A computer program may provide a constructive form of the incompleteness theorem

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Abstract

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. We prove that there exists an algorithm A such that A returns 0 or 1 on every input $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and for every non-negative integer n, ZFC does not prove that n is a threshold number of the set $\{k \in \mathbb{N} : \text{the algorithm A returns 1 on input } k\}$, if ZFC is arithmetically consistent. At present, we do not know any such algorithm implemented in a computer program.

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, incompleteness of ZFC, 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 ZFC-formulae $\varphi(x)$ for which we know a non-negative integer n such that $\{x \in \mathbb{N} : \varphi(x)\} \subseteq \{x \in \mathbb{N} : x \le n-1\}$ if the set $\{x \in \mathbb{N} : \varphi(x)\}$ is finite

The phrase "we know a non-negative integer n" in the above title means that we know an algorithm which returns n. The title of this section 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 sentence may look like this: 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 "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 $\varphi(x)$.

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. [25] and [26]. 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 [15, 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 [15, p. 39]. It is conjectured that the set of composite numbers of the

form $2^{2^n} + 1$ is infinite, see [11, p. 23] and [12, pp. 158–159]. A prime p is said to be a Sophie Germain prime if both p and 2p + 1 are prime, see [23]. It is conjectured that the set of Sophie Germain primes is infinite, see [18, 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 Π_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 Π_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 $\max(H(x_1),\ldots,H(x_n))$.

Observation 1. The equation $x^5 - x = y^2 - y$ has only finitely many rational solutions, see [14, 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 [19, 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.

Observation 2. ([22]) 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

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

Theorem 1. ZFC proves that card(K) = 1. If ZFC is consistent, then for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ the sentences "n is a threshold number of K" and "n is not a threshold number of 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 [10, 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 2. ([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.

Observation 4. (cf. [9, p. 53]) We do not know any computer program that prints out the polynomial $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$.

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, there exists an algorithm which for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ decides whether or not $n \in \mathcal{Y}$. Theorem 2 implies the next theorem.

Theorem 3. 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, there exists an algorithm which for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ decides whether or not $n \in \mathcal{E}$. Theorem 2 implies the next theorem.

Theorem 4. 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

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

$$\left(\text{the polynomial } D(x_1, \dots, x_m) \text{ has a solution in } \{0, \dots, n+1\}^m \right) \right\}$$

Since the sets $\{0, ..., n\}^m$ and $\{0, ..., n+1\}^m$ are finite, there exists an algorithm which for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ decides whether or not $n \in \mathcal{V}$. According to Observation 4, at present we are not able to write a computer program that realizes such an algorithm. Theorem 2 implies the next theorem.

Theorem 5. 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.

Open Problem 1. Write a computer program P such that P returns 0 or 1 on every input $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and for every non-negative integer n, ZFC does not prove that n is a threshold number of the set $\{k \in \mathbb{N} : \text{the program P returns 1 on input } k\}$, if ZFC is arithmetically consistent.

4 Number-theoretic lemmas

Lemma 2. 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 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.

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

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

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{rcl} \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n-1\} \setminus \{2\} \; x_i! & = & x_{i+1} \\ x_1 \cdot x_2 & = & x_3 \\ x_2 \cdot x_2 & = & x_3 \end{array} \right.$$

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

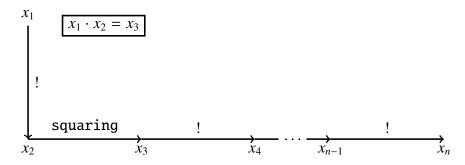


Fig. 1 Construction of the system \mathcal{U}_n

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

Lemma 6. 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.

Lemma 7. 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.

Lemma 8. For every statement Ψ_n , the bound g(n) cannot be decreased.

Proof. It follows from Lemma 6 because $\mathcal{U}_n \subseteq B_n$.

6 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} .

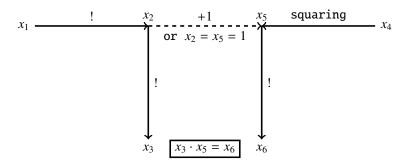


Fig. 2 Construction of the system \mathcal{A}

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 [21, 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 [16].

Theorem 6. 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 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 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 $x_1 \in \{4, 5, 7\}$.

7 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 [15, 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} .

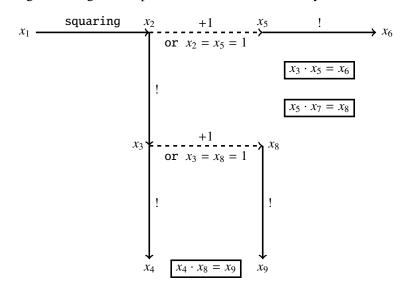


Fig. 3 Construction of the system \mathcal{B}

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 7. 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 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 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 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 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. Assuming the statement Ψ_9 , a single query to an oracle for the halting problem decides the infinity of X_9 . Assuming the statement Ψ_9 , the infinity of X_9 is decidable in the limit.

Proof. We consider an algorithm which computes $\max(X_9 \cap [1, g(7)])$.

8 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 8. (cf. Theorem 12). 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.

9 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 [15, 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.

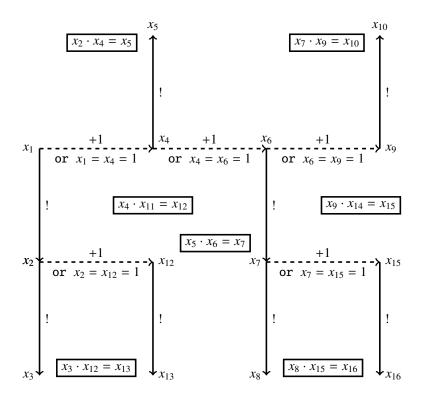


Fig. 4 Construction of the system C

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 9. 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 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 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 12 and 13, there are infinitely many twin primes.

Corollary 5. (cf. [6]). 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. Assuming the statement Ψ_{16} , a single query to an oracle for the halting problem decides the infinity of X_{16} . Assuming the statement Ψ_{16} , the infinity of X_{16} is decidable in the limit.

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

10 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 .

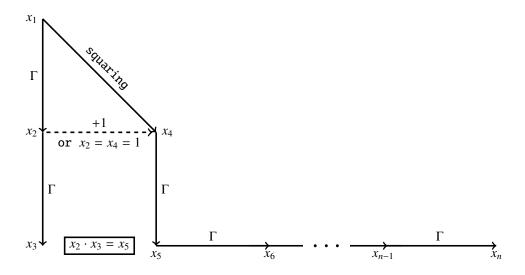


Fig. 5 Construction of the system \mathcal{J}_n

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 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 3 and 5 imply that the statements Δ_n have similar consequences as the statements Ψ_n .

Theorem 10. The statement Δ_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.

11 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 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 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.

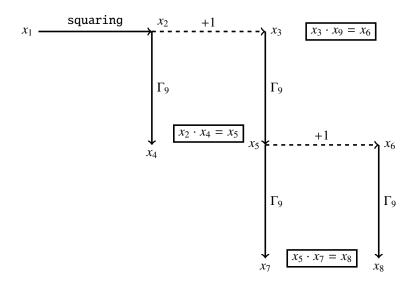


Fig. 6 Construction of the system \mathbb{Z}_9

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 Γ instead of Γ_9 .

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

Lemma 17. ([20]). 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 11. The statement Σ_9 implies the infinitude of primes of the form $n^2 + 1$.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 16–18.

Theorem 12. (cf. Theorem 8). 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 6. 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. Assuming the statement Σ_9 , a single query to an oracle for the halting problem decides the infinity of \mathcal{Y}_9 . Assuming the statement Σ_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.

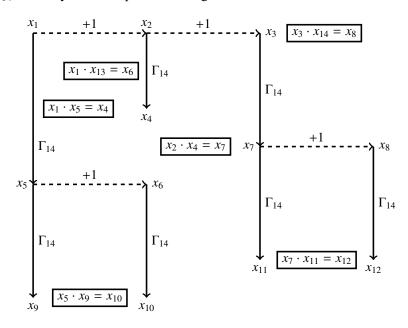


Fig. 7 Construction of the system Z_{14}

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 $x_1 \geqslant 2^{2^{14-3}} + 1$. 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 Γ instead of Γ_{14} .

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

Lemma 20. ([24, 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 13. The statement Σ_{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 [23]. It is conjectured that there are infinitely many Sophie Germain primes, see [18, p. 330]. Let $\mathcal{Z}_{16} \subseteq Q_{16}$ be the system of equations in Figure 8.

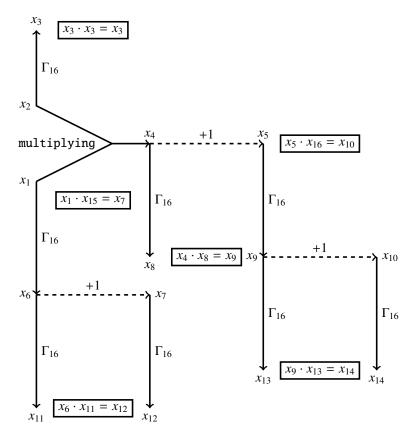


Fig. 8 Construction of the system Z_{16}

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 Γ instead of Γ_{16} .

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

Lemma 23. ([18, p. 330]). 8069496435 · 10⁵⁰⁷² – 1 is a Sophie Germain prime (Harvey Dubner).

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

Theorem 14. The statement Σ_{16} implies the infinitude of Sophie Germain primes.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 22–24.

Theorem 15. 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 [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 [13].

Theorem 16. 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.

12 Hypothetical statements $\Omega_3, \ldots, \Omega_{16}$ 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 25. The number $(65!)^2 + 1$ is prime and $65! > 2^{2^{9-2}}$.

Proof. The following PARI/GP ([17]) command

is shown together with its output. This command performs the APRCL primality test, the best deterministic primality test algorithm ([24, 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 17. The statement Ω_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 18. The statement Ω_{14} implies the infinitude of twin primes.

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

13 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 [12, 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 [12, p. 1].

Open Problem 2. ([12, 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 [11, 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 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 $x_1, \ldots, x_n \leq h(n)$. 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.

Lemma 29. 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 19. 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

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

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.

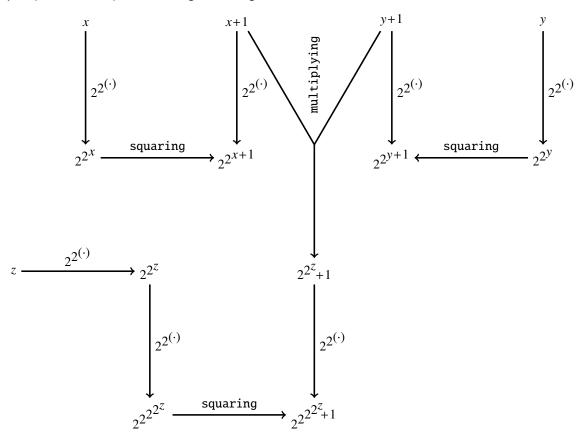


Fig. 9 Construction of the system G

Since $2^{2^{\mathcal{Z}}} + 1 > h(12)$, we obtain that $2^{2^{2^{\mathcal{Z}}} + 1} > h(13)$. By this, the statement 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 7. 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. Assuming the statement ξ_{13} , a single query to an oracle for the halting problem decides the infinity of W_{13} . Assuming the statement ξ_{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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