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 where called *com-mensurable* [2, p. 32]. The discovery of ratios that were not measurable in this way, i. e. that where incommensurable, is attrubuted to HIPPASUS OF METAPONTUM [2, p. 32], and was both, a scientific event [4, p. 59] and a turning point in Greek mathematics [5, p. 1]. Furthermore, it has affected mathematics and philisophy from the time of the Greeks to the present day [4, pp. 59-60] and it is assumed that it marked the origin of what is considered the Greek contribution to rigorous procedure in mathematics [4, p. 59], [5, p. 1]. The starting point of this turning point in Greek mathematics was the Pythagorean theorem, that was discovered indipendently in several ancient cultures [5, 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 where whole-number triples that - denoted in modern notation - satisfy the equation  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$  [5, pp. 3–4] such as for instance the following ones, that are referred to as Pythagorean triples [3, p. 4], e. g.  $\langle 3, 4, 5 \rangle$ ,  $\langle 5, 12, 13 \rangle$ ,  $\langle 8, 15, 17 \rangle$ :

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

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:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Adding to the blog that I also will treat the historical aspects of the mathematical concepts presented

checking the whole document

checking the whole logical steps of each proof

Checking the explanation on the M Companion and on the AM Companion

That is:

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

which by basic algebra can be rearranged into:

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

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

If we add or multiply integers toghether, 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.

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

(8) 
$$p = 2r$$
 for some integer r.

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

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

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

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

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.

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

## References

- $^1{\rm S.~J.~Axler},\, Algebra~\mathcal{E}~trigonometry:$  with student solutions manual (Wiley, Hoboken, N.J, 2012).
- <sup>2</sup>M. Kline, *Mathematical thought from ancient to modern times* (Oxford University Press, New York, 1990).
- <sup>3</sup>J. Stillwell, *Mathematics and its history*, 3rd ed, Undergraduate Texts in Mathematics (Springer, New York, 2010), 660 pp.
- <sup>4</sup>R. Courant, H. Robbins, and I. Stewart, What is mathematics? an elementary approach to ideas and methods, 2nd ed (Oxford University Press, New York, 1996), 566 pp.
- <sup>5</sup>J. Stillwell, *The story of proof: logic and the history of mathematics* (Princeton university press, Princeton, New Jersey, 2022).