

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, \dots, 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, \dots, 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, \dots, a_n , we write $\mathbb{Z}[1/a_1, \dots, 1/a_n]$ 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, \dots, a_n are invertible. As the notation suggests, it consists of all $f(1/a_1, \dots, 1/a_n)$ for $f(X_1, \dots, X_n) \in \mathbb{Z}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$.

Note that

$$\mathbb{Z}[1/a_1, \dots, 1/a_n] = \mathbb{Z}[1/a_1 \cdots a_n]. \quad (1)$$

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, \dots, p_n . Since each positive integer m is a product of primes, our supposition implies that $1/m$ is in $\mathbb{Z}[1/p_1, \dots, 1/p_n]$, 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, \dots, 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. \square

3. SECOND PROOF

Assume once more that there are only finitely many primes p_1, \dots, 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

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

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

$$\overline{f(X)} \mapsto f(1/a) : \mathbb{Z}[X]/I_a \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{Q}. \quad (3)$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{f}(X) &= X^m f(1/X) \\ &= c_0 X^m + c_1 X^{m-1} + \dots + c_m. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

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

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,

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

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

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

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

$$(a + 1)h(X) = 1 + (aX - 1)k(X), \tag{5}$$

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, \dots, p_n . It follows that each nonunit in \mathbb{Z} is contained in some (p_i) , and therefore

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

Now $p_1 \cdots p_n + 1$ is not divisible by p_i , for $i = 1, \dots, n$. 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, \dots, 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 $\varpi_1, \dots, \varpi_n$ (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

$$r \mapsto 1 + r\varpi_1 \cdots \varpi_n : R \rightarrow R^\times$$

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

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 $\{0\} \subsetneq \mathfrak{p}_1 \subsetneq \mathfrak{p}_2$, for prime ideals \mathfrak{p}_i in $R[X]$ ($i = 1, 2$).

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