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There are infinitely many primes: two ring-theoretic variations on Euclid

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ABSTRACT. Using elementary ring theory, we present two proofs in the mode of Euclid that there are infinitely many primes.

1. INTRODUCTION

Euclid's proof of the infinitude of primes is a paragon of incisive mathematical reasoning. It's the first entry—deservedly—in Aigner and Ziegler's compilation, their terrestrial approximation to the celestial BOOK [1, p. 3]. The result (infinitude of primes) has been re-proved over and over. Aigner and Ziegler, for example, discuss six proofs in their first chapter and infinitely many more (in a sense) in an appendix.

We use elementary ring theory to show, yet again, that there are infinitely many primes. The argument's strategy is simple: if p_1, \ldots, p_n is the complete list of primes, then the ring of rational numbers \mathbb{Q} is obtained from the ring of integers \mathbb{Z} by adjoining the single element $1/p_1 \cdots p_n$. The task then is to show that this is an untenable structure for \mathbb{Q} which we do in two overlapping ways. In each case, the proof makes use of the key Euclidean manoeuvre: given the list of primes p_1, \ldots, p_n , consider $p_1 \cdots p_n+1$.

We conclude with some comments on Euclid's classic argument.

2. First Proof

Given nonzero integers a_1, \ldots, a_n , we write $\mathbb{Z}[1/a_1, \ldots, 1/a_n]$ for the smallest subring of \mathbb{Q} containing \mathbb{Z} and each $1/a_i$. Equivalently, it's the smallest subring of \mathbb{Q} with identity in which a_1, \ldots, a_n are invertible. As the notation suggests, it consists of all $f(1/a_1, \ldots, 1/a_n)$ for $f(X_1, \ldots, X_n) \in \mathbb{Z}[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$.

Note that

$$\mathbb{Z}[1/a_1,\ldots,1/a_n] = \mathbb{Z}[1/a_1\cdots a_n]. \tag{1}$$

Indeed, $a_1 \cdots a_n$ is invertible (in a subring of \mathbb{Q} with identity) if and only if each a_i is invertible (in that subring), and so the two rings coincide.

Suppose now that there are only finitely many primes, say p_1, \ldots, p_n . Since each positive integer m is a product of primes, our supposition implies that 1/m is in $\mathbb{Z}[1/p_1, \ldots, 1/p_n]$, and therefore

$$\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Z}[1/p_1, \dots, 1/p_n].$$

Equivalently, by (1), $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Z}[1/p_1 \cdots p_n]$. To simplify the notation, we set $a = p_1 \cdots p_n$, so that $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Z}[1/a]$.

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In particular, $1/(a+1) \in \mathbb{Z}[1/a]$. This means there exist integers c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_m such that

$$\frac{1}{a+1} = c_0 + c_1 \frac{1}{a} + \dots + c_m \frac{1}{a^m}$$

Multiplying through by a^m , we have

$$\frac{a^m}{a+1} = c_0 a^m + c_1 a^{m-1} + \dots + c_m \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

That is, a + 1 divides a^m . Now $1 = [(a + 1) - a]^m$. Expanding the right side, we see that

$$1 = A(a+1) + (-1)^m a^m,$$

for some integer A. Since a + 1 divides a^m , it follows that a + 1 divides 1 which is absurd. We've proved that there are infinitely many primes.

3. Second Proof

Assume once more that there are only finitely many primes p_1, \ldots, p_n . As above, it follows that $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Z}[1/a]$ for $a = p_1 \cdots p_n$. In other words, the homomorphism of rings

$$f(\mathbf{X}) \mapsto f(1/a) : \mathbb{Z}[\mathbf{X}] \to \mathbb{Q}$$
 (2)

is surjective. We write I_a for its kernel, so that (2) induces an isomorphism of rings

$$\overline{f(\mathbf{X})} \longmapsto f(1/a) : \mathbb{Z}[\mathbf{X}]/I_a \xrightarrow{\simeq} \mathbb{Q}.$$
(3)

In particular, $\mathbb{Z}[X]/I_a$ is a field, or equivalently I_a is a maximal ideal in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$.

To finish the argument, we could appeal to a property of maximal ideals in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ that each such ideal contains some nonzero constant polynomial. Indeed, as I_a contains no nonzero constants, we see that I_a cannot be maximal, a contradiction.

This approach, however, is unsatisfying: the property that maximal ideals in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ contain nonzero constants lies deeper than the existence of infinitely many primes. Instead, we'll use only our bare hands to prove the following: if $\mathbb{Z}[X]/I_a$ is a field then a+1 must divide 1 (as in the first proof). Our path to this absurdity rests on identifying the structure of the ideal I_a .

Lemma. We have $I_a = (aX - 1)$, the principal ideal generated by aX - 1.

The ideal of elements of $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ that vanish at 1/a is generated by X - 1/a and so also by aX - 1. The proof that I_a is generated by aX - 1 is then a short exercise using Gauss's Lemma—a product of primitive polynomials is primitive. (Recall an element of $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ is primitive if the greatest common divisor of its coefficients is 1.) We prefer, however, a still more elementary, albeit ad hoc approach. We want to avoid all tools beyond the most basic properties of polynomials, even one as fundamental as Gauss's Lemma.

Proof. Let $f(X) = c_0 + c_1 X + \dots + c_m X^m \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ with $c_m \neq 0$, so f(X) has degree m. We have

$$c_0 + c_1 \frac{1}{a} + \dots + c_m \frac{1}{a^m} = \frac{c_0 a^m + c_1 a^{m-1} + \dots + c_m}{a^m}$$

Thus f(1/a) = 0 if and only if $\tilde{f}(a) = 0$ where

$$\widetilde{f}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{X}^m f(1/\mathbf{X})$$

$$= c_0 \mathbf{X}^m + c_1 \mathbf{X}^{m-1} + \dots + c_m.$$
(4)

We call $\tilde{f}(X)$ the *reverse* of f(X) and going from f(X) to $\tilde{f}(X)$ reversing. Visibly, the reverse of the reverse of f(X) is f(X): reversing is an involution on the set of nonzero

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elements of $\mathbb{Z}[X]$. Moreover, it follows readily from (4) that reversing is multiplicative: that is, $\widetilde{f_1 f_2}(X) = \widetilde{f_1}(X)\widetilde{f_2}(X)$ for nonzero $f_i(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ (i = 1, 2).

Remember the division algorithm for polynomials applies to monic elements of $\mathbb{Z}[X]$. Hence, for $g(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$, we have g(a) = 0 if and only if X - a divides g(X) in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$. In particular,

$$\widetilde{f}(a) = 0 \iff \widetilde{f}(\mathbf{X}) = (\mathbf{X} - a) h(\mathbf{X}),$$

for some h(X). Reversing the polynomial equation and noting that the reverse of X - a is -(aX - 1), we see that

$$\widetilde{f}(a) = 0 \iff f(\mathbf{X}) = (a\mathbf{X} - 1)\left(-\widetilde{h}(\mathbf{X})\right).$$

Thus f(1/a) = 0 if and only if aX - 1 divides f(X). We've proved the lemma.

Now, since $a + 1 \notin I_a$, the coset $(a + 1) + I_a$ is invertible in the field $\mathbb{Z}[X]/I_a$. Hence there is an $h(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ such that $(a + 1)h(X) + I_a = 1 + I_a$. Using the lemma, it follows that

$$(a+1) h(X) = 1 + (aX - 1) k(X),$$
(5)

for some k(X). Substituting X = a, we obtain

$$(a+1) h(a) = 1 + (a^2 - 1) k(a)$$

and so

$$(a+1) [h(a) - (a-1) k(a)] = 1.$$

Again, we've reached the absurdity that a + 1 divides 1. We've proved once more that there are infinitely many primes.

4. Comments on Euclid's Proof

First, let's recast Euclid's argument in the language of ring theory.

Proof. Let a be a nonunit in \mathbb{Z} , that is, $a \neq \pm 1$. Then a has a prime divisor p, or equivalently $a \in (p)$ for some prime p. We assume that there are only finitely many primes, say p_1, \ldots, p_n . It follows that each nonunit in \mathbb{Z} is contained in some (p_i) , and therefore

$$\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{\pm 1\} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} (p_i).$$
(6)

Now $p_1 \cdots p_n + 1$ is not divisible by p_i , for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. That is,

$$p_1 \cdots p_n + 1 \notin \bigcup_{i=1}^n (p_i).$$

Using (6), we have $p_1 \cdots p_n + 1 = \pm 1$. Nonsense! We conclude that there are infinitely many primes.

Remark 1. We've presented our variants of Euclid's argument in terms of contradiction. In this form, they give the *existence* of infinitely many primes. As many have noted, however, Euclid's reasoning is *constructive* (see, for example, [2, p. 31]): given a finite list of primes p_1, \ldots, p_n , Euclid gives a way (an inefficient way) of adjoining a new prime to the list—namely, any prime factor of $p_1 \cdots p_n + 1$.

Having dressed Euclid's proof in ring-theoretic garb, we can use some set theory to obtain a small generalization. First, some notation. For R a ring with identity, we write R^{\times} for the group of units of R.

Proposition. Let R be a PID that is not a field and suppose the cardinality of R^{\times} is strictly smaller than that of R. Then R contains infinitely many irreducible elements (up to multiplication by units).

The result applies, in particular, if R^{\times} is finite.

Proof. We assume that R has only finitely many irreducible elements $\varpi_1, \ldots, \varpi_n$ (up to multiplication by units) and will show that R^{\times} and R have the same cardinality.

By hypothesis, each nonunit in R is divisible by some ϖ_i . Therefore

$$R \setminus R^{\times} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} (\varpi_i).$$

Now, for $r \in R$, the element $1 + r\varpi_1 \cdots \varpi_n$ is not contained in any (ϖ_i) , and so belongs to R^{\times} . Hence we have a map

$$r \mapsto 1 + r \varpi_1 \cdots \varpi_n : R \to R^{\times}$$

which is injective (as R is a domain). By the Schröder-Bernstein Theorem, R^{\times} and R have the same cardinality.

Remark 2. The proposition is not sharp—it was too easy to prove to expect it to be sharp! That is, there are PIDs R with infinitely many irreducible elements (up to multiplication by units) for which R^{\times} has the same cardinality as R. Example: $R = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$. Indeed, as $(\sqrt{2}+1)(\sqrt{2}-1) = 1$, we see that R^{\times} contains the infinite cyclic group generated by $\sqrt{2} + 1$, and so is countably infinite.

Remark 3. Which PIDs R contain infinitely many irreducible elements (up to multiplication by units)? The note [3] gives a characterization in terms of the polynomial ring R[X]: a PID R has the given property if and only if each maximal chain of prime ideals in R[X] has length two, that is, has the form $\{0\} \subseteq \mathfrak{p}_1 \subseteq \mathfrak{p}_2$, for prime ideals \mathfrak{p}_i in R[X] (i = 1, 2).

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