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Prop:
 Having an equation of 2 dimensions
 to find w^t crooke line it is ~~the~~ whose area
 it doth expresse. suppose y^e equation is
 $\frac{x^3}{a} = y$. naming y^e quantities, $a = dk = kl$. ~~the~~
 $dg = y$. $db = mk = x = gp$. y^e superficies $dbg = \frac{x^3}{a}$
 suppose y^e square $dkkl$ is equall to y^e superfie
 ces gpd ; y^e $dk = km = lk = \frac{x^3}{a}$. & $aa = x^2$.
 which is an equation expressing y^e nature of
 y^e line find. ~~a line with which point at right angles~~
 Next making $am = g$, $nd = v$. ~~English~~
 $ss - vv + 2vx - xx = \frac{x^6}{a^4}$ which is an
 equation having 2 equall
 roots & therefore multiply
 according to Hudde's
 method, produce another
 $2vx = 2xx + \frac{x^6}{a^4}$
 $v = x + \frac{3x^5}{a^4}$ &
 $nb = v - x = \frac{3x^5}{a^4}$. Now supposing $mb : bn :: db : dg$.
 $3xx = ay$.
 that is, $\frac{3x^5}{a^4} : \frac{x^3}{a} :: y : ga$. $3xx = a^2y$.
 which is y^e nature of y^e line dgw & y^e area
 $dbg = dklk = \frac{x^3}{a}$, making $db = x$. $dk = a$. or
 $dvw = dnoh = \frac{x^3}{a}$, determining di to be $6y(x)$. &c
 The Demonstration whereof is as
 followeth
 suppose $w = R$, $Am = z$, fu &c are tangents
 of y^e line inf . & from their intersections z, R, v
 draw va, zq . Rs, vx . ~~parallel~~ & from their touch
 points draw $fw, mg, \frac{z}{2}$. all parallel to sp .
 also from y^e same point of intersection draw
 $vo, \frac{z}{2}, \frac{R}{2}, \frac{v}{2}$.

Notizen von Newton

A Method whereby to find y^e areas
 of those Lines w^{ch} can be squared.

Prop. 1. If $ab = \frac{x^2}{a}$, $y = bc$, $cd = z$, $d = v$ constant.
 m, n are numbers expressing y^e dimension
 of x, y , or z . a, b, c, d are known
 quantities. & $\frac{ax^m}{b} = yz$. y^e max^t $\frac{ax^m}{b} =$
 $\frac{mzx^{m-1}}{n} = v$. Or in generall
 what ever y^e relation betw^x x & z be,
 make all y^e termes equall to nothing,
 multiply each term by so many times
 z as x hath dimensions in y^e term,
 for a Numerator; & multiply each
 term by so many times $-x$ as
 z hath dimensions in y^e term for
 a Denominator in y^e value of v .

Prop. 2. If $hi = v$, & $rv = y$. y^e hi & h & i & dv are
 equall spaces high, or thick & $abcf$, that is $abcf$ is

Prop. 3. If $ax^m = by^n$, or $\frac{ax^m}{b} = y$. y^e is $\frac{mx}{n+m} =$
 $\frac{m}{n+m} \frac{ax^m}{b} = abcf$ y^e area of y^e line inf . Or if
 $\frac{ax^m}{b} = y$ y^e is $\frac{mx}{n+m} = \frac{ma}{n+m} \frac{ax^{m-1}}{b} = abcf = \frac{ma}{n+m} \frac{ax^m}{b}$

Demonstration.
 For $\frac{ax^m}{b} = y$. ~~the~~ Suppose $abhi$ is a small
 rectangle is equall to $\frac{m}{n+m} \frac{ax^m}{b}$. y^e $\frac{m}{n+m} \frac{ax^m}{b} = ax^2$.
 & (prop 1) $\frac{ax^m}{b} = \frac{mx}{n+m} = v$. & (prop 2) $rv = y$. y^e is
 $\frac{ax^m}{b} = y$.

G.W. LEIBNIZ :A NEW METHOD FOR FINDING MAXIMA AND MINIMA...

From Actis Erud. Lips. Oct. 1684. p. 467-473

Transl. with notes by Ian Bruce, 2014

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MATHEMATICA; N°. XIII.

A NEW METHOD

FOR FINDING MAXIMA AND MINIMA,

and likewise for tangents, and with a single kind of calculation for these, which is hindered neither by fractions nor irrational quantities.

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Let AX be the axis, & several curves, such as VV , WW , YY , ZZ , of which the ordinates normal to the axis shall be VX , WX , YX , ZX , which may be called respectively v , w , y , z ; and the abscissa for the axis AX may be called x . The tangents shall be XB , XC , XD , XE meeting with the axis at the points B , C , D , E respectively. Now some right line taken arbitrarily may be called dx , and the right line which shall be to dx , as v (or w , y , z , respect.) is to VB (or WC , YD , ZE , respect.)

[A confusing error was corrected in 1695 as the lengths VB , WC , YD , ZE were used originally.]

may be called dv (or dw , dy , dz , respect.), or the differentials

[Leibiz preferred to call these differences rather than differentials]

of v (or of w , y , z themselves respect.).

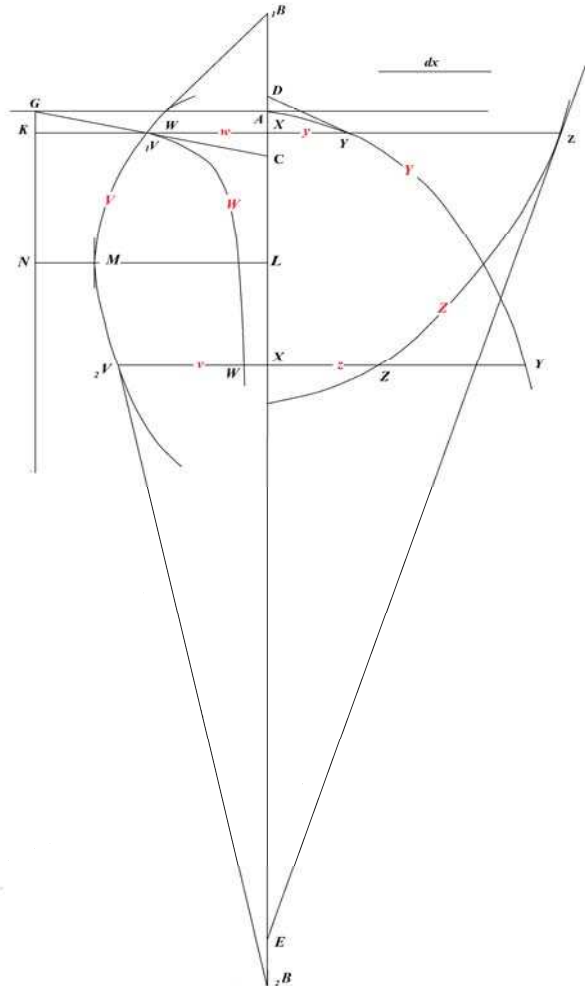
With these put in place the rules of the calculation are as follows:

Let a be a given constant quantity,

da will be equal to 0, and dax will

be equal to adx : if y shall be equal to v (or the ordinate of some curve YY , equal to the corresponding ordinate of any curve VV) dy will be equal to dv .

Now for *Addition and Subtraction* : if $z - y + w + x$ shall be equal to v , $dz - dy + dw + dx$ shall be equal to dv .



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Multiplication : $d\sqrt{xy}$ equals $xdv + vdx$, or by putting y equal to xv , dy becomes equal to $xdv + vdx$. For by choice there is either a formula, such as xv , or a letter such as y to be used as a short-cut. It is required to be noted both x and dx are to be treated in the same manner in this calculation, as y and dy , or another indeterminate letter with its differential. It should be noted also, a regression [*i.e.* a return to the original expression, or the inverse process of integration] cannot to be given always for a differential equation, unless with a certain caution, about which more elsewhere.

Again for *Division*, $d\frac{v}{y}$ or (on putting z equal to $\frac{v}{y}$) dz equals $\frac{\pm vdy \mp ydv}{yy}$.

[*L.* was later to abandon this unnecessary complication of using ambiguous signs for the division rule, as the method moved away from being geometrical to algebraic, where the signs were treated according to the usual rules.]

Because here the *signs* are to be noted properly, since in the calculation of its differential for the simpler letter to be substituted, indeed for the same sign to be kept, and for $+z$ write $+dz$, for $-z$ write $-dz$, as will be apparent from the addition and subtraction put in place a little before; but when the value comes to be evaluated critically, or when the relation of z to x may be considered, then to be apparent, either the value of dz shall become a positive quantity, or less than zero, or negative; because when it happens later, then the tangent ZE is drawn from the point z not towards A , but in the opposite direction, or beyond X , that is then when the ordinates z themselves decrease, with x themselves increasing. And because the ordinates v themselves sometime increase, sometimes decrease, sometimes dv will be a positive quantity, sometimes negative, and in the first case, the tangent $_1V_1B$ is drawn towards A ; in the latter $_2V_2B$ in the opposite direction: but neither happens about the middle-point M , in which the changes of v neither increases nor decreases, but are at rest, and thus as a consequence dv equal to 0, and where zero refers to a quantity neither positive nor negative, for $+0$ equals -0 : therefore at the position v itself, truly the ordinate LM , is a *Maximum* (or if the convexity may be turned towards the axis, a *Minimum*) and the tangent of the curve at M neither is drawn above X to towards A everywhere nearer to the axis, nor below X in the opposite sense, but parallel to the axis. If dv shall be infinite with respect to dx , then the tangent is at right angles to the axis, or is the ordinate itself. If dv and dx are equal, the tangent makes a half right angle to the axis.

If with the ordinates v increasing, the increments themselves of these increase also, or the differences dv (or if with dv taken positive, also ddv , the differences of the differences, are positive, or with these negative, negative also) the curve turns *convex* towards the axis, otherwise *concave* [initially *L.* had these terms in the wrong order, which he subsequently corrected; these results refer to curves along the positive x direction, as clearly we have to consider decreases in the ordinate in order to proceed away from the origin in the negative sense]; truly where there is a maximum or minimum increment, or where the increments become increasing from decreasing, or vice versa, where there is a *point of inflection* [*i.e.* a point where opposite curvatures combine], and concavity and convexity may be interchanged between each other, but here the ordinates do not become decreasing from increasing, or vice-versa, for then the concavity or

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convexity of the curve may remain : but so that the increments may continue to increase or to decrease; truly it cannot happen that the ordinates become decreasing from increasing or vice-versa. And thus a point of contrary curvature [*i.e.* an inflection point] has a place, when neither v nor dv may become 0, yet ddv is 0. From which also a problem of contrary inflection does not have two equal roots, as the problem of maxima, but three equal roots. And all these depend indeed on the correct use of signs.

Moreover meanwhile, *changeable signs* are required to be used, as used recently in *division*, evidently it must be agreed first how they are to be explained. And indeed with increasing x , $\frac{v}{y}$ increases (decreases), the signs in $d\frac{v}{y}$ or in $\frac{\pm vdy \mp ydv}{yy}$ thus must be explained, so that this fraction becomes a positive (negative) quantity. But \mp indicates the opposite of \pm , as if the one shall be $+$, the other shall be $-$, or the opposite. And more ambiguities are able to occur in the same calculation, which I distinguish with brackets, for the sake of an example if there should be $\frac{v}{y} + \frac{y}{z} + \frac{x}{v} = w$, there shall be

$$\frac{\pm vdy \mp ydv}{yy} + \frac{(\pm) ydz (\mp) zdy}{zz} + \frac{((\pm)) xdv ((\mp))}{vv} = dw,$$

otherwise the ambiguities arising from different sources may become confused. Where it is to be noted, an ambiguous sign into itself gives $+$ itself, into its opposite gives $-$, into another ambiguity makes a new ambiguity, and depending on both.

Powers: $dx^a = a \cdot x^{a-1}dx$, e.g. $dx^3 = 3 \cdot x^2dx$.

$d\frac{1}{x^a} = -\frac{adx}{x^{a+1}}$, e.g. if w shall be $= \frac{1}{x^3}$ it becomes $dw = \frac{-3dx}{x^4}$.

Roots: $d\sqrt[b]{x^a} = \frac{a}{b}dx\sqrt[b]{x^{a-b}}$ (hence $d\sqrt[2]{y} = \frac{dy}{2\sqrt[2]{y}}$ for in that case a is 1, and b is 2;

therefore $\frac{a}{b}dx\sqrt[b]{x^{a-b}} = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt[2]{y^{-1}}$; now y^{-1} is the same as $\frac{1}{y}$ [established by Wallis in his *Arithmetica Infinitorum*], from the nature of the exponents of a geometrical progression,

and $\sqrt[2]{\frac{1}{y}}$ is $\frac{1}{\sqrt[2]{y}}$, $d\frac{1}{\sqrt[b]{x^a}} = \frac{-adx}{b\sqrt[b]{x^{a+b}}}$.

Moreover the rule of whole powers may be sufficient for determining both fractions as well as roots, for the power shall be a fraction when the exponent is negative, and it is changed into a root when the exponent is a fraction : but I have preferred these same consequences to be deduced from that, as with others remaining to be deduced, since the rules shall be exceedingly general and occurring frequently, and it may be better to ease deliberations by themselves in this complicated matter.

Just as from this known *Algorithm*, thus as I may say of this calculation which I call *differential*, all other differential equations can be found through a common calculation, and both maxima and minima, and likewise tangents are to be had, thus so that there shall

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be no need to remove fractions or irrationals or other root signs, because the method can still be done following the method produced this far. The demonstration of all will be easy with these things changed, and until now this one matter has not been paid enough consideration : dx, dy, dv, dw, dz themselves (each in its own series) can be had as proportional differences of x, y, v, w, z , either with momentary increments or decrements.

[Note that these differential are made into momentary quantities, and the line labeled dx in the diagram above is not used further; it is of course allowed to have a triangle of finite size similar to that involving infinitesimals, and to call the ratio of the sides $dy:dx$. In addition, the idea of a function is not yet evident, and both abscissas and ordinates are treated in the same manner.]

From which it arises, that it shall be possible for any proposed equation to write the equation of its differential, because it can be done for any *member* (that is with a part, which by addition or subtraction alone, agrees according to the equation being established) by substituting the simpler quantity of the differential of the member; truly for any quantity (which is not itself a member [in as much as it follows by addition or subtraction only, as a term in an expression], but concurs in the same manner as a member being formed), its differential quantity indeed is not simply made from forming the differential quantity of its member being used, but follows the Algorithm prescribed thus far [*i.e.* as in multiplication and division of parts]. Indeed the methods used so far do not have such a transition, for generally they use a right line such as DX , even another of this kind, truly not the right line dy , which is the fourth proportional with DX, DY, dx themselves, which changes everything [note: these lines cannot be related to some shown in Fig. 1 with the same labels]; hence they may be arranged first, so that fractions and irrationals (which enter as indeterminate) may be removed; also it is apparent our method extends to transcendental lines, which cannot be recalled to an algebraic calculation, or which are of no certain order, and that with the most universal manner, and not always by succeeding without some particular substitutions;

[Thus *L.* admits he cannot use his simple mechanical methods to resolve transcendental differentiation.] ; just as it may be held in general, to find a *tangent* is to draw a right line, which joins two points of the curve having an infinitely small difference, or the side of an infinite angled polygon produced, which is equivalent to the *curve* for us. But I may note that infinitely small distance by some differential, as dv , or by a relation it can express to that itself, that is through a known tangent. Specially, if y were a transcending quantity, for example with the ordinate of a cycloid, and it may enter that calculation, with aid of which z itself, the ordinate of another curve, may be determined, and dz may be sought, or through that the tangent of this latter curve, dz by dy shall be required to be determined everywhere, because the tangent of the cycloid may be had. But that tangent of the cycloid itself, if it may not yet have been devised, may be able to be found by a like calculation from a given property of the tangent of the circle.

But it pleases to propose an example of the calculation, where it is to be noted here division is to be designated by me in this manner: $x:y$, because this is the same as x

divided by y , or $\frac{x}{y}$. The *first* or the given equation shall be $x : y + a + \overline{bxc - xx} : \text{the square}$

from $ex + fxx + ax\sqrt{gg + yy} + yy : \sqrt{hh + lx + mxx} : \text{equals } 0,$

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$$[i.e. \text{ in modern terms : } \frac{x}{y} + \frac{(a+bx)(c-xx)}{(ex+fx)^2} + ax\sqrt{gg+yy} + \frac{yy}{\sqrt{hh+lx+mxx}} = 0 ;]$$

expressing the relation between x and y , or between AX and XY , with $a, b, c, e, f, g, h, l, m$ themselves put to be given ; the manner is sought of elucidating YD from the given point Y , which touches the curve, or the ratio of the right line DX to the given right line XY is sought. In order to abbreviate we will write n for $a+bx$; for $c-xx$, p ; for $ex+fx$, q ; for $gg+yy$, r ; for $hh+lx+mxx$, s ; the equation becomes

$x : y + np : qq + ax\sqrt{r} + yy : \sqrt{s}$ equals 0, which shall be the *second* equation.

Now from our calculation it is agreed $d, x : y$ to be $\pm xdy \mp ydx : yy$;

$$[i.e. d\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \frac{\pm xdy \mp ydx}{yy} ;]$$

and similarly $d, np : qq$ to be $(\pm)2npdq(\mp)q(ndp+pdn) : q^3$

$$[i.e. d\left(\frac{np}{qq}\right) = \frac{(\pm)2npdq(\mp)q(ndp+pdn)}{q^3} ;]$$

and $d, ax\sqrt{r}$ to be $+axdr : 2\sqrt{r} + adx\sqrt{r}$; and $d, yy : \sqrt{s}$ to $((\pm))yyds((\mp))4ysdy : 2s\sqrt{s}$,

$$[i.e. d(ax\sqrt{r}) = \frac{+axdr}{2\sqrt{r}} + adx\sqrt{r} ; \text{ and } d\left(\frac{yy}{\sqrt{s}}\right) = \frac{((\pm))yyds((\mp))4ysdy}{2s\sqrt{s}} ;]$$

which all the differential quantities thence from $d, x : y$ itself as far as to $d, yy : \sqrt{s}$ in one addition make 0, and they give in this way the *third* equation, indeed thus for the members of the second equation the amounts of their differentials may be substituted. Now dn is bdx , and dp is $-2xdx$, and dq is $edx + 2fxdx$, and dr is $2ydy$, and ds is $ldx + 2mxdx$. With which values substituted into the third equation the *fourth* equation will be had, where the differential quantities, which remain only, surely dx, dy , are found always outside the numerators and roots, and each member is acted on by either dx , or by dy , always with the rule of homogeneity maintained as regards these two quantities, in whatever manner the calculation may become entangled [*i.e.* all the differentials of a given member are of the same order;]: from which a value can be found always of $dx : dy$ itself of the ratio of dx to dy , that is a DX sought for a XY given, which ratio in our calculation here (by changing the fourth equation into the Analogous form) will be as

$$\mp x : yy - axy : \sqrt{r}((\mp))2y : \sqrt{s} \text{ is to}$$

$$\mp 1 : y(\pm) 2np(e + 2fx) : q^3(\mp) \overline{-2nx + pb} : qq + a\sqrt{r}((\pm)) yy \overline{1 + 2mx} : 2s\sqrt{s}.$$

$$[i.e. \mp \frac{x}{yy} - \frac{axy}{\sqrt{r}}((\mp)) \frac{2y}{\sqrt{s}} \text{ is to}$$

$$\mp \frac{1}{y}(\pm) \frac{2np(e + 2fx)}{q^3}(\mp) \frac{-2nx + pb}{qq} + a\sqrt{r}((\pm)) \frac{yy(1 + 2mx)}{2s\sqrt{s}}.]$$

Moreover x and y are given according to a given point Y . And the values of the letters n , p , q , r , s written above are given in terms of x and y . Therefore what is sought is found. And this example we have worked out thus only to be involved enough, so that the manner is apparent from the above rules also how it may be used in a more difficult calculation. Now to show it has an outstanding use in confronting more meaningful examples.

The two points C and E shall be given (fig. 112), and the right line SS in the same plane with these; the point F in SS is sought thus being taken, so that with CF and EF , the sum of the rectangles CF for a given h , and FE for a given r , to be the smallest possible of all, that is if SS shall be separating the mediums, and h may represent the density of a medium such as water from part C , and r the density of a medium such as air from E , the point F is sought such, that the path from C to E through F shall be the most convenient possible of all. We may consider the sum of all the rectangles possible, or all the difficulties of the paths possible,

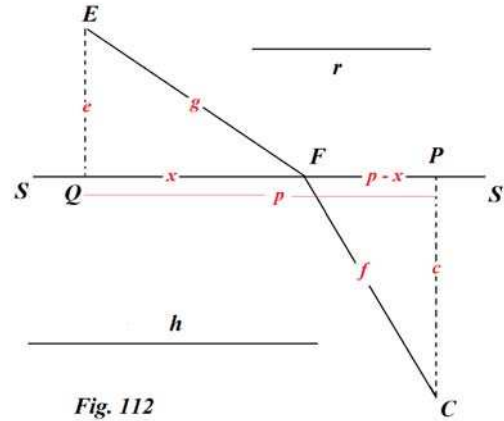


Fig. 112

to be represented by the ordinates KV themselves, of the curve VV normal to the right line GK , which we call ω , and the minimum of these NM is sought. [The adjoining diagram is taken from fig. 111.] Because the points C and E are given, and the perpendiculars to SS shall be given, truly CP (which we will call c) and EQ (as e) and besides PQ (as p), moreover that QF itself, which shall be equal to GN itself (or AX), we will call x and CF , f , and EF , g ; there arises FP , $p - x$, f is equal to

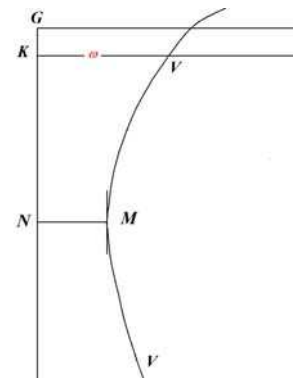
$$\sqrt{cc + pp - 2px + xx} \text{ or for brevity } \sqrt{l}, \text{ and } g \text{ is equal}$$

to $\sqrt{ee + xx}$ or for brevity \sqrt{m} . Therefore we have ω equal to $h\sqrt{l} + r\sqrt{m}$, of which equation the differential equation (on putting $d\omega$ to be 0, in the case of a minimum) is:

$$+ hdl : 2\sqrt{l} + rdm : 2\sqrt{m} \text{ equal to 0, by the rules of calculus treated by us;}$$

[The word *calculus* in Latin just refers to a calculation, as performed in ancient Rome in daily life using small pebbles or calculi; L may be using the word in this sense, but here we use it in its modern mathematical sense.];

now dl is $-2dx\overline{p-x}$, and dm is $2xdx$, therefore : $h\overline{p-x} : f$ equals $rx : g$.



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$$[i.e. \frac{h(p-x)}{f} = \frac{rx}{g}]$$

But if now this may be adapted to optics, and f and g may be made equal, or CF and EF are equal, because the same refraction remains at the point F , however great a length of the right line CF may be put, there becomes $h \overline{p-x}$ equals rx , or $h:r :: x:p-x$, or h to r shall be as QF to FP , that is, the sines of the angles of incidence and refraction FP and QF will be reciprocally as r and h , the densities of the mediums, in which shall be the incidence and the refraction. Which density is required to be understood, not however to be with respect to us [*i.e.* the matters we are free to arrange as we wish], but with regard to the resistance which the rays of light cause. [We now consider this 'density' to be the refractive index of the medium.] And thus a demonstration of the calculus is had, shown by us elsewhere in these *Actis* [*A.E.* vol. I, p. 185], when we were explaining the general foundations of Optics, Catoptrics and Dioptrics, which other savants shall have come upon in a roundabout way, and which the skilled will perform after three lines of the calculus. Which at this point I will illustrate by another example.

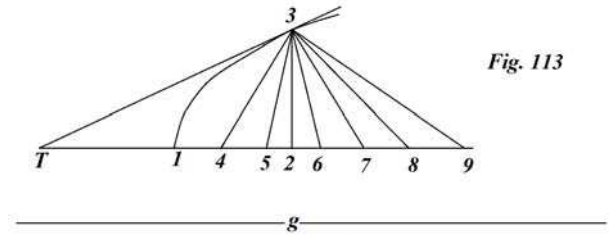


Fig. 113

The curve 133 (fig.113) shall be of such a kind: that from any point of that such as 3, six right lines shall be drawn to six fixed points placed on the axis at 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, the six right lines likewise added together, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39 shall be equal to the given line g . The axis shall be T 14526789, and 12 shall be the abscissa, 23 the ordinate, and the tangent $3T$; I say $T2$ shall be to 23 as

$$\frac{23}{34} + \frac{23}{35} + \frac{23}{36} + \frac{23}{37} + \frac{23}{38} + \frac{23}{39} \text{ is to } -\frac{24}{34} - \frac{25}{35} + \frac{26}{36} + \frac{27}{37} + \frac{28}{38} + \frac{29}{39}.$$

[Note that the 'numbers' written here is actually an early form of the method of naming points by the use of indices; thus 23 is the length of a line section d_i indicated as follows : For if we designate any of the fixed points on the x -axis by x_i , then the distance to the point 3 or (x, y) is given by $d_i = \sqrt{y^2 + (x - x_i)^2}$; hence the problem amounts to finding

the function y such that $g = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \sqrt{y^2 + (x - x_i)^2}$. By differentiation we find

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{y \frac{dy}{dx} + x - x_i}{\sqrt{y^2 + (x - x_i)^2}} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{y \frac{dy}{dx} + x - x_i}{d_i} \right) = \frac{dy}{dx} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{y}{d_i} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x - x_i}{d_i} \text{ etc.}$$

Clearly if $n = 2$ we have an ellipse with the foci as the denoted points on the x -axis.]

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And the rule will be the same, with so many terms continued, if not six, but ten, or more fixed points may be supposed ; such a kind as produced following the methods of the tangents from the calculus to be better with irrationalities removed, as it would become a most tedious and finally an insurmountable amount of work, if plane rectangles or even volumes, according to all the two or three [subscripts] possible, should be composed from these right lines which must be equated to a given quantity, in which everything is more involved ; and likewise it is with the belief that the use of our method facilitates the resolution of the rarest example. And these indeed are only the beginnings of a certain kind of a much more sublime geometry, extending to the most difficult and most beautiful problems, also with each a mixture of mathematics, which without our differential calculus, or something similar, will not be able to be treated with equal facility, but blindly.

It pleases to add the solution of a problem as an appendix, which De Baune proposed to Decartes to attempt himself, in Vol. 3 of his letters, but which he did not solve : To find the line of such a kind WW , [adapted from the first figure] so that with the tangent WC drawn to the axis, XC shall always be equal to the same constant right line a .

Now XW or w shall be to XC or a , as dw to dx ; therefore if dx (which can be taken by choice) may be assumed constant or always the same, truly b , or if x itself or if AX may increase uniformly, w will be

made equal to $\frac{a}{b} dw$, [i.e. $w = \frac{a}{b} dw$], and

the ordinates w themselves which will be proportional to their increments, or differentials, from dw , that is if the x [abscissas] shall be in an arithmetic progression, the w [ordinates] shall be in a geometric progression, or if w shall be numbers, x will be their logarithms: therefore the line WW is logarithmic.

[Thus, we have the differential equation

$$\frac{dw}{dx} = -\frac{w}{a}, \text{ or } \frac{-x}{a} = \ln w - \ln A, \text{ giving } w = Ae^{\frac{-x}{a}}. \text{ Hence, under the term } \textit{logarithmic}, \text{ the}$$

inverse or exponential function must be included; which Leibniz has realized, but the inverse relation at the time did not have a name as such, to be set out a little later by Johann Bernoulli, see e.g. his *Opera Omnia*, vol. I, p.179.]

