

The Greek proof that there is no rational number whose square equals 2 is one of the great intellectual achievements of humanity and it should be experienced by every educated person [1, p. 4].

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THE SQUARE ROOT OF 2 IS IRRATIONAL

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ABSTRACT. This article presents a very famous proof that the square root of 2 cannot be expressed by a rational number.

The main idea behind the proof: Try to express the square root of 2 as a fraction without common factors, i.e. as a rational number. If this succeeds, it would mean that the square root of 2 is rational. But this is simply not possible and ultimately leads to a contradiction.

1. HISTORICAL NOTES

The ancient Greeks, the Pythagoreans, studied prime numbers, progressions, and those ratios and proportions, but in contrast to our current understanding, a ratio of two whole numbers was not a fraction, i. e. a distinct kind of number with respect to the whole numbers [2, p. 32]. The (own) discovery of the role of whole numbers in musical harmony inspired Pythagoreans to seek whole-number patterns everywhere [3, p. 11]. Now, if quantities could have been measured by a common unit using whole numbers, they had a common measure and were called *com-mensurable* [2, p. 32]. The discovery of ratios that were not measurable in this way, i. e. that were *in-commensurable*, is attributed to HIPPASUS OF METAPONTUM [2, p. 32], and was a turning point in Greek mathematics [4, p. 1]: It has affected mathematics and philosophy from the time of the Greeks to the present day [5, pp. 59–60] and it is assumed that it marked the origin of what is considered the Greek contribution to rigorous procedure in mathematics [5, p. 59], [4, p. 1]. The starting point of this scientific event [5, p. 59]

Date: July 14, 2024.

in Greek mathematics was the Pythagorean theorem, that was discovered independently in several ancient cultures [4, p. 3]. There is evidence [3, p. 4] that the Babylonians (1800 BC), the Chinese mathematicians (between 200 and 220 BC) and Indian mathematicians (between 500 and 200 BC) were interested in triangles whose sides were whole-number triples that - denoted in modern notation - satisfy the equation $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ [4, pp. 3–4] such as for instance the following ones, that now are referred to as *Pythagorean triples* [3, p. 4], e. g. $\langle 3, 4, 5 \rangle$, $\langle 5, 12, 13 \rangle$, $\langle 8, 15, 17 \rangle$:

$$\begin{aligned} 3^2 + 4^2 &= 5^2 = 9 + 16 = 25, \\ 5^2 + 12^2 &= 13^2 = 25 + 144 = 169, \\ 8^2 + 15^2 &= 17^2 = 64 + 225 = 289. \end{aligned}$$

But it is assumed, that only the Pythagoreans were interested in a special case that eventually led to the discovery of the *incommensurable* ratios: Given that two sides a and b of the right-angled triangle have the same length, that is $a = b$; the crucial question, again expressed in modern algebraic symbolism, must have been whether there are whole numbers a and c that satisfy the following equation:

$$(1) \quad c^2 = 2a^2,$$

fulfilling *commensurability* [4, pp. 6–7], [5, p. 58].

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2. THEOREM AND PROOF

Theorem 1. The square root of 2 is irrational.

Proof. (Contradiction) We suppose that the square root of 2 is rational. By definition, a number belongs to the set of the rational numbers \mathbb{Q} , if it can be expressed as a ratio of two integers $\frac{p}{q}$, where the numerator p can be any integer and the denominator q must be a non-zero integer.

If the square root of 2 is rational, then it can be expressed as the ratio of two integers p and q , where p and q have no common factor other than 1:

$$(2) \quad \sqrt{2} = 2^{1/2} = \frac{p}{q}.$$

Now we square both sides of the equation (2). On the left-hand side (LHS) it gives:

$$(3) \quad \left(2^{1/2}\right)^2 = 2^{2/2} = 2 =,$$

whereas on the right-hand side (RHS) it gives:

$$(4) \quad = \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}.$$

That is:

$$(5) \quad 2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2},$$

which by basic algebra can be rearranged into:

$$(6) \quad p^2 = 2q^2.$$

Now, by definition of an even integer, that has the form $(2 \cdot \text{an integer})$, the RHS, i. e. $2q^2$ is an even integer. It follows that also the LHS, that is p^2 must be even. This leads us to the question of whether p is also even.

Proposition 1. For every integer s , if s^2 is even then s is even.

Proof. (Contrapositive) Suppose s is any odd integer. Then, by the definition of an odd integer, $s = 2k + 1$ for some integer k . By substitution and basic algebra, we get:

$$(7) \quad s^2 = (2k + 1)^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1.$$

If we add or multiply integers together, the resulting sum or product will still be an integer, i. e. the result belongs to the set of integers \mathbb{Z} . This is referred to as the closure properties of addition and multiplication which hold within the set of integers. Due to these properties, the expression $2k^2 + 2k$ must be an integer. To simplify the notation we denote $2k^2 + 2k = L$. Hence, also $s^2 = 2 \cdot L + 1$ is an integer, and by the definition of an odd integer, s^2 is odd. Being the contrapositive and the original statement logically equivalent, this means that the original statement - for every integer s , if s^2 is even then s is even - is true. \square

Now we know, that also p must be even. And by definition of an even integer, we also deduce that:

$$(8) \quad p = 2r \quad \text{for some integer } r.$$

Now, by substitution, we insert into equation (6) what we got in equation (8), and we see that:

$$(9) \quad p^2 = (2r)^2 = 4r^2 = 2q^2.$$

By dividing both, $4r^2$ and $2q^2$ by 2, we get:

$$(10) \quad 2r^2 = q^2.$$

As we can see, by the definition of an even integer, q^2 is even, and by proposition (1) also q is even. But earlier, we deduced from (6) that p is even. And this would mean, that both p and q are even, and that they have the common factor 2. But this contradicts the supposition, that p and

q do not have a common factor, other than 1. Hence, the supposition is false and the theorem, which states that the square root of 2 cannot be expressed as a ratio of two integers, is true, which means that it is irrational. \square

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checking the formulation of the last part of the proof, i. e. the conclusion, as well as the whole proof and the references