# On ZFC-formulae $\varphi(x)$ for which we know a non-negative integer n such that $\{x \in \mathbb{N} : \varphi(x)\} \subseteq \{x \in \mathbb{N} : x \leq n-1\}$ 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  $n \in \{3, \dots, 16\}$  and  $k \in \{2\} \cup [2^{2^{n-3}}+1,\infty) \cap \mathbb{N}$ . For an integer  $n \in \{3,\dots,16\}$ , let  $\Sigma_n$  denote the following statement: if a system of equations  $S \subseteq \{\Gamma_n(x_i) = x_k : i, k \in \{1,\dots,n\}\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1,\dots,n\}\}$  with  $\Gamma$  instead of  $\Gamma_n$  has only finitely many solutions in positive integers  $x_1,\dots,x_n$ , then every tuple  $(x_1,\dots,x_n) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^n$  that solves the original system S satisfies  $x_1,\dots,x_n \leqslant 2^{2^{n-2}}$ . Our hypothesis claims that the statements  $\Sigma_3,\dots,\Sigma_{16}$  are true. The statement  $\Sigma_6$  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  $\Sigma_6$  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  $\Sigma_9$  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, decidability in the limit, Erdös' equation x(x + 1) = y!, finiteness of a set, infiniteness of a set, prime numbers of the form  $n^2 + 1$ , prime numbers of the form n! + 1, single query to an oracle for the halting problem, 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 formalised 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

$$\operatorname{card}(\{x \in \mathbb{N} : \varphi(x)\}) < \infty \Longrightarrow \{x \in \mathbb{N} : \varphi(x)\} \subseteq \{x \in \mathbb{N} : x \leqslant n-1\}$$

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 non-negative integer n,  $card(\{x \in \mathbb{N}: x \le n-1\}) = n$ .

**Corollary 1.** The title altered to "On ZFC-formulae  $\varphi(x)$  for which we know a non-negative integer n such that  $\operatorname{card}(\{x \in \mathbb{N} : \varphi(x)\}) \leq n$  if the set  $\{x \in \mathbb{N} : \varphi(x)\}$  is finite" involves a weaker assumption on  $\varphi(x)$ .

**Lemma 2.** For every positive integers x and y,  $x! \cdot y = y!$  if and only if

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

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

**Lemma 3.** 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 4.** 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 5.** (Wilson's theorem, [8, p. 89]). For every positive integer x, x divides (x - 1)! + 1 if and only if x = 1 or x is prime.

#### 2 Subsets of $\mathbb N$ and their threshold numbers

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. [24] and [25]. 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  $\{\max(X), \max(X) + 1, \max(X) + 2, \ldots\}$ .

It is conjectured that the set of prime numbers of the form  $n^2 + 1$  is infinite, see [14, pp. 37–38]. It is conjectured that the set of prime numbers of the form n! + 1 is infinite, see [3, p. 443]. A twin prime is a prime number that differs from another prime number by 2. The twin prime conjecture states that the set of twin primes is infinite, see [14, p. 39]. It is conjectured that the set of composite numbers of the form  $2^{2^n} + 1$  is infinite, see [10, p. 23] and [11, pp. 158–159]. A prime p is said to be a Sophie Germain prime if both p and p and p are prime, see [22]. It is conjectured that the set of Sophie Germain primes is infinite, see [17, p. 330]. For each of these sets, we do not know any threshold number.

The following statement:

for every non-negative integer n there exist

prime numbers 
$$p$$
 and  $q$  such that  $p + 2 = q$  and  $p \in \left[10^n, 10^{n+1}\right]$  (1)

is a  $\Pi_1$  statement which strengthens the twin prime conjecture, see [4, p. 43]. C. H. Bennett claims that most mathematical conjectures can be settled indirectly by proving stronger  $\Pi_1$  statements, see [1]. Statement (1) is equivalent to the non-halting of a Turing machine. If a set  $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  is computable and we know a threshold number of X, then the infinity of X is equivalent to the halting of a Turing machine.

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 6.** The equation  $x^5 - x = y^2 - y$  has only finitely many rational solutions, see [13, p. 212]. The known rational solutions are  $(x,y) = (-1,0), (-1,1), (0,0), (0,1), (1,0), (1,1), (2,-5), (2,6), (3,-15), (3,16), (30,-4929), (30,4930), <math>(\frac{1}{4},\frac{15}{32}), (\frac{1}{4},\frac{17}{32}), (-\frac{15}{16},-\frac{185}{1024}), (-\frac{15}{16},\frac{1209}{1024}),$  and the existence of other solutions is an open question, see [18, pp. 223–224].

**Corollary 2.** 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  $\mathcal{L}$  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

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} : \left( \text{the system } \mathcal{L} \text{ has no solutions in } \{1, \dots, n\}^7 \right) \land \right.$$

$$\left( \text{the system } \mathcal{L} \text{ has a solution in } \{1, \dots, n+1\}^7 \right) \right\}$$

A perfect cuboid is a cuboid having integer side lengths, integer face diagonals, and an integer space diagonal.

**Lemma 7.** ([21]). No perfect cuboids are known.

**Corollary 3.** We know an algorithm which for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  decides whether or not  $n \in \mathcal{F}$ . ZFC proves that  $\operatorname{card}(\mathcal{F}) \in \{0, 1\}$ . We do not know any algorithm which returns  $\operatorname{card}(\mathcal{F})$ . We do not know any algorithm which returns a threshold number of  $\mathcal{F}$ .

Let

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

Let

$$\mathcal{K} = \begin{cases} \{n\}, & \text{if } (n \in \mathbb{N}) \land \left(2^{\aleph_0} = \aleph_{n+1}\right) \\ \{0\}, & \text{if } 2^{\aleph_0} \geqslant \aleph_{\omega} \end{cases}$$

**Proposition 2.** *ZFC proves that*  $card(\mathcal{K}) = 1$ . *If ZFC is consistent, then for every*  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  *the sentences* "*n* is a threshold number of  $\mathcal{K}$ " and "*n* is not a threshold number of  $\mathcal{K}$ " are not provable in ZFC.

*Proof.* It suffices to observe that  $2^{\aleph_0}$  can attain every value from the set  $\{\aleph_1, \aleph_2, \aleph_3, \ldots\}$ , see [7] and [9, p. 232].

# **3** 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.** ([5, 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  $n \in \mathcal{Y}$ . Theorem 1 implies the next theorem.

**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.

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 the next theorem.

**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.

Let

$$\mathcal{V} = \left\{ n \in \mathbb{N} : \left( \text{the polynomial } D(x_1, \dots, x_m) \text{ has no solutions in } \{0, \dots, n\}^m \right) \land \right\}$$
(the polynomial  $D(x_1, \dots, x_m)$  has a solution in  $\{0, \dots, n+1\}^m$ )

Since the sets  $\{0, ..., n\}^m$  and  $\{0, ..., n+1\}^m$  are finite, we know an algorithm which for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  decides whether or not  $n \in \mathcal{V}$ . Theorem 1 implies the next theorem.

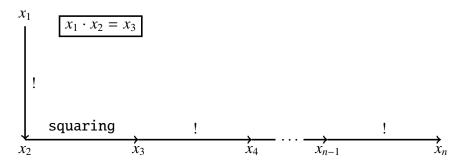
**Theorem 4.** ZFC proves that  $card(V) \in \{0, 1\}$ . For every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , ZFC proves that  $n \notin V$ . ZFC does not prove the emptiness of V, if ZFC is arithmetically consistent. For every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the sentence "n is a threshold number of V" is not provable in ZFC, if ZFC is arithmetically consistent.

#### 4 Hypothetical statements $\Psi_3, \dots, \Psi_{16}$

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 8.** 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  $\Psi_n$  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  $\Psi_n$  says that for subsystems of  $B_n$  the largest known solution is indeed the largest possible.

**Hypothesis 1.** The statements  $\Psi_3, \dots, \Psi_{16}$  are true.

**Proposition 3.** Every statement  $\Psi_n$  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 4.** For every statement  $\Psi_n$ , the bound g(n) cannot be decreased.

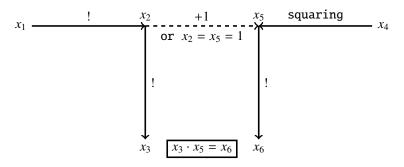
*Proof.* It follows from Lemma 8 because  $\mathcal{U}_n \subseteq B_n$ .

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



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

**Lemma 9.** 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 2.

It is conjectured that x! + 1 is a perfect square only for  $x \in \{4, 5, 7\}$ , see [20, 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 [15].

**Theorem 5.** If the equation  $x_1! + 1 = x_4^2$  has only finitely many solutions in positive integers, then the statement  $\Psi_6$  guarantees that each such solution  $(x_1, x_4)$  belongs to the set  $\{(4, 5), (5, 11), (7, 71)\}$ .

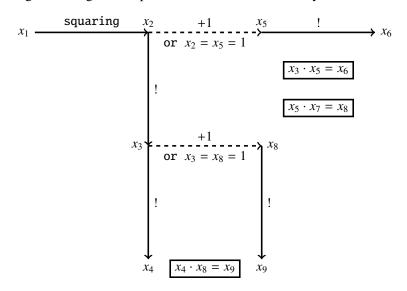
*Proof.* Suppose that the antecedent holds. Let positive integers  $x_1$  and  $x_4$  satisfy  $x_1! + 1 = x_4^2$ . Then,  $x_1, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$ . By Lemma 9, the system  $\mathcal{A}$  is solvable in positive integers  $x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6$ . Since  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq B_6$ , the statement  $\Psi_6$  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 $n^2 + 1$ ?

Edmund Landau's conjecture states that there are infinitely many primes of the form  $n^2 + 1$ , see [14, pp. 37–38]. 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 2 and the diagram in Figure 3 explain the construction of the system  $\mathcal{B}$ .



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

**Lemma 10.** 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 2, 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 10 follows from Lemma 5.

**Lemma 11.** 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,  $x_9 = x_8! \le 2$ .

**Theorem 6.** The statement  $\Psi_9$  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 10, 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  $x_1^2 \ge g(7)$ . Hence,  $(x_1^2)! \ge g(7)! = g(8)$ . Consequently,

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

Since  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq B_9$ , the statement  $\Psi_9$  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 10 and 11, there are infinitely many primes of the form  $n^2 + 1$ .

**Corollary 4.** Let  $X_9$  denote the set of primes of the form  $n^2 + 1$ . The statement  $\Psi_9$  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. Assuming the statement  $\Psi_9$ , a single query to an oracle for the halting problem decides the infinity of  $X_9$ . Assuming the statement  $\Psi_9$ , the infinity of  $X_9$  is decidable in the limit.

*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 [3, p. 443].

**Theorem 7.** (cf. Theorem 11). The statement  $\Psi_9$  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.

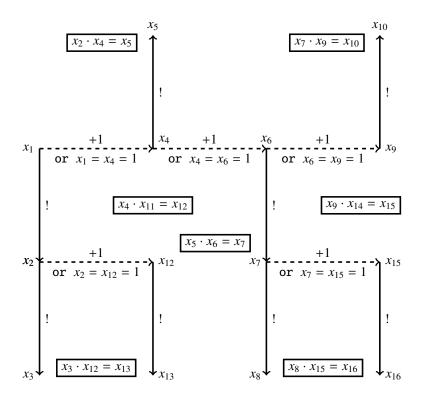
*Proof.* We leave the analogous proof to the reader.

#### 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 [14, p. 39]. Let C denote the following system of equations:

$$\begin{cases}
x_1! &= x_2 \\
x_2! &= x_3 \\
x_4! &= x_5 \\
x_6! &= x_7 \\
x_7! &= x_8 \\
x_9! &= x_{10} \\
x_{12}! &= x_{13} \\
x_{15}! &= x_{16} \\
x_2 \cdot x_4 &= x_5 \\
x_5 \cdot x_6 &= x_7 \\
x_7 \cdot x_9 &= x_{10} \\
x_4 \cdot x_{11} &= x_{12} \\
x_3 \cdot x_{12} &= x_{13} \\
x_9 \cdot x_{14} &= x_{15} \\
x_8 \cdot x_{15} &= x_{16}
\end{cases}$$

Lemma 2 and the diagram in Figure 4 explain the construction of the system *C*.



**Fig. 4** Construction of the system C

**Lemma 12.** 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 2, 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 12 follows from Lemma 5.

**Lemma 13.** There are only finitely many tuples  $(x_1, ..., x_{16}) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{16}$  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  $(x_4 \in \{1, 2\}) \lor (x_9 \in \{1, 2\})$ , 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 8.** The statement  $\Psi_{16}$  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 12, 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  $\Psi_{16}$  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 12 and 13, there are infinitely many twin primes.

Corollary 5. (cf. [6]). Let  $X_{16}$  denote the set of twin primes. The statement  $\Psi_{16}$  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. Assuming the statement  $\Psi_{16}$ , a single query to an oracle for the halting problem decides the infinity of  $X_{16}$ . Assuming the statement  $\Psi_{16}$ , the infinity of  $X_{16}$  is decidable in the limit.

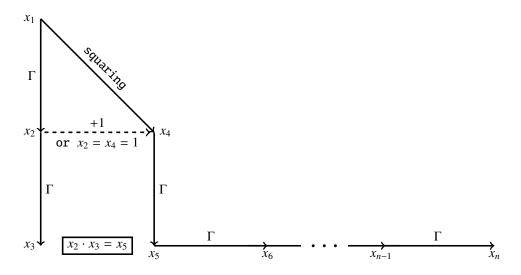
*Proof.* We consider an algorithm which computes  $\max(X_{16} \cap [1, g(14)])$ .

#### 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 3 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  $\Delta_n$  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 3 and 5 imply that the statements  $\Delta_n$  have similar consequences as the statements  $\Psi_n$ .

**Theorem 9.** The statement  $\Delta_6$  implies that any prime number  $p \ge 25$  proves the infinitude of primes.

*Proof.* It follows from Lemmas 3 and 5. We leave the details to the reader.

# 10 Hypothetical statements $\Sigma_3, \ldots, \Sigma_{16}$ 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:

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

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

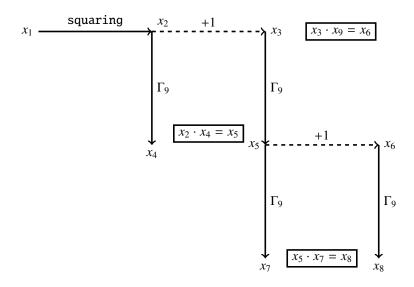
**Lemma 14.** For every integer  $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$ ,  $P_n \subseteq Q_n$  and the system  $P_n$  with  $\Gamma$  instead of  $\Gamma_n$  has exactly one solution in positive integers  $x_1, ..., x_n$ , namely  $\left(1, 2^{2^0}, 2^{2^1}, 2^{2^2}, ..., 2^{2^{n-2}}\right)$ .

For an integer  $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$ , let  $\Sigma_n$  denote the following statement: if a system of equations  $S \subseteq Q_n$  with  $\Gamma$  instead of  $\Gamma_n$  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 15.** (cf. Lemma 3). 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 16.** 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 n, at most finitely many tuples  $(x_1, \ldots, x_9) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$  begin with n and solve the system  $\mathbb{Z}_9$  with  $\Gamma$  instead of  $\Gamma_9$ .

*Proof.* It follows from Lemmas 3, 5, and 15.

**Lemma 17.** ([19]). The number  $(13!)^2 + 1 = 38775788043632640001$  is prime.

**Lemma 18.** 
$$((13!)^2 \ge 2^{2^{9-3}} + 1 = 18446744073709551617) \land (\Gamma_9((13!)^2) > 2^{2^{9-2}}).$$

**Theorem 10.** The statement  $\Sigma_9$  implies the infinitude of primes of the form  $n^2 + 1$ .

*Proof.* It follows from Lemmas 16–18.

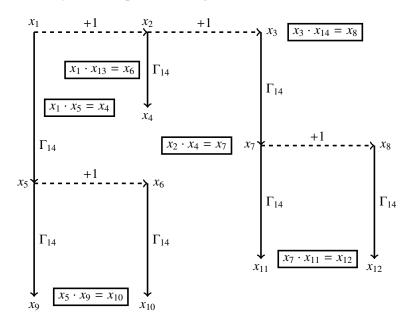
**Theorem 11.** (cf. Theorem 7). The statement  $\Sigma_9$  implies that any prime of the form n! + 1 with  $n \ge 2^{2^{9-3}}$  proves the infinitude of primes of the form n! + 1.

*Proof.* We leave the proof to the reader.

**Corollary 6.** Let  $\mathcal{Y}_9$  denote the set of primes of the form n! + 1. The statement  $\Sigma_9$  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. Assuming the statement  $\Sigma_9$ , a single query to an oracle for the halting problem decides the infinity of  $\mathcal{Y}_9$ . Assuming the statement  $\Sigma_9$ , the infinity of  $\mathcal{Y}_9$  is decidable in the limit.

*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 19.** 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 n, at most finitely many tuples  $(x_1, \ldots, x_{14}) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$  begin with n and solve the system  $\mathbb{Z}_{14}$  with  $\Gamma$  instead of  $\Gamma_{14}$ .

*Proof.* It follows from Lemmas 3, 5, and 15.

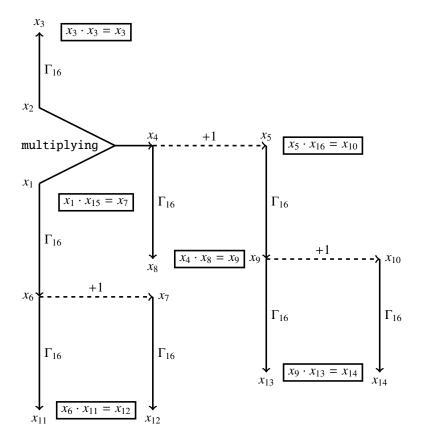
**Lemma 20.** ([23, p. 87]). The numbers  $459 \cdot 2^{8529} - 1$  and  $459 \cdot 2^{8529} + 1$  are prime (Harvey Dubner).

**Lemma 21.**  $459 \cdot 2^{8529} - 1 > 2^{2^{14-2}} = 2^{4096}$ .

**Theorem 12.** The statement  $\Sigma_{14}$  implies the infinitude of twin primes.

*Proof.* It follows from Lemmas 19–21.

A prime p is said to be a Sophie Germain prime if both p and 2p + 1 are prime, see [22]. It is conjectured that there are infinitely many Sophie Germain primes, see [17, p. 330]. Let  $\mathcal{Z}_{16} \subseteq Q_{16}$  be the system of equations in Figure 8.



**Fig. 8** Construction of the system  $\mathcal{Z}_{16}$ 

**Lemma 22.** 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  $\Gamma$  instead of  $\Gamma_{16}$ .

*Proof.* It follows from Lemmas 3, 5, and 15.

**Lemma 23.** ([17, p. 330]). 8069496435 · 10<sup>5072</sup> – 1 is a Sophie Germain prime (Harvey Dubner).

**Lemma 24.**  $8069496435 \cdot 10^{5072} - 1 > 2^{2^{16-2}}$ 

**Theorem 13.** The statement  $\Sigma_{16}$  implies the infinitude of Sophie Germain primes.

*Proof.* It follows from Lemmas 22–24.

**Theorem 14.** The statement  $\Sigma_6$  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 [2]. F. Luca proved that the *abc* conjecture implies that the equation x(x + 1) = y! has only finitely many solutions in positive integers, see [12].

**Theorem 15.** The statement  $\Sigma_6$  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 $\Omega_3, \ldots, \Omega_{16}$ and their consequences

For an integer  $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$ , let  $\Omega_n$  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  $\Sigma_n$  implies the statement  $\Omega_n$ .

**Lemma 25.** The number  $(65!)^2 + 1$  is prime and  $65! > 2^{2^{9-2}}$ .

*Proof.* The following PARI/GP ([16]) command

is shown together with its output. This command performs the APRCL primality test, the best deterministic primality test algorithm ([23, p. 226]). It rigorously shows that the number  $(65!)^2 + 1$  is prime.

**Lemma 26.** 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 16.** The statement  $\Omega_9$  implies the infinitude of primes of the form  $n^2 + 1$ .

*Proof.* It follows from Lemmas 16 and 25–26.

**Lemma 27.** If positive integers  $x_1, ..., x_{14}$  solve the system  $Z_{14}$  and  $x_1 > 2^{2^{14-2}}$ , then  $x_1 = \min(x_1, ..., x_{14})$ .

**Theorem 17.** The statement  $\Omega_{14}$  implies the infinitude of twin primes.

*Proof.* It follows from Lemmas 19–21 and 27.

#### 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 [11, 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 [11, p. 1].

**Open Problem.** ([11, 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 [10, 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 28.** 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  $\xi_n$  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  $\xi_n$  says that for subsystems of  $H_n$  the largest known solution is indeed the largest possible.

**Hypothesis 4.** The statements  $\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_{13}$  are true.

**Proposition 5.** Every statement  $\xi_n$  is true with an unknown integer bound that depends on n.

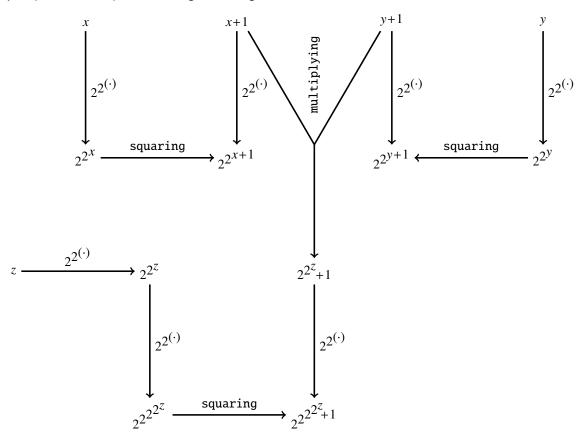
*Proof.* For every positive integer n, the system  $H_n$  has a finite number of subsystems.

**Theorem 18.** The statement  $\xi_{13}$  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

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

in positive integers. By Lemma 4, we can transform equation (2) 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  $2^{2^{\mathcal{Z}}} + 1 > h(12)$ , we obtain that  $2^{2^{2^{\mathcal{Z}}} + 1} > h(13)$ . By this, the statement  $\xi_{13}$  implies that the system  $\mathcal{G}$  has infinitely many solutions in positive integers. It means that there are infinitely many composite Fermat numbers.

Corollary 7. Let  $W_{13}$  denote the set of composite Fermat numbers. The statement  $\xi_{13}$  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. Assuming the statement  $\xi_{13}$ , a single query to an oracle for the halting problem decides the infinity of  $W_{13}$ . Assuming the statement  $\xi_{13}$ , the infinity of  $W_{13}$  is decidable in the limit.

*Proof.* We consider an algorithm which computes  $\max(W_{13} \cap [1, h(12)])$ .

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