 | 76 | 3.1 |
| 14 | . 2493 | . 2524 | . 2555 | . 2586 | . 2617 | . 2648 | . 2679 | 75 | 3.1 |
| 15 | . 2679 | . 2711 | . 2742 | . 2773 | . 2805 | . 2836 | . 2867 | 74 | 3.1 |
| 16 | . 2867 | . 2899 | . 2931 | $\cdot .2962$ | . 2994 | . 3026 | . 3057 | 73 | 3.2 |
| 17 | . 3057 | .3089 | .3121 | . 3153 | . 3185 | . 3217 | . 3249 | 72 | 3.2 |
| 18 | . 3249 | . 3281 | . 3314 | . 3346 | . 3378 | -3411 | - 3443 | 71 | 3.2 |
| 19 | . 3443 | . 3476 | . 3508 | .3541 | . 3574 | .3607 | . 3640 | 70 | $3 \cdot 3$ |
| 20 | .3640 | .3673 | . 3706 | . 3739 | .3772 | .3805 | .3839 | 69 | $3 \cdot 3$ |
| 21 | .3839 | . 3872 | . 3906 | . 3939 | . 3973 | . 4006 | . 4040 | 68 | 3.4 |
| 22 | . 4040 | . 4074 | . 4108 | . 4142 | . 4176 | . 4210 | . 4245 | 67 | 3.4 |
| 23 | . 4245 | . 4279 | . 4314 | . 4348 | .4383 | .4417 | . 4452 | 66 | 3.5 |
| 24 | . 4452 | .4487 | . 4522 | . 4557 | . 4592 | . 4628 | . 4663 | 65 | 3.5 |
| 25 | . 4663 | . 4699 | . 4734 | . 4770 | . 4806 | . 4841 | .4877 | 64 | 3.6 |
| 26 | . 4877 | . 4913 | . 4950 | . 4986 | . 5022 | . 5059 | . 5095 | 63 | 3.6 |
| 27 | . 5095 | .5132 | . 5169 | . 5206 | . 5243 | . 5280 | . 5317 | 62 | 3.7 |
| 28 | . 5317 | . 5354 | . 5392 | . 5430 | . 5467 | . 5505 | . 5543 | 61 | 3.8 |
| 29 | . 5543 | .5581 | . 5619 | . 5658 | .5696 | . 5735 | . 5774 | 60 | 3.8 |
| 30 | . 5774 | . 5812 | .5851 | . 5890 | . 5930 | .5969 | . 6009 | 59 | 3.9 |
| 31 | . 6009 | . 6048 | . 6088 | . 6128 | . 6168 | . 6208 | . 6249 | 58 | 4.0 |
| 32 | . 6249 | . 6289 | . 6330 | .6371 | . 6412 | . 6453 | . 6494 | 57 | 4.1 |
| 33 | . 6494 | . 6536 | . 6577 | . 6619 | .6661 | . 6703 | . 6745 | 56 | 4.2 |
| 34 | . 6745 | .6787 | . 6830 | . 6873 | . 6916 | . 6959 | . 7002 | 55 | $4 \cdot 3$ |
| 35 | -7002 | . 7046 | .7089 | .7133 | .7177 | .7221 | .7265 | 54 | 4.4 |
| 36 | . 7265 | .7310 | . 7355 | . 7400 | . 7445 | . 7490 | . 7536 | 53 | 4.5 |
| 37 | . 7536 | .7581 | .7627 | .7673 | . 7720 | . 7766 | .7813 | 52 | 4.6 |
| 38 | .7813 | .7860 | .7907 | . 7954 | . 8002 | . 8050 | . 8098 | 51 | $4 \cdot 7$ |
| 39 | . 8098 | .8146 | .8195 | . 8243 | . 8292 | . 8342 | . 8391 | 50 | 4.9 |
| 40 | . 8391 | . 8441 | . 8491 | .8541 | . 8591 | . 8642 | . 8693 | 49 | 5.0 |
| 41 | . 8693 | . 8744 | . 8796 | . 8847 | . 8899 | . 8952 | . 9004 | 48 | 5.2 |
| 42 | . 9004 | . 9057 | . 91110 | . 9163 | . 9217 | .9271 | . 9325 | 47 | 5.4 |
| 43 | . 9325 | .9380 | . 9435 | . 9490 | . 9545 | .9601 | . 9657 | 46 | 5.5 |
| 44 | . 9657 | .9713 | . 9770 | . 9827 | . 9884 | . 9942 | 1.0000 | 45 | $5 \cdot 7$ |
|  | $60^{\prime}$ | $50^{\prime}$ | $40^{\prime}$ | $30^{\prime}$ | $20^{\prime}$ | $10^{\prime}$ | $0^{\prime}$ | Angle. |  |

Natural Tangents.

| Angle. | $0^{\prime}$ | $10^{\prime}$ | $20^{\prime}$ | $30^{\prime}$ | $40^{\prime}$ | $50^{\prime}$ | $\epsilon 0^{\prime}$ | Angle. | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { Prop. } \\ & \text { Parts } \\ & \text { for } 1 \text {. } \end{aligned}\right.$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $45^{\circ}$ | 1.0000 | 1.0058 | 1.0117 | 1.0176 | 1.0235 | 1.0295 | 1.0355 | 44 | 5.9 |
| 46 | 1.0355 | 1.0416 | 1.0477 | 1.0538 | 1.0599 | 1.0661 | 1.0724 | 43 | 6.1 |
| 47 | 1.0724 | 1.0786 | 1.0850 | 1.0913 | 1.0977 | 1.1041 | 1.1106 | 42 | 6.4 |
| 48 | 1.1106 | 1.1171 | 1.1237 | 1.1303 | 1.1369 | 1.1436 | 1.1504 | 41 | 6.6 |
| 49 | 1.1504 | 1.1571 | 1.1640 | 1.1708 | $1.177^{8}$ | 1.1847 | 1.1918 | 40 | 6.9 |
| 50 | 1.1918 | 1.1988 | 1.2059 | 1.2131 | 1.2203 | 1.2276 | 1.2349 | 39 | 7.2 |
| 51 | 1.2349 | 1.2423 | 1.2497 | 1.2572 | 1.2647 | 1.2723 | 1.2799 | 38 | 7.5 |
| 52 | 1.2799 | 1.2876 | 1.2954 | 1.3032 | 1.3111 | 1.3190 | 1.3270 | 37 | 7.9 |
| 53 | 1.3270 | 1.3351 | 1.3432 | 1.3514 | 1.3597 | 1.3680 | 1.3764 | 36 | 8.2 |
| 54 | 1.3764 | 1.3848 | 1.3934 | 1.4019 | 1.4106 | 1.4193 | 1.4281 | 35 | 8.6 |
| 55 | 1.428I | 1.4370 | 1.4460 | 1.4550 | 1.4641 | 1.4733 | 1.4826 | 34 | 9.1 |
| 56 | 1.4826 | 1.4919 | 1.5013 | 1.5108 | 1.5204 | 1.5301 | 1.5399 | 33 | 9.6 |
| 57 | 1.5399 | 1.5497 | 1.5597 | 1.5697 | 1.5798 | 1.5900 | 1.6003 | 32 | 10.1 |
| 58 | 1.6003 | 1.6107 | 1.6212 | 1.6319 | 1.6426 | 1.6534 | 1.6643 | 31 | 10.7 |
| 59 | 1. 6643 | 1. 6753 | 1. 6864 | 1. 6977 | 1.7090 | 1.7205 | 1.7321 | 30 | ${ }^{11} .3$ |
| 60 | 1.7321 | 1.7437 | $1.755^{6}$ | 1.7675 | 1.7796 | 1.7917 | 1.8040 | 29 | 12.0 |
| 61 | 1.8040 | 1.8165 | 1.8291 | 1.8418 | 1.8546 | 1.8676 | 1.8807 | 28 | 12.8 |
| 62 | 1.8807 | 1.8940 | 1.9074 | 1.9210 | 1.9347 | 1.9486 | 1.9626 | 27 | 13.6 |
| 63 | 1.9626 | 1.9768 | 1.9912 | 2.0057 | 2.0204 | 2.0353 | 2.0503 | 26 | 14.6 |
| 64 | 2.0503 | 2.0655 | 2.0809 | 2.0965 | 2.1123 | 2.1283 | 2.1445 | 25 | 15.7 |
| 65 | 2.1445 | 2.1609 | 2.1775 | 2.1943 | 2.2113 | 2.2286 | 2.2460 | 24 | 16.9 |
| 66 | 2.2460 | 2.2637 | 2.2817 | 2.2998 | 2.3183 | 2.3369 | 2.3559 | 23 | 18.3 |
| 67 | 2.3559 | 2.3750 | 2.3945 | 2.4142 | 2.4342 | 2.4545 | 2.4751 | 22 | 19.9 |
| 68 | 2.4751 | 2.4960 | 2.5172 | 2.5386 | 2.5605 | 2.5826 | 2.6051 | 21 | 21.7 |
| 69 | 2.6051 | 2.6279 | 2.6511 | 2.6746 | 2.6985 | 2.7228 | 2.7475 | 20 | 23.7 |
| 70 | 2.7475 | 2.7725 | 2.7980 | 2.8239 | 2.8502 | 2.8770 | 2.9042 | 19 |  |
| 71 | 2.9042 | 2.9319 | 2.9600 | 2.9887 | 3.0178 | 3.0475 | 3.0777 | 18 |  |
| 72 | 3.0777 | 3.1084 | 3.1397 | 3.1716 | 3.2041 | 3.2371 | 3.2709 | 17 |  |
| 73 | 3.2709 | $3.305^{2}$ | 3.3402 | 3.3759 | 3.4124 | 3.4495 | 3.4874 | 16 |  |
| 74 | 3.4874 | 3.5261 | 3.5656 | 3.6059 | 3.6470 | 3.6891 | 3.732 I | 15 |  |
| 75 | 3.7321 | 3.7760 | 3.8208 | 3.8667 | 3.9136 | 3.9617 | 4.0108 | 14 |  |
| 76 | 4.0108 | 4.0611 | 4.1126 | 4.1653 | 4.2193 | 4.2747 | 4.3315 | 13 |  |
| 77 | 4.3315 | 4.3897 | 4.4494 | 4.5107 | 4.5736 | 4.6382 | 4.7046 | 12 |  |
| 78 | 4.7046 | 4.7729 | 4.8430 | 4.9152 | 4.9894 | 5.0658 | 5.1446 | 11 |  |
| 79 | 5.1446 | 5.2257 | $5 \cdot 3093$ | $5 \cdot 3955$ | 5.4845 | $5 \cdot 5764$ | 5.6713 | 10 |  |
| 80 | 5.6713 | 5.7694 | 5.8708 |  | 6.0844 | 6.1970 | 6.3138 | 9 |  |
| 81 | 6.3138 | 6.4348 | 6.5606 | 6.6912 | 6.8269 | 6.9682 | 7.1154 | 8 |  |
| 82 | 7.1154 | 7.2687 | 7.4287 | 7.5958 | 7.7704 | 7.9530 | 8.1443 | 7 |  |
| 83 | 8.1443 | 8.3450 | 8.5555 | 8.7769 | 9.0098 | 9.2553 | 9.5144 | 6 |  |
| 84 | 9.5144 | 9.7882 | 10.0780 | 10.3854 | 10.7119 | 11.0594 | 11.4301 | 5 |  |
| 85 | 11.4301 | 11.8262 | 12.2505 | 12.7062 | 13.1969 | 13.7267 | 14.3007 | 4 |  |
| 86 | 14.3007 | 14.9244 | 15.6048 | 16.3499 | 17.1693 | 18.0750 | 19.0811 | 3 |  |
| 87 | 19.08r I | 20.2056 | 21.4704 | 22.9038 | 24.5418 | 26.4316 | 28.6363 | 2 |  |
| 88 | 28.6363 | 31.2416 | 34.3678 | 38.1885 | 42.9641 | 49.1039 | 57.2900 | 1 |  |
| 89 | 57.2900 | 68.7501 | 85.9398 | 114.5887 | 171.8854 | 343.7737 | $\infty$ | - |  |
|  | $60^{\prime}$ | $50^{\prime}$ | $40^{\prime}$ | $30^{\prime}$ | $20^{\prime}$ | $10^{\prime}$ | $0^{\prime}$ | Angle. |  |

Natural Cotangents.









PLATE VI


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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Clarke's spheroid of 1880 . The values as found for Clarke's spheroid of 1866 are those generally used by geodesists. They are: shorter, $41,710,242$ feet; longer, $41,852,124$ feet.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ This formula has been developed by Prof. J. B. Johnson.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ Let the student compute the error arising in a ten-chain line from placing the end of the chain first six inches on one side of the line and then six inches on the other side, throughout the measurement.

[^3]:    Example. In the above example it is found that the run of the bubble is one inch. Find the radius of curvature of the bubble tube.

    Other methods of finding the angular value of a division of the tube will be suggested in the problems on Chapters III. and IV.

    Many of the level vials found on compasses, and on the lower plates of many other instruments, are not graduated, are ground to short radii, and not uniformly, and hence are not fit for accurately leveling the instruments to which they are attached; but such bubbles are cheaper than others, and when placed on a compass or other instrument not intended for highclass work, they are sufficiently precise for the purpose for which they are used.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Let the student make a diagram showing this.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ For a discussion of the principles of telescopes see any good book on Physics.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ Students unfamiliar with these terms can find their meaning in any good dictionary or encyclopædia, in any text-book on Physics, or in Baker's "Engineer's Surveying Instruments."

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ Let the student show why.

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ The student should show this with a diagram.

[^9]:    R'M'D SURV. - $^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ The principle on which this adjustment depends is stated in Art. 28.
    ${ }^{2}$ See Art. 40.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ Stanley's " Surveying and Leveling Instruments."

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Appendix, 10, "United States Coast and Geodetic Survey Report" for 1881.

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ The student should show the correctness of these statements by a diagram.

[^14]:    1 For an extended article on this subject see "United States Coast and Geodetic Survey Report" for 1882.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ The "Nautical Almanac" is published by the Navy Department at Washington. The portion relating to the sun's declination is published separately by W. \& I. E. Gurley and by G. N. Saegmuller, and perhaps by other instrument makers.

[^16]:    ${ }^{1}$ The same is true of any known star.

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ See " Engineering News," August 2, 1894.

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Chapter VI.

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, Engineering Series, Vol. I. No. 5.

[^20]:    ${ }^{1}$ Least square demonstration of this rule will be found in Wright's "Adjustment of Observations."

[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ The student should draw a diagram showing this.

[^22]:    ${ }^{1}$ The student should prove this.

[^23]:    1 The student will be able to show the truth of this rule.

[^24]:    1 The same as supplying a wanting course, Art. 136.

[^25]:    ${ }^{1}$ This problem is the same as supplying two wanting lengths.

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ The tables of Bremicker or Vega are recommended for work requiring great precision. Gauss or Crockett are recommended for five-place tables.

[^27]:    ${ }^{1}$ The student should draw the triangle.

[^28]:    ${ }^{1}$ Written by C. W. Crockett, C. E., A. M., Professor of Mathematics in the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute.

[^29]:    ${ }^{1}$ In all cases when the result cannot be read, the slide is shifted over the length of its scales, since this merely changes the characteristic.

[^30]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{Mr}$. Thacher has devised two simple statements that give the settings for all the expressions in Art. 173 with the exception of the third.

[^31]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is intended only to illustrate the principle of the instrument.

[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ See "Judicial Functions of Surveyors," by Judge Cooley, Appendix, pages 341-350.
    ${ }^{2}$ These and many other decisions may be found in a valuable "Manual of Land Surveying," by Hodgman and Bellows.

[^33]:    ${ }^{1}$ For model example, applied to city property, see Appendix, page 328 . The student may tell how to proceed if the bearings and lengths are all given, with but two corners known, and lines so grown over or occupied by structures that they can not be run out directly without great labor,

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ A list of base lines and principal meridians will be found in the Appendix, pages $357-360$.
    ${ }^{2}$ See the " Manual of Surveying Instructions" for detail of methods.

[^35]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{He}$ will also be much helped by a book entitled "Manual of Land Surveying" by Hodgman and Bellows. This work contains the gist of many court decisions and instructions, resulting from many years' experience in this work. Dorr's "Surveyor's Guide" will also be found to contain many practical suggestions.

[^36]:    ${ }^{1}$ Consult Appendix, page 354.

[^37]:    ${ }^{1}$ See an excellent paper by J. Stübben, of Cologne, Germany, in Vol. XXIX., "Transactions American Society Civil Engineers."

[^38]:    ${ }^{1}$ Let the student show that this procedure locates the point $C$ on the curve.

[^39]:    ${ }^{1}$ Let the student draw a figure of a curve carrying it to the half circle and show why the $180^{\circ}$ point could not be definitely located from the beginning.

[^40]:    ${ }^{1}$ Any other setting could be used, tut it is considered better in this method to set at zero.

[^41]:    ${ }^{1}$ The student should make a programme for observations by this method.

[^42]:    ${ }^{1}$ Triangulation station.

[^43]:    ${ }^{1}$ The degree numbering should be continued on this figure to $360^{\circ}$, and the signs for latitnde and longitude differences, marked on each quadrant of numbers. Let the student show how this numbering should be placed, and write the proper signs.

[^44]:    ${ }^{1}$ Modification of a form suggested by Prof. J. B. Johnson.

[^45]:    ${ }^{1}$ An excellent work on "Topographical Drawing and Surveying" is that by Lieutenant Henry S. Reed, U.S.A.

    2 Other requirements for land maps will be found in Appendix, page 355.

[^46]:    ${ }^{1}$ It is only necessary that the two shall have a fixed angle in azimuth.

[^47]:    1 The student should show that $\frac{h_{1}+h_{2}+h_{8}}{3}$ is the length of the element through the center of gravity of the bases.

[^48]:    ${ }^{1}$ Let the student show the truth of this statement for the sphere and both spheroids of revolution.
    ${ }^{2}$ Prismoid end areas are not necessarily similar. They are here assumed to be so for simplicity.

[^49]:    ${ }^{1}$ The student should show how to do this, using Fig. 135.

[^50]:    ${ }^{1}$ Francis's "Lowell Hydraulics."

[^51]:    ${ }^{1}$ Taken from "A Glossary of Mining and Metallurgical Terms" by R. W. Raymond, mining engineer.

[^52]:    1 Azimuth.
    2 That is, the direction of the vertical plane in which the amount of the dip is measured is at right angles.

[^53]:    ${ }^{1}$ From Brough's "Treatise on Mine Surveying."

[^54]:    ${ }^{1}$ An important point in favor of the three-tripod system, wheu long tapes are used for measuring, is that all ordinary distances may be measured from center of the telescope to center of back-sight or fore-sight flame, the vertical angle being read and noted. Having then the length of the line of sight and its angle, the true horizontal distance between stations is easily calculated. Oftentimes this is a mnch safer course than to rely on presumably horizontal measurements along the floor of the gangways.
    J. J. Ormsbee, Mining Engineer.

[^55]:    ${ }^{1}$ The problems here given were furnished the author by Mr. John H. Myers, Jr., A.B., C.E., Assistant Engineer Department of Public Works, Brooklyn, N.Y. The examples are from practice in New York City and were treated as here indicated,

[^56]:    ${ }^{1}$ Kindly furnished the author by Mr. Price.

[^57]:    ${ }^{1}$ A paper prepared for the Michigan Society of Surveyors and Engineers.

[^58]:    ${ }^{1}$ Since this address was delivered, some of these questions have received the attention of the Supreme Court of Michigan in the cases of Richardson v. Prentiss, 48 Mich. Reports, 88, and Backus v. Detroit, Albany Law Journal, vol. 26, p. 428.

[^59]:    ${ }^{1}$ Computed from Tables I. and IV., Appendix 10, "U. S. Coast Survey Report" for 1881.
    ${ }^{2}$ Sum of Observed Temperatures.
    ${ }^{8}$ Correction Coeflicient.

[^60]:    ${ }^{1}$ Taken from Appendix 10, "U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey Report" for 1881, .

[^61]:    ${ }^{1}$ From "Manual of Instructions" issued by the U. S. Land Otice to Surveyors General.

[^62]:    ${ }^{1}$ Computed from information contained in the "Manual of Instructions" issued by the General Land Office. The information was furnished by the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.

[^63]:    ${ }^{1}$ Abbreviated from the Smithsonian Geographical Tables.

