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**An account of the life, writings, and inventions of John Napier of Merchiston**

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Section II. Napier's bones.

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SUCH was the state of arithmetical computation, at the time of the invention of the Logarithms, which, as Napier himself says, *Omnem illam pristinae matheos difficultatem penitus e medio tollit; et ad sublevandam memoriæ imbecillitatem ita se accomodat, ut illius adminiculo facile sit, plures quæstiones mathematicas unius horæ spatio, quam pristinia et communiter recepta forma sinuum, tangentium et secantium, vel integro die absolvere* \*. But before we proceed to this most important discovery, we shall give an account of those ingenious contrivances, intended to answer the same purpose, which previously occurred to Napier.

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## S E C T I O N II.

### NAPIER'S BONES.

THE first of these mechanical devices is what our author calls *Rabdologia*, or the art of computing by figured rods. These rods are square parallelepipeds three inches in length, and three tenths in breadth. Each of the faces of these parallelepipeds is divided into ten equal parts, of which nine are squares and in the middle, and half of the tenth at one extremity or the top, and half at the other extremity or the bottom. Every one of these squares is cut by a diagonal from left to right upwards. At the top of each face is some one of the ten digits 0, 1, 2, 3, &c.

IN

\* *Log. Canon. descriptio. in dedic.*

IN the first square below that digit is repeated, in the second is its double, in the third it's triple, and so on. Of these multiples of the digit, the figure of units is below, and the figure of tens above the diagonal. The meaning of what has been just said will be evident by a little attention to Fig. I. where the four faces of each rod of the set, recommended by Napier, are unfolded. By means of these rods the operations of multiplication and division are performed by addition and subtraction.

THE rule for multiplication is—Bring the rods to form the multiplicand at the top of their upper face. Join a rod, having unity at the top of its upper face, to the right or left hand side; in which seek the right hand figure of the multiplier, and write out the numbers corresponding thereto in the square of the other faces, by adding the several numbers occurring in the same rhomboid. Seek the second figure of the multiplier and proceed in the same manner: arrange and add the numbers wrote out, as in common multiplication; the sum is the product required. To multiply 1785 by 364, for example, I dispose the proper rods as in Fig. II.; next to 4 (the first right hand figure of the multiplier) I find 0; in the contiguous rhomboid 2 and 2, which added together make 4; in the next 3 and 8 which make 1 and a surplus of ten; and in the last 2 and 4 which, together with unity for the ten I had in the former rhomboid, make 7. These numbers 0, 4, 1, 7, I set down one after the other as I find them, proceeding from right to left. I go on in the same manner with 6 and 3 (the other figures of the multiplier); and, after arranging and adding the partial products I find the total product required. Thus,

$$\begin{array}{r}
 364 \\
 \hline
 7140 \\
 10710 \\
 5355 \\
 \hline
 649740
 \end{array}$$

*The rule for division.* BRING the rods to form the divisor at the top of their upper face. Join a rod having unity at the top of its upper face, to the right or left hand side. Descend under the divisor till you meet those figures of the dividend wherein it is first required how often the divisor is found, or the next less number, which subtract from the first figures of the dividend, and put for the first figure of the quotient the corresponding number on the side face. Bring down, one after the other, the remaining figures of your dividend as in common division, and proceed in the same manner till you have finished the operation. Let it, for example, be required to divide 649740 by 364. I dispose the rods as in Fig. III. The next less number under the divisor 364 to 649 (the first figures of the dividend) I find to be 364 itself which I subtract from 649 putting 1, the number corresponding on the side face, for the first figure of my quotient: to my remainder 285 I bring down 7 the next figure of my dividend. The next less number to 2857 under the divisor I find to be 2548, which I subtract from 2857, putting 7, the number corresponding in the side face, for the second figure of the quotient. I go on in the same manner till I have brought down the other figures of the dividend and completed my quotient as follows.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 H \qquad \qquad \qquad 649740
 \end{array}$$

649740 (1785

364

2857

2548

3094

2912

1820

1820

(0)

ALTHOUGH the extraction of the square and cube roots may be pretty expeditiously performed by the rods, Napier proposes an auxiliary lamella for the abridgement of it. It would serve little purpose to give a particular description of the lamella, or an account of the manner of using it. Its length and thickness are the same with those of the rods, and its breadth quadruple. Its two faces are divided and marked as in Fig. IV. To find out the way of operating by it will be no difficulty to any body who is a little acquainted with arithmetic and has time to spare.

ANOTHER of Napier's contrivances is his *multiplicationis promptuarium*.

THIS machine consists of a box of figured lamellæ. The lamellæ, two hundred in number, are each eleven inches in length and one inch in breadth. Each of these lamellæ is divided into eleven equal parts of which ten in the middle are squares, and two thirds of the eleventh at one

one extremity, and one third at the other. Every one of these squares is divided into nine less squares, one hundred of the lamellæ are each one fourth of an inch in thickness, and the other hundred one eighth. Suppose the former, which we shall call direct lamellæ, placed so that the greater margin may appear at top and the less at bottom; and the latter which we shall call transverse, placed laterally, with the greater margin to the right and the less to the left hand. In this position every square appears cut by a diagonal (faint in the small but strong in the great ones) from the left to right upwards. Each of every ten both of the direct and of the transverse lamellæ has some one of the ten digits 0, 1, 2, 3, &c. inscribed on its greater margin. The multiples of the digit on the margin of a direct lamella are disposed in each of its greater squares as pointed out by Fig. V. where  $a$  represents the digit itself,  $b$  the right hand figure, and  $b'$  the left hand figure of its double;  $c$  and  $c'$  the right and left hand figures of its triple (the plain letters being above and the accented ones below the diagonal of the figure);  $d$  and  $d'$  those of its quadruple, and so on. In the transverse lamellæ those which have 0 on the margin are untouched; those which have unity on the margin have the locus corresponding to  $a$  cut out; those which have two on the margin have the loculi of 6 and 6' cut out; those which have 3 the loculi of  $c$  and  $c'$ ; those which have 4 the loculi of  $d$  and  $d'$ , &c. This will be sufficiently evident by inspecting Fig. VI. where it is exemplified in a direct lamella titled with the digit 4, and in a transverse one with 7. The box fitted to receive these lamellæ is of a cubical form; something more than eleven inches wide and nearly eight inches high; see Fig. VII. Two of its contiguous sides, which we shall distinguish by the names of left and right, are  
divided

divided into twenty parts, each equal in length to the breadth of ten lamellæ, and in height to the thickness of a direct and of a transverse lamella alternately. The greater divisions on the left side are cut out, and the less on the right side. Into the box through each of the former, with their titled ends foremost, ten direct lamellæ of the same title are inserted with their untitled ends foremost, and an equal number of the transverse ones of the same title, through each of the latter. Those titled *o* are in the uppermost divisions, and those titled 1, 2, 3, &c. in the respective divisions below.

*Multiplication by the promptuary is performed as follows.* THE first, or right hand, second, third, &c. figure of the multiplicand is exhibited by the title of a lamella taken from the first, or right hand, second, third, &c. column of the left side of the box and placed on its lid exactly above and as it lay in that column. The empty space, if any, towards the left is to be covered with blank lamellæ. The first, or right hand, second, third, &c. figure of the multiplier is exhibited by the title of a lamella taken from the first, or left hand, second, third, &c. column of the right side of the box and placed on the former lamella exactly above, and as it lay in that column. The remaining spaces, if any, towards the right are to be covered with blank lamellæ. All the useful multiples on the direct lamellæ appear through the *fenestellæ*, and all the useless multiples are hid. All the numbers beginning at the corner next the first or right hand figures of the multiplicand and multiplier, lying between the united strong diagonals, are to be added severally; the right hand figures of the sums, marked down; and 1 for every 10, carried to the next place, till we come to the opposite

site

site corner: and the work is done. This operation, we trust, is described with sufficient accuracy and plainness to supersede the necessity of an example. In order that division may be performed by the Promptuary, it must first be converted into multiplication by means of tables dressed on purpose, or of tables of the sines, tangents and secants, constructed on the hypothesis of the radius being equal to unity, followed by a certain number of Zeros. That this may be accomplished by these last, look for the co-secant, or co-tangent of the arc which has the divisor for its sine or tangent. Make the co-secant or co-tangent found the multiplicand, and the dividend the multiplier; or conversely. Find the product by the promptuary as above directed. This product, a number of the right hand figures according to the number of zeros in the square of the radius being marked off as decimals, is the quotient required. The reason of this is obvious: the co-secants or co-tangents being third proportionals to the sines or tangents and the radius or unity; to multiply any number by one of the two first, or to divide it by the corresponding one of the two second of these lines, is one and the same thing.

I

LOCAL

## LOCAL ARITHMETIC.

LOCAL Arithmetic, another ingenious invention of Napier, is the art of calculating by means of counters properly placed on a chess-board, or similar table. Two contiguous margins (which we shall distinguish by the names of left or inferior, and right or lateral) of that table, are divided into a number of parts equal to that of their adjoining squares. The inferior divisions beginning at the right and the lateral at the left have successively inscribed in them the successive terms of the geometrical progression 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, &c. which are called local numbers.

COMMON numbers are reduced to local by subtraction, and local numbers to common by addition. The common number 1875, for example, expressed in local numbers will be found to be 1024; 512; 256; 64; 16; 2 and 1: and *vice versa*. The first of these reductions is necessary before, and the second after any of the operations of common arithmetic are performed by this contrivance. By the help of a very simple table, reduction may be performed with ease and expedition.

*To Add.* PUT a counter for each local number in the proper place on the lateral or on the inferior margin of your table. For every two counters found in the same place, put one in the next higher, after removing *them*. Repeat this till no place shall contain more than one counter. The counters left indicate the numbers required. Thus let it be required to find the sum 1875; 258, and 1099. I put the coun-

ters at 1024; 512; 256; 64; 16; 2 and 1, the local numbers of the first; at 256, and 2, those of the second; and at 1024; 64, 8, 2, and 1, those of the third. At 1.—I find two counters which I remove, and put a counter at 2 where I find other three. I take up these four and put two, in the next place 4 &c. and proceeding in this manner I find at last a counter at each of the following numbers 2048; 1024; 128, and 32, which form 3232 the sum sought.

*To Subtract.* PUT a counter for each local number of the greater of the two quantities, at its proper place, a little to one side, on the inferior margin; and one for each of the local numbers of the less of the two quantities, at its proper place, a little to the other side, on the same margin. Remove the counters found on opposite sides of the same place. Change the side of the lowest counter remaining; take off that above it; and put a counter in each place between them. Remove as before. Repeat this till there shall be no counters on one of the sides of the margin; and those on the other will indicate the remainder. Let it be proposed, for example, to subtract 1099 from 1875. I put counters at 1024; 64; 8; 2 and 1, to the left of the lateral margin, and at 1024; 512; 256; 64; 16; 2 and 1, to the slit of that margin. Finding a counter on each side of the numbers 1024; 64; 2, and 1, I remove them. My lowest counter is to the left of 8. I put it to the right and take up 16. above it; as there are no intermediate places, and as the remaining counters are on the same side of the margin my operation is finished. The remainder is 512; 256, and 8; or 776.

MULTIPLICATION,

MULTIPLICATION, Division, and the extraction of the square root, may also be performed on the margin: but they are performed with much greater ease and clearness on two contiguous margins and the squares of the table. On these last the counters have two different movements; the one parallel to the sides like that of the tour, and the other diagonal like that of the bishop, on the chess board. Every square of the table is said to have for its value one of the equal numbers (on the two margins) between which it lies diagonally. The two sides of a square formed by counters in the area of the table, parallel to the inferior and lateral margins, we shall call a Gnomon: this gnomon consisting of 3, 5, 7, &c. counters is said to be congruous when its value can be subtracted from the numbers left marked upon the margin.

*To Multiply.* MARK with counters the local multiplier in the inferior and the local multiplier in the lateral margin. From the middle of the marked places let points be supposed to move perpendicularly into the table, and put a counter at each intersection. Remove the counters on the margins. Bring the counters in the squares of the tables to their values in one of the margins; add, if necessary, and the work is done. Suppose, for example, 19 is to be multiplied by 13. I mark with counters Fig. VIII. the numbers 1, 2, and 16, on the inferior and the numbers 1, 4, and 8, on the lateral margin, having placed other counters rectangularly in the table, I remove the marginal ones. Those other counters I bring up, one by one, to their proper places in the lateral margin; and, after adding, I find a counter at each  
of

of the following numbers, 128; 64; 32; 16; 4; 2, and 1, which form my product, 247.

*To Divide.* MARK with counters the local dividend in the lateral, and the local divisor in the inferior margin, beginning at the square where a point, descending diagonally from the angle above the highest number of the dividend, would intersect a point ascending perpendicularly from the highest number of the divisor; place a series of counters parallel to the divisor: If this series is equal or inferior in value to the higher number of the dividend subtract it from them; and if otherwise, bring it down one, two, &c. steps and subtract. Repeat the operation till either nothing, or at least a numberless than the divisor, shall remain on the lateral margin. These serieses point to the numbers that form the quotient. For example let it be required to divide 250 by 13. I mark, Fig. IX. the numbers 128; 64; 32; 16; 8; and 2, in the lateral, and 8; 4, and 1 in the inferior margin.

My first series points to 16. I subtract it from the dividend and find remaining 32; 8, and 2.

My next series pointing to 4 is too great to be subtracted, for which reason I bring it a step farther down.

AFTER subtracting, there remains 16. In the same manner my third series pointing to 2 I must bring to point to 1; which subtracted, there remains counters on the dividend at 2 and 1. My quotient is therefore 16; 2, and 1, or 19; and 2 and 1, or 3 over.

*To extract the square root.* MARK the number locally in the lateral margin. From the angle formed by the meeting of the inferior line with the lateral, let a point ascend diagonally till it arrive in a square of the same value with the highest number that can be subtracted from the number whose square root is sought. In this square place a counter, and subtract its value from the number marked in the margin. Form the congruous gnomons, which from the foresaid square have each their upper counter in a line perpendicular and their left hand inferior one in a line parallel to the lateral margin: and subtract their value one by one from the marked remainders. The counters, lying perpendicularly to either of the margins, point out the square root. Let it be proposed, for example, to find the square root of 2209; I mark the numbers 2048; 128, 32, and 1 on the lateral margin. Fig. X. Subtracting the value 1024 of the first counter placed in the table as directed, the remainders are 1024, 128, 32 and 1. From these taking the value 512 and 64 of the first congruous gnomon, there remain 512, 64, 32 and 1. From these taking the value of the second congruous gnomon 256, 64 and 16, there remain 64, 16, 8, 4 and 1: and from these taking the value of the fourth congruous gnomon, 64, 16, 8, 4 and 1, there remains nothing. The square root, as indicated by the direction of the counters in the table, is 32, 8, 4, 2 and 1, or 47.

WHAT is above said will, it is hoped, be sufficient to give a clear idea of the form and use of those of Napier's arithmetical instruments, which seemed to him worthy of being communicated to the public. The reasons on which the different operations are founded, depending upon the construction of the machines and the obvious properties of numbers,

bers, must occur to every reader endowed with a moderate share of attention. The hint of the rods, or *virgulæ numeratrices* and of the promptuary which is only an improvement of the rods, seems to have been taken from the *Abacus Pythagoricus* or common multiplication table. Napier's acquaintance with chess, the most ingenious of all games, and at which mathematicians are commonly the best players, occasioned his discovery of the *Arithmetica localis*. The Promptuary, at least for multiplication, is greatly preferable to the rods and the chess board; for the partial products of two numbers, consisting of even ten Figures each, may, by a little practice, be exhibited on that machine in the space of a minute, and no numbers require to be written out, excepting the total product. Had the logarithms remained undiscovered, the promptuary, in all probability, would have become universally familiar to those who were engaged in tedious calculations. But to those who are acquainted with the logarithms, Napier's arithmetical machines and those afterwards invented, a few of which we shall enumerate, although the monuments of genius, must, in general, be regarded as mathematical curiosities of no use.

PERHAPS put into the hands of young people learning arithmetic, they might make them fond of that study.

SHICKARTUS in a letter to Kepler, written in the year 1623, informs him that he had lately constructed a machine consisting of eleven entire and six mutilated little wheels, by which he performed the four arithmetical operations\*, Pascal, in the year 1642, at the age of nine-

teen,

\* Kepl. Epist. p. 683.

teen, invented a machine with which all kinds of computations may be made without the pen, without counters, and without the knowledge of any rule of arithmetic. I have not been able to meet with any description of it. It must however have been of a very complicated nature as its author was two years in bringing it to perfection, owing to the difficulty he found to make the workmen understand him thoroughly \*. The French writers agree in calling it admirable; † but the name of Pascal perhaps does it more honour than it deserves. This machine is preserved in the cabinet of the king of France and in those of a few others ‡.

THE Marquis of Worcester, a man of genius but a plagiarist, mentions in his scantlings of inventions, published in the year 1655, an instrument whereby persons ignorant in arithmetic may perfectly observe numerations and subtractions of all sums and fractions §. Whether he here refers to some of Napier's instruments, to Gunter's scale, of which I shall afterwards speak, or to some invention of his own is uncertain.

ABOUT the year 1670, \*\* Sir Samuel Moreland contrived two arithmetical instruments; one for addition and subtraction, and the other for multiplication, division, and the extraction of the square, cube, and square cube roots, the description of which he published at London, anno 1671 ††.

MUCH

\* Les hommes illustres par Perrault vie de Pascal. † Bayle *Chaussepie*, Baillet, Perrault, &c.  
‡ *Pref. Pensées de Pascal.* § N° 84. *Glag. Edit.* 1767.

\*\* Moreland's Instrument of excellent use as well at sea as at land, invented and variously experimented in the year 1670, Lond. 1671. Fol.

†† See also *Phil. Transact.* N° 94. p. 6048.

MUCH about the same time, Mr George Brown, afterwards Minister of Kilmaures in Scotland, invented a machine which, in his account of it published at Edinburgh in the year 1700, he calls the *Rotula Arithmetica*. This machine consists of a box containing a circular plane moveable on a center pin and fixed ring, whose circles are described from the same center. The outermost circular band of the moveable, and the innermost of the fixed, are each divided into a hundred equal parts, and these parts are numbered 0, 1, 2, 3, &c. Upon the ring there is a small circle having its circumference divided into ten equal parts, furnished with a needle which shifts one part at every revolution of the moveable. By this simple instrument are performed the four arithmetical operations not only of integers but even of decimals finite and infinite\*.

SOME time before Mr Brown's little book appeared, Mr Glover had published a *Roue Arithmetique* similar to the *Rotula* but not so perfect. It would appear however that that gentleman had got some hints of the construction of the *Rotula* from a brother of his own who had been one of Brown's pupils in 1674 †.

IN the year 1725, an instrument invented by M. de l'Epine of a more simple construction and easier in its operations than Pascal's; in 1730, another by Mr Boiffendeau, by which calculation is performed without writing; and in 1738 a third by Mr Rauslin, consisting of rods different from those of Napier, were approved of by the French academy ‡.

L

SAM

\* One of these machines is in the library belonging to the faculty of advocates at Edinburgh.

† Rot. Arithm. Pref. ‡ See the Paris memoirs for these years. Histoire.

SAM Reyer invented, at what time I have not been able to learn, a kind of sexagenal rods in imitation of Napier's, by which sexagenary arithmetic is easily performed\*.

I have an arithmetical machine which came into my possession from my uncle George Lewis Erskine who, though born deaf, by the assistance of the learned Henry Baker of the Royal Society at London, acquired not only the use of speech and the learned languages but a deep acquaintance with useful literature. This machine consists of a small square box furnished with six cylinders moveable round their axes. Upon each of these cylinders, which are only Napier's rods, are engraven the ten digits, and their multiples. From a perpetual almanac on the out side of the box, it would appear that this machine was constructed in the year 1679.

## SECTION

\*See Chamber's Diction. Article Arithmetic.