

# Mathematical Induction: History And Applications

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# Introduction

What is the mathematical induction?

## Example

Prove that

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

**Proof by Induction:**

**Base Case:** For  $n = 1$ ,

$$1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2} = 1.$$

So the statement holds.

# Introduction

**Inductive Step:** Assume the statement holds for  $n = k$ , i.e.

$$1 + 2 + \cdots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}.$$

For  $n = k + 1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + 2 + \cdots + k + (k+1) &= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) \\ &= \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the formula also holds for  $n = k + 1$ .

**Conclusion:** By the principle of mathematical induction, the formula holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

# The Inductive Thought in China

## 古法七葉方圖

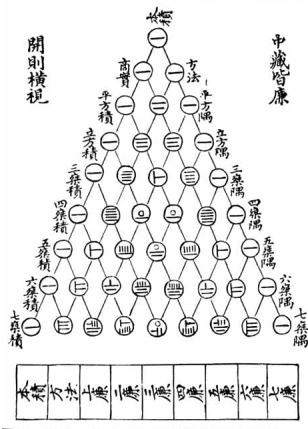


Figure: Yang Hui's Triangle (1261 AD)

# Ancient Chinese Terminology in Yang Hui's Diagram

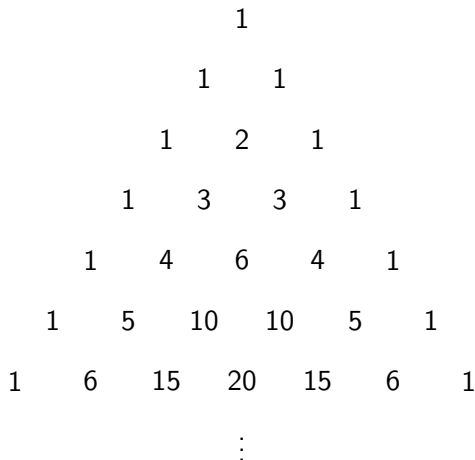
## 古文字 (Classical Chinese)

- 古法七秦方圖
- 開則橫視
- 中藏皆康
- 本積
- 二廉
- 三廉

## English Translation

- Ancient Method of the Seven Qins Diagram
- Open and view horizontally
- Within lies harmony
- Root product
- Second coefficient
- Third coefficient

# Yang Hui's Triangle (1261 AD)



# Binomial Theorem

## Step 1: Observe coefficients from polynomial expansions

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

$$(a + b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3$$

$$(a + b)^4 = a^4 + 4a^3b + 6a^2b^2 + 4ab^3 + b^4$$

## Binomial Theorem

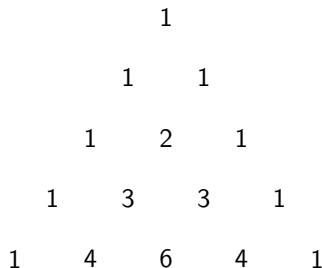
$$(a + b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! (n - k)!}$$

$$n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}, k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

# Verbal rule (Yang Hui)

"Start from one, place ones at both sides, and each inner number equals the sum of the two above it."



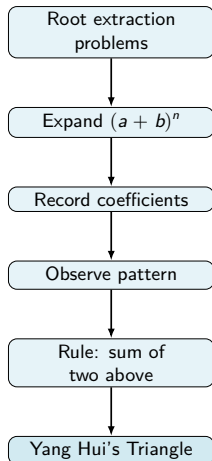
Step 2: Discover the recursive rule

$$T(n, k) = T(n - 1, k - 1) + T(n - 1, k), \quad T(n, 0) = T(n, n) = 1.$$

# Discovery of Yang Hui's Triangle

## How the rule was found (empirical path):

- 1 Start with **root extraction** problems.
- 2 Expand  $(a + b)^n$  repeatedly to get coefficients.
- 3 Record coefficients in calculation tables.
- 4 Notice: each number = **sum of two above**.
- 5 Form the “**Chart of Increasing and Multiplying Method**”.



# Related Works

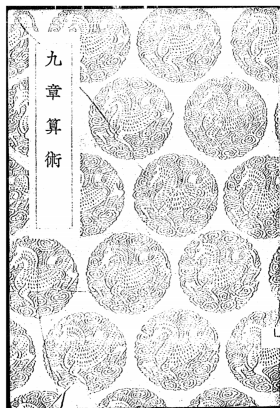


Figure: Jiuzhang Suanshu (c.3 BCE)

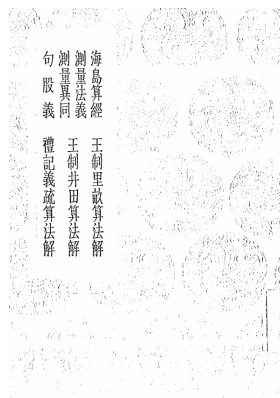
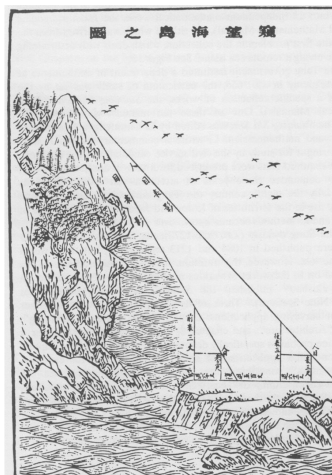


Figure: Haidao Suanjing (ca.263 CE)

# Haidao Suanjing (The Sea Island)



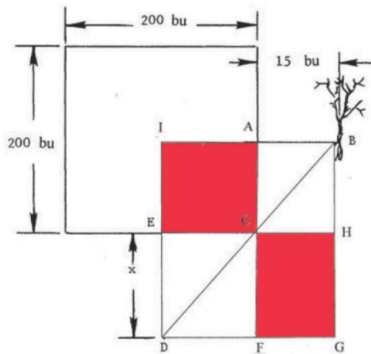
## History of *Haidao Suanjing* (AD 263)

Ancient Chinese mathematical work by Liu Hui, continuing *The Nine Chapters on the Mathematical Art*.

- Height and distance measurement
- “Repeated difference” surveying method
- Practical mathematical approach

**Figure:** Illustration of *Haidao Suanjing*

# In-and-Out Complementary Principle (IOCP)



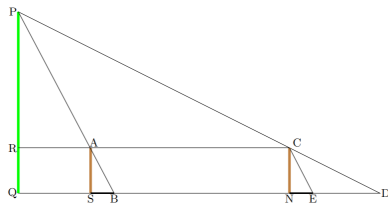
## In-and-Out Complementary Principle (IOCP)

- Two inner rectangles represent equal-area relationships.
- Replaces similarity with area equivalence:

$$IE \times EC = CF \times FG$$

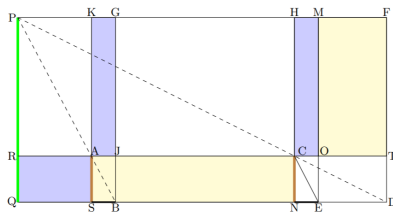
Figure: Geometric reasoning of IOCP (Swetz, 2014)

# The Sea Island Problem



$$\overline{PQ} = \frac{\overline{AS} \cdot \overline{SN}}{\overline{ND} - \overline{SB}} + \overline{AS} \quad (1)$$

$$\overline{QS} = \frac{\overline{SB} \cdot \overline{SN}}{\overline{ND} - \overline{SB}} \quad (2)$$

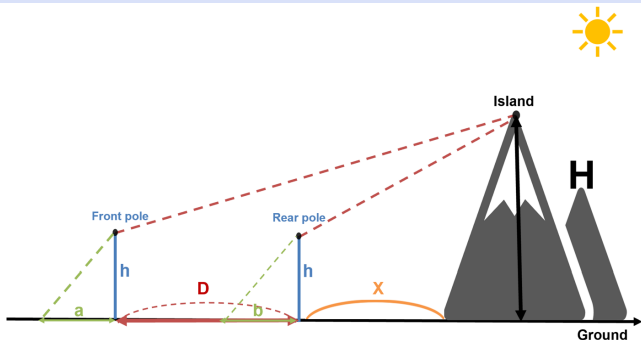


## Figure explanation:

Swetz, F. (1992). *The Sea Island Mathematical Manual*.

Penn State Press. The diagrams illustrate the geometric method used to measure the height and distance of the island across the sea.

# “Repeated Difference” Method



**“Repeated Difference” Method:** Measure an island using two poles and proportion.

*Example:* Using the general formulas:

$$H = h + \frac{hD}{b-a}, \quad x = \frac{aD}{b-a}$$

Given parameters:  $h = 3 \text{ m}$ ,  $D = 1000 \text{ m}$ ,  $a = 123 \text{ m}$ ,  $b = 127 \text{ m}$

Then:  $b - a = 127 - 123 = 4 \text{ m}$

$$H = 3 + \frac{3 \times 1000}{4} = 3 + 750 = 753 \text{ m}$$

$$x = \frac{123 \times 1000}{4} = 30,750 \text{ m}$$

# Summary

## From specific to general:

- *Example 1:* Measuring a sea island
- *Example 2:* Applying the same method to a mountain
- *Example 3:* Extending the method to towers and city walls

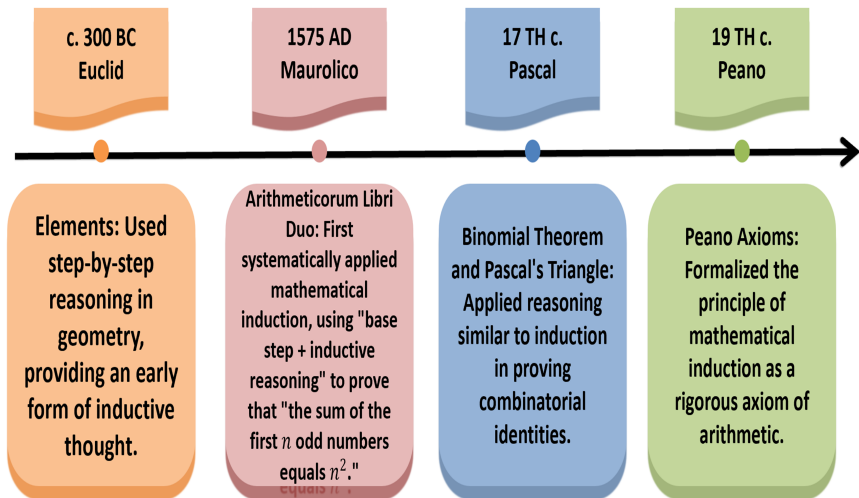
## Inductive idea:

- Ancient mathematicians derived general principles through repeated measurement problems
- Demonstrates reasoning “from examples to general law,” similar in spirit to mathematical induction

# Key Features of Chinese Induction

- 1 **Practice-oriented:** Focused on patterns in calculations, e.g. Yang Hui's Triangle.
- 2 **Implicit Induction:** No formal definition, but inductive reasoning applied in practice.
- 3 **Classical Works:**
  - *Jiuzhang Suanshu*: Systematic problem-solving.
  - *Haidao Suanjing*: Geometrical calculations with inductive patterns.
- 4 **Contribution:** Provided early forms of inductive reasoning, influencing later mathematical developments.

# The Development In the West — Time Table



# Ancient Greece

- Strong emphasis on logical reasoning
- Relied mainly on deduction rather than induction.

## Euclid's Elements

Publication: c.300 BC

Pages: 13 books

Including: definitions, postulates, geometric constructions, and theorems with proofs.

Core Achievements: the Pythagorean theorem, Thales' theorem, the Euclidean algorithm, the theorem of infinitely many primes, and the construction of regular polygons/polyhedra.

## Feature

Focused on building a logical system, but without explicit mathematical inductive reasoning.

# Euclid (fl.c.300 BC)

## Example:

Geometric progression: 1, 2, 4 (ratio 2, starting from unit).

Sum:  $1 + 2 + 4 = 7$  (prime).

Product:  $7 \times 4 = 28$

Perfect number, since

$$1 + 2 + 4 + 7 + 14 = 28$$

$$1 + 2 + 3 = 6$$

$$1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 + 31 + 62 + 124 + 248 = 496$$

## at **Base Case:**

Construct 1, 2, 4, sum as prime 7.

## bt **Recursive Construction:**

Use geometric progression properties (Prop. 7.19–20) to deduce 28's divisor sum.

# Francesco Maurolico (1494–1575)

## *Arithmeticonum Libri Duo* (1575)

Francesco Maurolico proved that: The sum of consecutive odd numbers forms a perfect square.

$$1 + 3 + 5 + \cdots + (2n - 1) = n^2$$

## Examples

- When  $n = 1$ :  $1 = 1^2 = 1$
- When  $n = 2$ :  
 $1 + 3 = 4 = 2^2$
- When  $n = 3$ :  
 $1 + 3 + 5 = 9 = 3^2$
- When  $n = 4$ :  
 $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 = 16 = 4^2$
- When  $n = 5$ :  
 $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + 9 = 25 = 5^2$

# Mathematical Induction

We prove the identity:

$$P(n) : 1 + 3 + 5 + \cdots + (2n - 1) = n^2$$

**Base case:**  $n = 1$

$$1 = 1^2 \quad \text{True}$$

**Inductive step:** Assume the statement holds for some  $n = k$ , i.e.,

$$1 + 3 + 5 + \cdots + (2k - 1) = k^2$$

We must show it holds for  $n = k + 1$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & 1 + 3 + 5 + \cdots + (2k - 1) + [2(k + 1) - 1] \\ &= k^2 + (2k + 1) \quad (\text{by the induction hypothesis}) \\ &= (k + 1)^2 \end{aligned}$$

**Conclusion:** By mathematical induction, the statement  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

# Blaise Pascal (1623 - 1662)

Figure: Pascal's Arithmetical Triangle

|    | 1              | 2             | 3             | 4              | 5          | 6             | 7            | 8  | 9 | 10 |
|----|----------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|------------|---------------|--------------|----|---|----|
| 1  | $G$<br>1       | $\sigma$<br>1 | $\pi$<br>1    | $\lambda$<br>1 | $\mu$<br>1 | $\delta$<br>1 | $\zeta$<br>1 | 1  | 1 | 1  |
| 2  | $\varphi$<br>1 | $\psi$<br>2   | $\theta$<br>3 | $R$<br>4       | $S$<br>5   | $N$<br>6      | 7            | 8  | 9 |    |
| 3  | $A$<br>1       | $B$<br>3      | $C$<br>6      | $\omega$<br>10 | 15         | 21            | 28           | 36 |   |    |
| 4  | $D$<br>1       | $E$<br>4      | $F$<br>10     | $\rho$<br>20   | $Y$<br>35  | 56            | 84           |    |   |    |
| 5  | $H$<br>1       | $M$<br>5      | $K$<br>15     | 35             | 70         | 126           |              |    |   |    |
| 6  | $P$<br>1       | $Q$<br>6      | 21            | 56             | 126        |               |              |    |   |    |
| 7  | $V$<br>1       | 7             | 28            | 84             |            |               |              |    |   |    |
| 8  | 1              | 8             | 36            |                |            |               |              |    |   |    |
| 9  | 1              | 9             |               |                |            |               |              |    |   |    |
| 10 | 1              |               |               |                |            |               |              |    |   |    |

## Key Work

*Traité du triangle arithmétique*

(Written in 1654, officially published in 1665)

$$35 + 21 = 56,$$

$$1 + 4 + 10 + 20 + 35 = 70,$$

$$1 + 6 + 21 + 56 = 84,$$

$$1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 = 14 + 1 = 15$$

# Pascal and Inductive Thinking

- Studied number patterns and the Binomial Theorem using recursion.
- Pascal's Triangle (similar to Yang Hui's Triangle) reflects inductive ideas.

## Binomial Theorem

$$(a + b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! (n - k)!}$$

$$n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} , k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

# Proof of Pascal's Rule (1/3)

## Statement of Pascal's Rule

For integers  $n \geq 1$  and  $1 \leq k \leq n$ ,

$$\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}.$$

## Proof by Mathematical Induction

**Base Case:** For  $n = 1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\binom{2}{1} &= 2, \quad \binom{1}{1} + \binom{1}{0} = 1 + 1 = 2 \\ 2 &= 2\end{aligned}$$

**Hence**, the base case holds.

# Proof of Pascal's Rule (2/3)

## Proof by mathematical Inductive Step (continue)

Assume for some  $n \geq 1$ , the identity holds:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k} + \binom{n-1}{k-1}.$$

We need to show it holds for  $n+1$ :

$$\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}.$$

# Proof of Pascal's Rule (3/3)

## By Mathematical Induction

Using the factorial definition of binomial coefficients.

$$\begin{aligned}\binom{n+1}{k} &= \frac{(n+1)!}{k!(n+1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{(n+1) \cdot n!}{k \cdot (k-1)! \cdot (n+1-k)!} = \frac{[k + (n+1-k)] \cdot n!}{k \cdot (k-1)! \cdot (n+1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{k \cdot n!}{k \cdot (k-1)! \cdot (n+1-k)!} + \frac{(n+1-k) \cdot n!}{k \cdot (k-1)! \cdot (n+1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{n!}{(k-1)!(n+1-k)!} + \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}\end{aligned}$$

**Thus,** By mathematical induction Pascal's Rule holds for all  $n \geq 1$ .

# Proof of Binomial Theorem (1/3)

## Statement

For any integer  $n \geq 0$ ,

$$(1 + z)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} z^k.$$

## Base Case

For  $n = 0$ ,  $(1 + z)^0 = 1$ , and

$$\sum_{k=0}^0 \binom{0}{k} z^k = \binom{0}{0} z^0 = 1.$$

**Hence**, the base case holds.

# Proof of Binomial Theorem (2/3)

## Induction Step

Assume  $(1 + z)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} z^k$  holds.

Then,

$$(1 + z)^{n+1} = (1 + z)(1 + z)^n = (1 + z) \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} z^k.$$

Expanding,

$$(1 + z)^{n+1} = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} z^k + \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} z^{k+1}.$$

Re-index the second sum by letting  $m = k + 1$ :

$$\sum_{m=1}^{n+1} \binom{n}{m-1} z^m.$$

# Proof of Binomial Theorem (3/3)

## By mathematical induction

Combine both sums:

$$(1+z)^{n+1} = \sum_{m=0}^{n+1} \left[ \binom{n}{m} + \binom{n}{m-1} \right] z^m.$$

By Pascal's Rule,

$$\binom{n+1}{m} = \binom{n}{m} + \binom{n}{m-1}.$$

Thus,

$$(1+z)^{n+1} = \sum_{m=0}^{n+1} \binom{n+1}{m} z^m.$$

**Therefore,** by mathematical induction the binomial theorem holds for all  $n \geq 0$ .

# Relationship Summary

## Connection between Pascal's Rule and the Binomial Theorem

- **Pascal's Rule:** Defines the recursive relation of coefficients

$$\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}.$$

- **Binomial Theorem:** Uses this recursion to prove inductively that

$$(1+z)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} z^k.$$

- **Order:**

Pascal's Rule  $\Rightarrow$  Binomial Theorem.

# Fibonacci Sequence (1202) : Rabbit Breeding Example

- **Assumptions:** 1 initial newborn pair; matures in 1 month; adults breed 1 new pair monthly; no death.
- **Total rabbit pairs (vs. Fibonacci terms):**



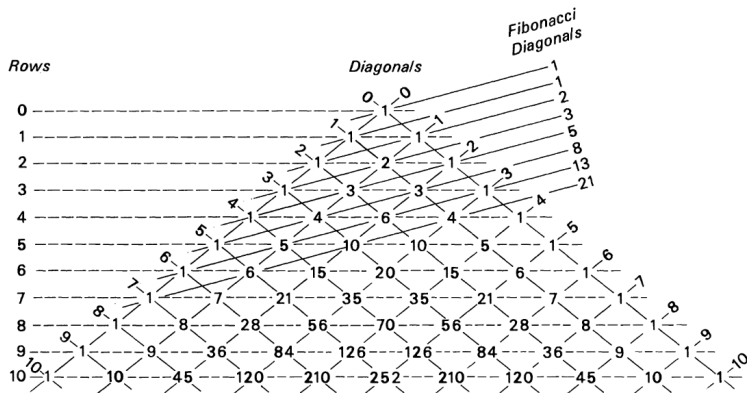
Figure: A special stamp

| Month | Total Pairs | Fibonacci Term |
|-------|-------------|----------------|
| 0     | 1           | $F_0$          |
| 1     | 1           | $F_1$          |
| 2     | 2           | $F_2$          |
| 3     | 3           | $F_3$          |
| 4     | 5           | $F_4$          |
| 5     | 8           | $F_5$          |

Figure: Newborn rabbit pair statistics

$$F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2} \quad (F_0 = 1, F_1 = 1)$$

# Fibonacci Numbers in Pascal's Triangle



**Figure:** Pascal's Arithmetical Triangle.  
(shallow diagonal is a Fibonacci number)

# Observation: Fibonacci Numbers from Pascal's Triangle

## Idea

By summing the numbers along the *shallow diagonals* of Pascal's Triangle, we obtain the Fibonacci sequence:

1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, ...

| Diagonal $k$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sum $F_k$    | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 8 |

# Combinatorial Form and Recurrence Relation

## Definition

The  $n$ -th Fibonacci number can be expressed using binomial coefficients:

$$F_n = \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \binom{n-i}{i}.$$

$\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ : the floor function of  $n/2$  (the greatest integer less than or equal to  $n/2$ ), serving as the upper limit of the summation.

**Examples:**

$$F_5 = \binom{5}{0} + \binom{4}{1} + \binom{3}{2} = 1 + 4 + 3 = 8,$$

$$F_6 = \binom{6}{0} + \binom{5}{1} + \binom{4}{2} + \binom{3}{3} = 1 + 5 + 6 + 1 = 13.$$

# Inductive Proof of $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$

## Step 1. Pascal's Identity

$$\binom{n-i}{i} = \binom{n-1-i}{i} + \binom{n-1-i}{i-1}.$$

## Step 2. Substitute into the Definition of $F_n$

$$\begin{aligned} F_n &= \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \binom{n-i}{i} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \left[ \binom{n-1-i}{i} + \binom{n-1-i}{i-1} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

# Inductive Proof of $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$

## Step 3. Rearrange the Two Sums

$$F_n = \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \binom{n-1-i}{i}}_{F_{n-1}} + \underbrace{\sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor (n-2)/2 \rfloor} \binom{n-2-j}{j}}_{F_{n-2}}.$$

$$\boxed{F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}}$$

## Conclusion

**Therefore**, by mathematical induction via Pascal's Identity and sum rearrangement,  $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ , proving the Fibonacci recurrence.

# Fibonacci Number Summary

## Summary

- Fibonacci numbers naturally arise from Pascal's Triangle through **diagonal summation**.
- The recurrence relation  $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$  follows from **Pascal's identity**.
- This reveals a deep link between **combinatorics** and **number theory**.

# Giuseppe Peano and the Principle of Induction

- In the 19th century, Peano formalized induction within his axioms of natural numbers.
- Mathematical induction became a rigorous logical proof method.

## Principle of Induction

- 1  $P(n)$  represents a statement or property about the natural number  $n$ .
- 2  $P(1)$  is true.
- 3 If  $P(k)$  is true, then  $P(k+1)$  is true.
- 4 Therefore,  $P(n)$  is true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

# Giuseppe Peano (1858 - 1932)

## What is Strong Induction?

- Core : To prove  $P(n)$ , assume  $P(1), P(2), \dots, P(k)$  all hold (not just  $P(k)$ ), then derive  $P(k+1)$ .
- Use case : Propositions dependent on multiple previous terms (e.g., Fibonacci sequence).

## Peano's Core Contributions to Induction

- Turned induction from an *intuitive method* into a *logically rigorous tool* via his inductive axiom (5th Peano axiom).
- Established induction as a fundamental part of natural number theory—no longer just a “trick” for proofs.

# Key Features of Western Induction

- 1 **Theoretical:** From experience to abstraction.
- 2 **Systematic:** Based on an axiomatic framework.
- 3 **Logical:** A rigorous proof technique in modern mathematics.

# Key Differences

| Aspect      | Chinese Tradition (Liu Hui, Yang Hui)            | European Tradition (Induction)            |
|-------------|--------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| Nature      | Visual, geometric, and constructive.             | Formal, logical, and axiomatic.           |
| Focus       | Practical results, algorithms, and applications. | Abstract theory, deduction from axioms.   |
| Proof Style | "Proof without words," geometric rearrangements. | Base case and inductive step.             |
| Example     | Piling up squares to prove summation formulas.   | Proving summation formulas algebraically. |

**Table:** Comparison of Chinese and European Proof Styles

# Applications

- Computer Science
- Combinatorics
- Geometry and Graph Theory
- Mathematical Analysis
- Logic and Formal Systems
- Applied Mathematics and Engineering

# THANK YOU

Special thanks to Dr. R. L. Herman

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