

## What is the mathematical induction?

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Suppose we have to prove the following sentence  $\forall_{n \in \mathbf{N}} T(n)$ , where  $T$  stands for *propositional form*. In mathematics, the example of such a construction can be an *equality*. Let us consider the following equality

$$1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{1 + n}{2} \cdot n. \quad (1)$$

We note, that in this form, (1) is not a *logical sentence*. If in (1), we treat  $n$  as *variable*, then we obtain the propositional form  $T$  with the *origin*  $\mathbf{N}$ , where

$$T(n): 1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{1 + n}{2} \cdot n, \quad n \in \mathbf{N}. \quad (2)$$

Now, by using the standard construction  $\forall_{n \in \mathbf{N}} T(n)$  we get the logical sentence and we can try to prove the truth of the sentence. One of the effective methods to realize such a proof is *the Principle of Mathematical Induction* (PMI).

PMI is the mathematical theorem which consists of two steps: *the initialing step* and *the induction step*. The first step is reduced to check the condition: whether the statement  $T(1)$  is true. The induction step requires to verifying the implication

$$\forall_{k \geq 1} (T(k) \rightarrow T(k + 1)). \quad (3)$$

The PIM says, that if both steps are fulfilled, then  $\forall_{n \in \mathbf{N}} T(n)$ .

In the case of (2)  $T(1)$  is true. To see that the induction step is satisfied, we suppose that for given  $k \geq 1$ , the sentence

$$T(k): 1 + 2 + \dots + k = \frac{1 + k}{2} \cdot k \quad (4)$$

is true. According to PMI, all what we need to do is to show that the sentence  $T(k + 1)$  is true as well. By assumption (4) we get

$$1 + 2 + \dots + k + k + 1 = \frac{1 + k}{2} \cdot k + k + 1 = (k + 1) \left( \frac{k}{2} + 1 \right) = \frac{1 + k + 1}{2} \cdot (k + 1),$$

which means that the condition (3) is true. Therefore, by a PMI the sentence  $\forall_{n \in \mathbf{N}} T(n)$  is true.

Now we use the PMI to prove the following theorem

**Theorem 1** *Let  $X$  be a finite set with cardinality  $n$ , so  $|X| = n$ . Then the cardinality of the family  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  consists of all subset of  $X$  is equal to  $2^n$ . Therefore, we can write*

$$|\mathcal{P}(X)| = 2^{|X|}.$$

Proof. Let us consider the propositional form  $T(n)$  as the equality  $|\mathcal{P}(X)| = 2^n$ , for  $n \geq 1$ . If  $n = 1$ , then  $|X| = 1$  and  $\mathcal{P}(X) = \{\emptyset, X\}$ , hence the sentence  $T(1)$  is true. Assume that for  $k \geq 1$ ,  $|X| = k$  implies  $|\mathcal{P}(X)| = 2^k$ , i.e., the sentence  $T(k)$  is true. All we need is to prove that the sentence  $T(k+1)$  also is true. If  $|X| = k+1$  we can assume that  $X = Y \cup \{a\}$ , where  $|Y| = k$ , for some element  $a \notin Y$ . Now for family of all subsets of  $X$  we have

$$\mathcal{P}(X) = \mathcal{P}(Y) \cup \mathcal{P}_a(Y),$$

where in the above union the last family  $\mathcal{P}_a(Y)$ , consists of all subset  $A$  of  $X$  of the form  $A = B \cup \{a\}$  for certain sets  $B \subset Y$ . Indeed, if we take any subset  $A$  of  $X$  then we have two cases:  $a \notin A$  or  $a \in A$ . In the first, this means that  $A \subset Y$  and consequently  $A \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$ . Otherwise,  $A = B \cup \{a\}$  for  $B \subset Y$ , therefore  $A \in \mathcal{P}_a(Y)$ , by definition of the family  $\mathcal{P}_a(Y)$ . Since those both families are pairwise disjoint, by *additivity rule* we have

$$|\mathcal{P}(X)| = |\mathcal{P}(Y)| + |\mathcal{P}_a(Y)|.$$

Now it suffices to observe, that because of the correspondence

$$B \longrightarrow A \cup \{a\},$$

which is a *bijection*, the families  $\mathcal{P}(Y)$  and  $\mathcal{P}_a(Y)$  are the same number. Hence  $|\mathcal{P}(Y)| = |\mathcal{P}_a(Y)|$ . But by the induction assumption,  $|\mathcal{P}(Y)| = 2^k$ , which completes the proof. □

**Remark 1** *The number  $2^n$  as well known, is fundamental in computer science—it is the cardinality of the set of all binary sequences of the length  $n$ . Therefore, if  $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{n})$  denotes such a set, then  $|\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{n})| = |\mathcal{P}(X)|$ , where  $|X| = n$ . It implies the existence of the bijection  $f: \mathcal{P}(X) \rightarrow \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{n})$ . Below we give a construction of such bijection.*

**Example 1** *For the fixed natural  $n$ , let  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ . Further we need any arrangement of the set  $X$ . Without loss of generality, we assume that this arrangement is represented by the above definition of the set  $X$ . Now, for every non empty subset  $A$  of  $X$ , if we order the elements of  $A$  in accordance with  $X$ , then the set  $A$  can be coded by the binary sequence  $(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$ , where  $b_j = 1$  iff in the set  $A$  there exists an element  $x_j$ , otherwise  $b_j = 0$ . It is easy to see that such defined correspondence  $A \rightarrow (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$  is one-to-one and on, so it is a bijection if in addition, by definition we assume that the sequence  $(0, 0, \dots, 0)$  corresponds to empty set.*

**Remark 2** *On the other hand, the set  $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{n})$  represents the set of all functions defined on the  $n$ -th elements set with values in the 2-elements set. From the combinatorics is well known, that for this reason, the cardinality of the  $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{n})$  is equal to  $2^n$ . This gives us another proof of the theorem 1.*