On ZFC-formulae $\varphi(x)$ for which we know a non-negative integer n such that $\max(\{x \in \mathbb{N} : \varphi(x)\}) \le n$ if the set $\{x \in \mathbb{N} : \varphi(x)\}$ is finite

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Abstract

Let $\Gamma(k)$ denote (k-1)!, and let $\Gamma_n(k)$ denote (k-1)!, where $n \in \{3, \ldots, 16\}$ and $k \in \{2\} \cup [2^{2^{n-3}}+1,\infty) \cap \mathbb{N}$. For an integer $n \in \{3,\ldots, 16\}$, let Σ_n denote the following statement: if a system of equations $S \subseteq \{\Gamma_n(x_i) = x_k : i, k \in \{1,\ldots, n\}\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1,\ldots, n\}\}$ with Γ instead of Γ_n has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x_1,\ldots,x_n , then every tuple $(x_1,\ldots,x_n) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^n$ that solves the original system S satisfies $x_1,\ldots,x_n \leqslant 2^{2^{n-2}}$. Our hypothesis claims that the statements $\Sigma_3,\ldots,\Sigma_{16}$ are true. The statement Σ_6 proves the following implication: if the equation x(x+1) = y! has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x and y, then each such solution (x,y) belongs to the set $\{(1,2),(2,3)\}$. The statement Σ_6 proves the following implication: if the equation $x! + 1 = y^2$ has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x and y, then each such solution (x,y) belongs to the set $\{(4,5),(5,11),(7,71)\}$. The statement Σ_9 implies the infinitude of primes of the form x + 1. The statement x implies that any prime of the form x + 1 with x implies the infinitude of primes. The statement x implies the infinitude of Sophie Germain primes.

Key words and phrases: Brocard's problem, Brocard-Ramanujan equation $x! + 1 = y^2$, composite Fermat numbers, Erdös' equation x(x + 1) = y!, prime numbers of the form $n^2 + 1$, prime numbers of the form n! + 1, Sophie Germain primes, twin primes.

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1 Introduction and basic lemmas

The phrase "we know a non-negative integer n" in the title means that we know an algorithm which returns n. The title of the article cannot be formalized in ZFC because the phrase "we know a non-negative integer n" refers to currently known non-negative integers n with some property. A formally stated title may look like this: On ZFC-formulae $\varphi(x)$ for which there exists a non-negative integer n such that ZFC proves that

$$\operatorname{card}(\{x \in \mathbb{N} : \varphi(x)\}) < \infty \Longrightarrow \max(\{x \in \mathbb{N} : \varphi(x)\}) \le n$$

Unfortunately, this formulation admits formulae $\varphi(x)$ without any known non-negative integer n such that ZFC proves the above implication.

Lemma 1. For every positive integers x and y, $x! \cdot y = y!$ if and only if

$$(x + 1 = y) \lor (x = y = 1)$$

Let $\Gamma(k)$ denote (k-1)!.

Lemma 2. For every positive integers x and y, $x \cdot \Gamma(x) = \Gamma(y)$ if and only if

$$(x + 1 = y) \lor (x = y = 1)$$

Lemma 3. For every non-negative integers b and c, b + 1 = c if and only if $2^{2^b} \cdot 2^{2^b} = 2^{2^c}$.

Lemma 4. (Wilson's theorem, [4, p. 89]). For every positive integer x, x divides (x - 1)! + 1 if and only if x = 1 or x is prime.

We say that a non-negative integer m is a threshold number of a set $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, if X is infinite if and only if X contains an element greater than m, cf. [20] and [21]. If a set $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is empty or infinite, then any non-negative integer m is a threshold number of X. If a set $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is non-empty and finite, then the all threshold numbers of X form the set $\{\max(X), \max(X) + 1, \max(X) + 2, \ldots\}$.

2 Subsets of \mathbb{N} and their threshold numbers

The height of a rational number $\frac{p}{q}$ is denoted by $H\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)$ and equals $\max(|p|,|q|)$ provided $\frac{p}{q}$ is written in lowest terms. The height of a rational tuple (x_1,\ldots,x_n) is denoted by $H(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ and equals $\max(H(x_1),\ldots,H(x_n))$.

Lemma 5. The equation $x^5 - x = y^2 - y$ has only finitely many rational solutions, see [8, p. 212]. The known rational solutions are (x,y) = (-1,0), (-1,1), (0,0), (0,1), (1,0), (1,1), (2,-5), (2,6), (3,-15), (3,16), (30,-4929), (30,4930), $(\frac{1}{4},\frac{15}{32})$, $(\frac{1}{4},\frac{17}{32})$, $(-\frac{15}{16},-\frac{185}{1024})$, $(-\frac{15}{16},\frac{1209}{1024})$, and the existence of other solutions is an open question, see [13, pp. 223–224].

Corollary 1. The set $\mathcal{T} = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : \text{the equation } x^5 - x = y^2 - y \text{ has a rational solution of height } n\}$ is finite. We know an algorithm which for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ decides whether or not $n \in \mathcal{T}$. We do not know any algorithm which returns a threshold number of \mathcal{T} .

Let \mathcal{D} denote the following system of equations:

$$\begin{cases} x^2 + y^2 &= s^2 \\ x^2 + z^2 &= t^2 \\ y^2 + z^2 &= u^2 \\ x^2 + y^2 + z^2 &= v^2 \end{cases}$$

Let $\mathcal{F} = \{z \in \mathbb{N} : \text{the system } \mathcal{D} \text{ has a solution } (x, y, z, s, t, u, v) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^7 \text{ with } x \leq y \leq z\}$. A perfect cuboid is a cuboid having integer side lengths, integer face diagonals, and an integer space diagonal.

Lemma 6. ([17]). No perfect cuboids are known.

Corollary 2. The set \mathcal{F} is empty or infinite. We know an algorithm which for every $z \in \mathbb{N}$ decides whether or not $z \in \mathcal{F}$. Every non-negative integer z is a threshold number of \mathcal{F} .

Let

$$\mathcal{H} = \begin{cases} \mathbb{N}, & \text{if } \sin\left(9^{9^{9^{9^{9}}}}\right) < 0 \\ \mathbb{N} \cap \left[0, & \sin\left(9^{9^{9^{9^{9}}}}\right) \cdot 9^{9^{9^{9^{9}}}}\right) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We do not know whether or not the set \mathcal{H} is finite.

It is conjectured that the set of prime numbers of the form $n^2 + 1$ is infinite, see [9, pp. 37–38]. It is conjectured that the set of prime numbers of the form n! + 1 is infinite, see [2, p. 443] and [14]. It is conjectured that the set of twin primes is infinite, see [9, p. 39]. It is conjectured that the set of composite numbers of the form $2^{2^n} + 1$ is infinite, see [5, p. 23] and [6, pp. 158–159]. For each of these sets, we do not know any threshold number.

A Diophantine equation whose non-solvability expresses the consistency of *ZFC*

Gödel's second incompleteness theorem and the Davis-Putnam-Robinson-Matiyasevich theorem imply the following theorem.

Theorem 1. ([3, p. 35]). There exists a polynomial $D(x_1,...,x_m)$ with integer coefficients such that if ZFC is arithmetically consistent, then the sentences "The equation $D(x_1,...,x_m) = 0$ is solvable in non-negative integers" and "The equation $D(x_1,...,x_m) = 0$ is not solvable in non-negative integers" are not provable in ZFC.

Let \mathcal{Y} denote the set of all non-negative integers k such that the equation $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = 0$ has no solutions in $\{0, \ldots, k\}^m$. Since the set $\{0, \ldots, k\}^m$ is finite, we know an algorithm which for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ decides whether or not $n \in \mathcal{Y}$. Let \mathcal{E} denote the set of all non-negative integers k such that the equation $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = 0$ has a solution in $\{0, \ldots, k\}^m$. Since the set $\{0, \ldots, k\}^m$ is finite, we know an algorithm which for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ decides whether or not $n \in \mathcal{E}$. Theorem 1 implies Theorems 2 and 3.

Theorem 2. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, ZFC proves that $n \in \mathcal{Y}$. If ZFC is arithmetically consistent, then the sentences " \mathcal{Y} is finite" and " \mathcal{Y} is infinite" are not provable in ZFC. If ZFC is arithmetically consistent, then for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ the sentences "n is a threshold number of \mathcal{Y} " and "n is not a threshold number of \mathcal{Y} " are not provable in ZFC.

Theorem 3. The set \mathcal{E} is empty or infinite. In both cases, every non-negative integer n is a threshold number of \mathcal{E} . If ZFC is arithmetically consistent, then the sentences " \mathcal{E} is empty", " \mathcal{E} is infinite" are not provable in ZFC.

4 Hypothetical statements Ψ_3, \dots, Ψ_{16}

For an integer $n \ge 3$, let \mathcal{U}_n denote the following system of equations:

$$\begin{cases}
\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n-1\} \setminus \{2\} \ x_i! = x_{i+1} \\
x_1 \cdot x_2 = x_3 \\
x_2 \cdot x_2 = x_3
\end{cases}$$

The diagram in Figure 1 illustrates the construction of the system \mathcal{U}_n .

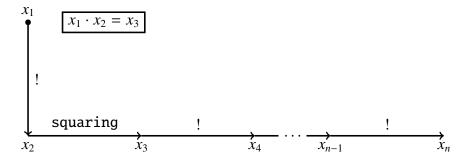


Fig. 1 Construction of the system \mathcal{U}_n

Let g(3) = 4, and let g(n + 1) = g(n)! for every integer $n \ge 3$.

Lemma 7. For every integer $n \ge 3$, the system \mathcal{U}_n has exactly two solutions in positive integers, namely $(1, \ldots, 1)$ and $(2, 2, g(3), \ldots, g(n))$.

Let

$$B_n = \{x_i! = x_k : (i, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}) \land (i \neq k)\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$$

For an integer $n \ge 3$, let Ψ_n denote the following statement: if a system of equations $S \subseteq B_n$ has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_n , then each such solution (x_1, \ldots, x_n) satisfies $x_1, \ldots, x_n \le g(n)$. The statement Ψ_n says that for subsystems of B_n the largest known solution is indeed the largest possible.

Hypothesis 1. The statements Ψ_3, \dots, Ψ_{16} are true.

Proposition 2. Every statement Ψ_n is true with an unknown integer bound that depends on n.

Proof. For every positive integer n, the system B_n has a finite number of subsystems.

Proposition 3. For every statement Ψ_n , the bound g(n) cannot be decreased.

Proof. It follows from Lemma 7 because $\mathcal{U}_n \subseteq B_n$.

5 The Brocard-Ramanujan equation $x! + 1 = y^2$

Let \mathcal{A} denote the following system of equations:

$$\begin{cases} x_1! = x_2 \\ x_2! = x_3 \\ x_5! = x_6 \\ x_4 \cdot x_4 = x_5 \\ x_3 \cdot x_5 = x_6 \end{cases}$$

Lemma 1 and the diagram in Figure 2 explain the construction of the system \mathcal{A} .

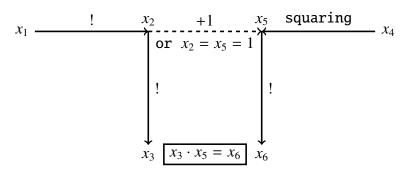


Fig. 2 Construction of the system \mathcal{A}

Lemma 8. For every $x_1, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$, the system \mathcal{A} is solvable in positive integers x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6 if and only if $x_1! + 1 = x_4^2$. In this case, the integers x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6 are uniquely determined by the following equalities:

$$x_2 = x_1!$$

 $x_3 = (x_1!)!$
 $x_5 = x_1! + 1$
 $x_6 = (x_1! + 1)!$

Proof. It follows from Lemma 1.

It is conjectured that x! + 1 is a perfect square only for $x \in \{4, 5, 7\}$, see [16, p. 297]. A weak form of Szpiro's conjecture implies that there are only finitely many solutions to the equation $x! + 1 = y^2$, see [10].

Theorem 4. If the equation $x_1! + 1 = x_4^2$ has only finitely many solutions in positive integers, then the statement Ψ_6 guarantees that each such solution (x_1, x_4) belongs to the set $\{(4, 5), (5, 11), (7, 71)\}$.

Proof. Suppose that the antecedent holds. Let positive integers x_1 and x_4 satisfy $x_1! + 1 = x_4^2$. Then, $x_1, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$. By Lemma 8, the system \mathcal{A} is solvable in positive integers x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6 . Since $\mathcal{A} \subseteq B_6$, the statement Ψ_6 implies that $x_6 = (x_1! + 1)! \leq g(6) = g(5)!$. Hence, $x_1! + 1 \leq g(5) = g(4)!$. Consequently, $x_1 < g(4) = 24$. If $x_1 \in \{1, \dots, 23\}$, then $x_1! + 1$ is a perfect square only for $x_1 \in \{4, 5, 7\}$.

6 Are there infinitely many prime numbers of the form $n^2 + 1$?

Let \mathcal{B} denote the following system of equations:

$$\begin{cases} x_2! = x_3 \\ x_3! = x_4 \\ x_5! = x_6 \\ x_8! = x_9 \\ x_1 \cdot x_1 = x_2 \\ x_3 \cdot x_5 = x_6 \\ x_4 \cdot x_8 = x_9 \\ x_5 \cdot x_7 = x_8 \end{cases}$$

Lemma 1 and the diagram in Figure 3 explain the construction of the system \mathcal{B} .

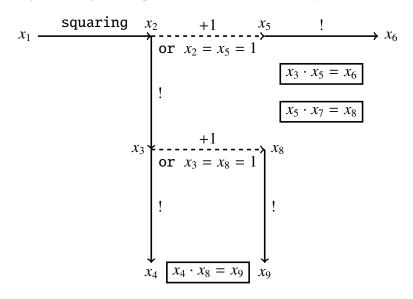


Fig. 3 Construction of the system \mathcal{B}

Lemma 9. For every integer $x_1 \ge 2$, the system \mathcal{B} is solvable in positive integers x_2, \ldots, x_9 if and only if $x_1^2 + 1$ is prime. In this case, the integers x_2, \ldots, x_9 are uniquely determined by the following equalities:

$$x_{2} = x_{1}^{2}$$

$$x_{3} = (x_{1}^{2})!$$

$$x_{4} = ((x_{1}^{2})!)!$$

$$x_{5} = x_{1}^{2} + 1$$

$$x_{6} = (x_{1}^{2} + 1)!$$

$$x_{7} = \frac{(x_{1}^{2})! + 1}{x_{1}^{2} + 1}$$

$$x_{8} = (x_{1}^{2})! + 1$$

$$x_{9} = ((x_{1}^{2})! + 1)!$$

Proof. By Lemma 1, for every integer $x_1 \ge 2$, the system \mathcal{B} is solvable in positive integers x_2, \dots, x_9 if and only if $x_1^2 + 1$ divides $(x_1^2)! + 1$. Hence, the claim of Lemma 9 follows from Lemma 4.

Lemma 10. There are only finitely many tuples $(x_1, ..., x_9) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ which solve the system \mathcal{B} and satisfy $x_1 = 1$.

Proof. If a tuple $(x_1, \ldots, x_9) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ solves the system \mathcal{B} and $x_1 = 1$, then $x_1, \ldots, x_9 \le 2$. Indeed, $x_1 = 1$ implies that $x_2 = x_1^2 = 1$. Hence, for example, $x_3 = x_2! = 1$. Therefore, $x_8 = x_3 + 1 = 2$ or $x_8 = 1$. Consequently, $x_9 = x_8! \le 2$.

Edmund Landau's conjecture states that there are infinitely many primes of the form $n^2 + 1$, see [9, pp. 37–38].

Theorem 5. The statement Ψ_9 proves the following implication: if there exists an integer $x_1 \ge 2$ such that $x_1^2 + 1$ is prime and greater than g(7), then there are infinitely many primes of the form $n^2 + 1$.

Proof. Suppose that the antecedent holds. By Lemma 9, there exists a unique tuple $(x_2,\ldots,x_9)\in(\mathbb{N}\setminus\{0\})^8$ such that the tuple (x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_9) solves the system \mathcal{B} . Since $x_1^2+1>g(7)$, we obtain that $x_1^2\geqslant g(7)$. Hence, $(x_1^2)!\geqslant g(7)!=g(8)$. Consequently,

$$x_9 = ((x_1^2)! + 1)! \ge (g(8) + 1)! > g(8)! = g(9)$$

Since $\mathcal{B} \subseteq B_9$, the statement Ψ_9 and the inequality $x_9 > g(9)$ imply that the system \mathcal{B} has infinitely many solutions $(x_1, \ldots, x_9) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$. According to Lemmas 9 and 10, there are infinitely many primes of the form $n^2 + 1$.

Corollary 3. Let X_9 denote the set of primes of the form $n^2 + 1$. The statement Ψ_9 implies that we know an algorithm such that it returns a threshold number of X_9 , and this number equals $\max(X_9)$, if X_9 is finite.

Proof. We consider an algorithm which computes $\max(X_0 \cap [1, g(7)])$.

7 Are there infinitely many prime numbers of the form n! + 1?

It is conjectured that there are infinitely many primes of the form n! + 1, see [2, p. 443] and [14].

Theorem 6. (cf. Theorem 10). The statement Ψ_9 proves the following implication: if there exists an integer $x_1 \ge g(6)$ such that $x_1! + 1$ is prime, then there are infinitely many primes of the form n! + 1.

Proof. We leave the analogous proof to the reader.

8 The twin prime conjecture

A twin prime is a prime number that differs from another prime number by 2. The twin prime conjecture states that there are infinitely many twin primes, see [9, p. 39]. Let C denote the following system of

equations:

$$x_{1}! = x_{2}$$

$$x_{2}! = x_{3}$$

$$x_{4}! = x_{5}$$

$$x_{6}! = x_{7}$$

$$x_{7}! = x_{8}$$

$$x_{9}! = x_{10}$$

$$x_{12}! = x_{13}$$

$$x_{15}! = x_{16}$$

$$x_{2} \cdot x_{4} = x_{5}$$

$$x_{5} \cdot x_{6} = x_{7}$$

$$x_{7} \cdot x_{9} = x_{10}$$

$$x_{4} \cdot x_{11} = x_{12}$$

$$x_{3} \cdot x_{12} = x_{13}$$

$$x_{9} \cdot x_{14} = x_{15}$$

$$x_{9} \cdot x_{15} = x_{16}$$

Lemma 1 and the diagram in Figure 4 explain the construction of the system *C*.

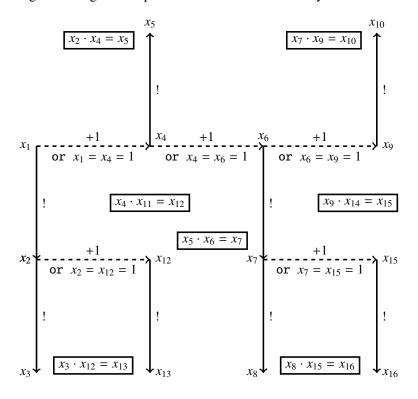


Fig. 4 Construction of the system C

Lemma 11. For every $x_4, x_9 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2\}$, the system C is solvable in positive integers $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_8, x_{10}, x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{13}, x_{14}, x_{15}, x_{16}$ if and only if x_4 and x_9 are prime and $x_4 + 2 = x_9$. In this case, the integers $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_8, x_{10}, x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{13}, x_{14}, x_{15}, x_{16}$ are uniquely determined by

the following equalities:

$$x_{1} = x_{4} - 1$$

$$x_{2} = (x_{4} - 1)!$$

$$x_{3} = ((x_{4} - 1)!)!$$

$$x_{5} = x_{4}!$$

$$x_{6} = x_{9} - 1$$

$$x_{7} = (x_{9} - 1)!$$

$$x_{8} = ((x_{9} - 1)!)!$$

$$x_{10} = x_{9}!$$

$$x_{11} = \frac{(x_{4} - 1)! + 1}{x_{4}}$$

$$x_{12} = (x_{4} - 1)! + 1$$

$$x_{13} = ((x_{4} - 1)! + 1)!$$

$$x_{14} = \frac{(x_{9} - 1)! + 1}{x_{9}}$$

$$x_{15} = (x_{9} - 1)! + 1$$

$$x_{16} = ((x_{9} - 1)! + 1)!$$

Proof. By Lemma 1, for every $x_4, x_9 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2\}$, the system *C* is solvable in positive integers $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_8, x_{10}, x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{13}, x_{14}, x_{15}, x_{16}$ if and only if

$$(x_4 + 2 = x_9) \wedge (x_4 | (x_4 - 1)! + 1) \wedge (x_9 | (x_9 - 1)! + 1)$$

Hence, the claim of Lemma 11 follows from Lemma 4.

Lemma 12. There are only finitely many tuples $(x_1, \ldots, x_{16}) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{16}$ which solve the system C and satisfy $(x_4 \in \{1, 2\}) \vee (x_9 \in \{1, 2\})$.

Proof. If a tuple $(x_1, ..., x_{16}) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{16}$ solves the system *C* and $(x_4 \in \{1, 2\}) \vee (x_9 \in \{1, 2\})$, then $x_1, ..., x_{16} \le 7!$. Indeed, for example, if $x_4 = 2$ then $x_6 = x_4 + 1 = 3$. Hence, $x_7 = x_6! = 6$. Therefore, $x_{15} = x_7 + 1 = 7$. Consequently, $x_{16} = x_{15}! = 7!$. □

Theorem 7. The statement Ψ_{16} proves the following implication: if there exists a twin prime greater than g(14), then there are infinitely many twin primes.

Proof. Suppose that the antecedent holds. Then, there exist prime numbers x_4 and x_9 such that $x_9 = x_4 + 2 > g(14)$. Hence, $x_4, x_9 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2\}$. By Lemma 11, there exists a unique tuple $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_8, x_{10}, x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{13}, x_{14}, x_{15}, x_{16}) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ such that the tuple (x_1, \dots, x_{16}) solves the system *C*. Since $x_9 > g(14)$, we obtain that $x_9 - 1 \ge g(14)$. Therefore, $(x_9 - 1)! \ge g(14)! = g(15)$. Hence, $(x_9 - 1)! + 1 > g(15)$. Consequently,

$$x_{16} = ((x_9 - 1)! + 1)! > g(15)! = g(16)$$

Since $C \subseteq B_{16}$, the statement Ψ_{16} and the inequality $x_{16} > g(16)$ imply that the system C has infinitely many solutions in positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_{16} . According to Lemmas 11 and 12, there are infinitely many twin primes.

Corollary 4. Let X_{16} denote the set of twin primes. The statement Ψ_{16} implies that we know an algorithm such that it returns a threshold number of X_{16} , and this number equals $\max(X_{16})$, if X_{16} is finite.

Proof. We consider an algorithm which computes $\max(X_{16} \cap [1, g(14)])$.

9 Hypothetical statements $\Delta_5, \ldots, \Delta_{14}$ and their consequences

Let $\lambda(5) = \Gamma(25)$, and let $\lambda(n+1) = \Gamma(\lambda(n))$ for every integer $n \ge 5$. For an integer $n \ge 5$, let \mathcal{J}_n denote the following system of equations:

$$\begin{cases}
\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n-1\} \setminus \{3\} \Gamma(x_i) = x_{i+1} \\
x_1 \cdot x_1 = x_4 \\
x_2 \cdot x_3 = x_5
\end{cases}$$

Lemma 2 and the diagram in Figure 5 explain the construction of the system \mathcal{J}_n .

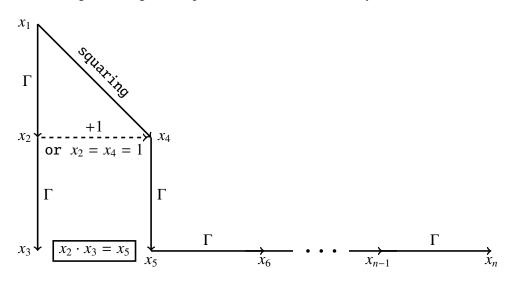


Fig. 5 Construction of the system \mathcal{J}_n

For every integer $n \ge 5$, the system \mathcal{J}_n has exactly two solutions in positive integers, namely $(1,\ldots,1)$ and $(5,24,23!,25,\lambda(5),\ldots,\lambda(n))$. For an integer $n \ge 5$, let Δ_n denote the following statement: if a system of equations $S \subseteq \{\Gamma(x_i) = x_k : i,k \in \{1,\ldots,n\}\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i,j,k \in \{1,\ldots,n\}\}$ has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x_1,\ldots,x_n , then each such solution (x_1,\ldots,x_n) satisfies $x_1,\ldots,x_n \le \lambda(n)$.

Hypothesis 2. The statements $\Delta_5, \ldots, \Delta_{14}$ are true.

Lemmas 2 and 4 imply that the statements Δ_n have similar consequences as the statements Ψ_n .

Theorem 8. The statement Δ_6 implies that any prime number $p \ge 25$ proves the infinitude of primes.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 2 and 4. We leave the details to the reader.

10 Hypothetical statements $\Sigma_3, \dots, \Sigma_{16}$ and their consequences

Let $\Gamma_n(k)$ denote (k-1)!, where $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$ and $k \in \{2\} \cup [2^{2^{n-3}} + 1, \infty) \cap \mathbb{N}$. For an integer $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$, let

$$Q_n = \{\Gamma_n(x_i) = x_k : i, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$$

For an integer $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$, let P_n denote the following system of equations:

$$\begin{cases} x_1 \cdot x_1 &= x_1 \\ \Gamma_n(x_2) &= x_1 \end{cases}$$

$$\forall i \in \{2, \dots, n-1\} \ x_i \cdot x_i &= x_{i+1} \end{cases}$$

Lemma 13. For every integer $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$, $P_n \subseteq Q_n$ and the system P_n with Γ instead of Γ_n has exactly one solution in positive integers $x_1, ..., x_n$, namely $\left(1, 2^{2^0}, 2^{2^1}, 2^{2^2}, ..., 2^{2^{n-2}}\right)$.

For an integer $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$, let Σ_n denote the following statement: if a system of equations $S \subseteq Q_n$ with Γ instead of Γ_n has only finitely many solutions in positive integers $x_1, ..., x_n$, then every tuple $(x_1, ..., x_n) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^n$ that solves the original system S satisfies $x_1, ..., x_n \leqslant 2^{2^{n-2}}$.

Hypothesis 3. The statements $\Sigma_3, \ldots, \Sigma_{16}$ are true.

Lemma 14. (cf. Lemma 2). For every integer $n \in \{4, ..., 16\}$ and for every positive integers x and y, $x \cdot \Gamma_n(x) = \Gamma_n(y)$ if and only if $(x + 1 = y) \land (x \ge 2^{2^{n-3}} + 1)$.

Let $\mathbb{Z}_9 \subseteq \mathbb{Q}_9$ be the system of equations in Figure 6.

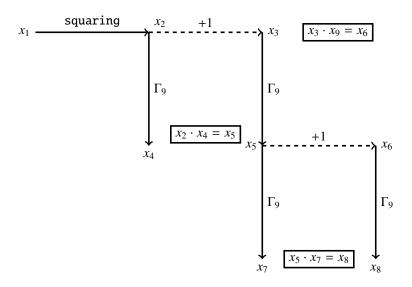


Fig. 6 Construction of the system \mathbb{Z}_9

Lemma 15. For every positive integer x_1 , the system \mathbb{Z}_9 is solvable in positive integers x_2, \ldots, x_9 if and only if $x_1 > 2^{2^{9-4}}$ and $x_1^2 + 1$ is prime. In this case, positive integers x_2, \ldots, x_9 are uniquely determined by x_1 . For every positive integer $x_2, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_2, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_3, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_2, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_3, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_2, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_3, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_3, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_2, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_3, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_3, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_3, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_3, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_3, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin with $x_3, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ begin $x_3, \ldots, x_9 \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 2, 4, and 14.

Lemma 16. ([15]). The number $(13!)^2 + 1 = 38775788043632640001$ is prime.

Lemma 17.
$$((13!)^2 \ge 2^{2^{9-3}} + 1 = 18446744073709551617) \land (\Gamma_9((13!)^2) > 2^{2^{9-2}})$$

Theorem 9. The statement Σ_9 implies the infinitude of primes of the form $n^2 + 1$.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 15–17.

Theorem 10. (cf. Theorem 6). The statement Σ_9 implies that any prime of the form n! + 1 with $n \ge 2^{2^{9-3}}$ proves the infinitude of primes of the form n! + 1.

Proof. We leave the proof to the reader.

Corollary 5. Let \mathcal{Y}_9 denote the set of primes of the form n! + 1. The statement Σ_9 implies that we know an algorithm such that it returns a threshold number of \mathcal{Y}_9 , and this number equals $\max(\mathcal{Y}_9)$, if \mathcal{Y}_9 is finite.

Proof. We consider an algorithm which computes $\max(\mathcal{Y}_9 \cap [1, (2^{2^{9-3}} - 1)! + 1])$.

Let $\mathcal{Z}_{14} \subseteq Q_{14}$ be the system of equations in Figure 7.

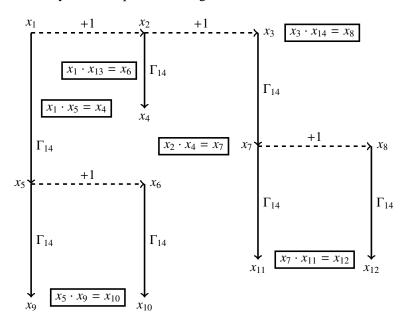


Fig. 7 Construction of the system Z_{14}

Lemma 18. For every positive integer x_1 , the system \mathbb{Z}_{14} is solvable in positive integers x_2, \ldots, x_{14} if and only if x_1 and $x_1 + 2$ are prime and $x_1 \ge 2^{2^{14-3}} + 1$. In this case, positive integers x_2, \ldots, x_{14} are uniquely determined by x_1 . For every positive integer x_1, \ldots, x_{14} are uniquely determined by x_1 . For every positive integer x_2, \ldots, x_{14} are uniquely determined by x_1 . For every positive integer $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin with $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ begin $x_1, \ldots, x_{14} \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 2, 4, and 14.

Lemma 19. ([19, p. 87]). The numbers $459 \cdot 2^{8529} - 1$ and $459 \cdot 2^{8529} + 1$ are prime (Harvey Dubner).

Lemma 20. $459 \cdot 2^{8529} - 1 > 2^{2^{14-2}} = 2^{4096}$.

Theorem 11. The statement Σ_{14} implies the infinitude of twin primes.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 18–20.

A prime p is said to be a Sophie Germain prime if both p and 2p + 1 are prime, see [18]. Let $\mathcal{Z}_{16} \subseteq Q_{16}$ be the system of equations in Figure 8.

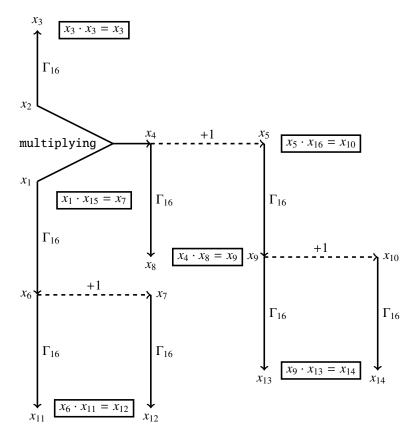


Fig. 8 Construction of the system Z_{16}

Lemma 21. For every positive integer x_1 , the system \mathbb{Z}_{16} is solvable in positive integers x_2, \ldots, x_{16} if and only if x_1 is a Sophie Germain prime and $x_1 \ge 2^{2^{16-3}} + 1$. In this case, positive integers x_2, \ldots, x_{16} are uniquely determined by x_1 . For every positive integer n, at most finitely many tuples $(x_1, \ldots, x_{16}) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{16}$ begin with n and solve the system \mathbb{Z}_{16} with Γ instead of Γ_{16} .

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 2, 4, and 14.

Lemma 22. ([12, p. 330]). 8069496435 · 10⁵⁰⁷² – 1 is a Sophie Germain prime (Harvey Dubner).

Lemma 23. $8069496435 \cdot 10^{5072} - 1 > 2^{2^{16-2}}$

Theorem 12. The statement Σ_{16} implies the infinitude of Sophie Germain primes.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 21–23.

Theorem 13. The statement Σ_6 proves the following implication: if the equation x(x+1) = y! has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x and y, then each such solution (x,y) belongs to the set $\{(1,2),(2,3)\}$.

Proof. We leave the proof to the reader.

The question of solving the equation x(x + 1) = y! was posed by P. Erdös, see [1]. F. Luca proved that the *abc* conjecture implies that the equation x(x + 1) = y! has only finitely many solutions in positive integers, see [7].

Theorem 14. The statement Σ_6 proves the following implication: if the equation $x! + 1 = y^2$ has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x and y, then each such solution (x, y) belongs to the set $\{(4, 5), (5, 11), (7, 71)\}$.

Proof. We leave the proof to the reader.

11 Hypothetical statements $\Omega_3, \dots, \Omega_{16}$ and their consequences

For an integer $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$, let Ω_n denote the following statement: if a system of equations $S \subseteq \{\Gamma(x_i) = x_k : i, k \in \{1, ..., n\}\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, ..., n\}\}$ has a solution in integers $x_1, ..., x_n$ greater than $2^{2^{n-2}}$, then S has infinitely many solutions in positive integers $x_1, ..., x_n$. For every $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$, the statement Σ_n implies the statement Ω_n .

Lemma 24. The number $(65!)^2 + 1$ is prime and $65! > 2^{2^{9-2}}$.

Proof. The following PARI/GP ([11]) command

is shown together with its output. This command performs the APRCL primality test, the best deterministic primality test algorithm ([19, p. 226]). It rigorously shows that the number $(65!)^2 + 1$ is prime.

Lemma 25. If positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_9 solve the system \mathbb{Z}_9 and $x_1 > 2^{2^{9-2}}$, then $x_1 = \min(x_1, \ldots, x_9)$.

Theorem 15. The statement Ω_9 implies the infinitude of primes of the form $n^2 + 1$.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 15 and 24–25.

Lemma 26. If positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_{14} solve the system Z_{14} and $x_1 > 2^{2^{14-2}}$, then $x_1 = \min(x_1, \ldots, x_{14})$.

Theorem 16. The statement Ω_{14} implies the infinitude of twin primes.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 18–20 and 26.

12 Are there infinitely many composite Fermat numbers?

Integers of the form $2^{2^n} + 1$ are called Fermat numbers. Primes of the form $2^{2^n} + 1$ are called Fermat primes, as Fermat conjectured that every integer of the form $2^{2^n} + 1$ is prime, see [6, p. 1]. Fermat correctly remarked that $2^{2^0} + 1 = 3$, $2^{2^1} + 1 = 5$, $2^{2^2} + 1 = 17$, $2^{2^3} + 1 = 257$, and $2^{2^4} + 1 = 65537$ are all prime, see [6, p. 1].

Open Problem. ([6, p. 159]). Are there infinitely many composite numbers of the form $2^{2^n} + 1$? Most mathematicians believe that $2^{2^n} + 1$ is composite for every integer $n \ge 5$, see [5, p. 23]. Let

$$H_n = \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \cup \{2^{2^{X_i}} = x_k : i, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$$

Let h(1) = 1, and let $h(n + 1) = 2^{2h(n)}$ for every positive integer n.

Lemma 27. The following subsystem of H_n

$$\begin{cases} x_1 \cdot x_1 &= x_1 \\ \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n-1\} \ 2^{2^{X_i}} &= x_{i+1} \end{cases}$$

has exactly one solution $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^n$, namely $(h(1), \ldots, h(n))$.

For a positive integer n, let ξ_n denote the following statement: if a system of equations $S \subseteq H_n$ has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_n , then each such solution (x_1, \ldots, x_n) satisfies $x_1, \ldots, x_n \le h(n)$. The statement ξ_n says that for subsystems of H_n the largest known solution is indeed the largest possible.

Hypothesis 4. The statements ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_{13} are true.

Proposition 4. Every statement ξ_n is true with an unknown integer bound that depends on n.

Proof. For every positive integer n, the system H_n has a finite number of subsystems.

Theorem 17. The statement ξ_{13} proves the following implication: if $z \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ and $2^{2^z} + 1$ is composite and greater than h(12), then $2^{2^z} + 1$ is composite for infinitely many positive integers z.

Proof. Let us consider the equation

$$(x+1)(y+1) = 2^{2^{z}} + 1 \tag{1}$$

in positive integers. By Lemma 3, we can transform equation (1) into an equivalent system of equations \mathcal{G} which has 13 variables (x, y, z, and 10 other variables) and which consists of equations of the forms $\alpha \cdot \beta = \gamma$ and $2^{2^{\alpha}} = \gamma$, see the diagram in Figure 9.

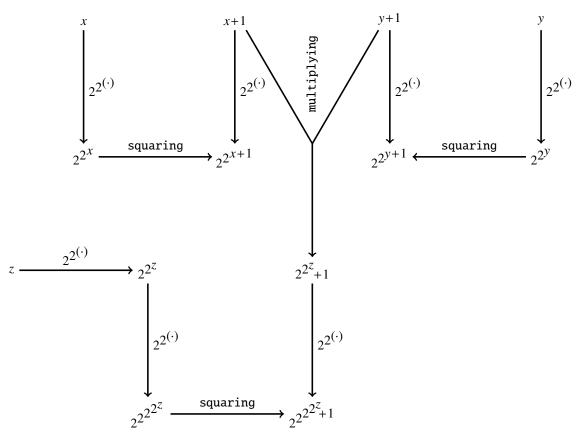


Fig. 9 Construction of the system G

Since $2^{2^z} + 1 > h(12)$, we obtain that $2^{2^{2^z+1}} > h(13)$. By this, the statement ξ_{13} implies that the system \mathcal{G} has infinitely many solutions in positive integers. It means that there are infinitely many composite Fermat numbers.

Corollary 6. Let W_{13} denote the set of composite Fermat numbers. The statement ξ_{13} implies that we know an algorithm such that it returns a threshold number of W_{13} , and this number equals $\max(W_{13})$, if W_{13} is finite.

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