# 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 g(3) = 4, and let g(n + 1) = g(n)! for every integer  $n \ge 3$ . For an integer  $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$ , let  $\Psi_n$  denote the following statement: *if a system of equations*  $S \subseteq \{x_i! = x_k : (i, k \in \{1, ..., n\}) \land (i \ne k)\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, ..., n\}\}$  has only finitely many solutions in positive integers  $x_1, ..., x_n$ , then each such solution  $(x_1, ..., x_n)$  satisfies  $x_1, ..., x_n \le g(n)$ . For every statement  $\Psi_n$ , the bound g(n) cannot be decreased. The author's hypothesis says that the statements  $\Psi_3, ..., \Psi_{16}$  hold true. 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*. The following problem is open: *define a set*  $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  *that satisfies the following conditions:* (1) *the relation*  $n \in X$  *is simple and has the same intuitive meaning for every*  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , (2) a known algorithm for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  decides whether or not  $n \in X$ , (3) a known algorithm returns a threshold number of X. We define a set  $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  that satisfies conditions (2)-(5). The statement  $\Psi_9$  implies that the set of primes of the form  $n^2 + 1$  solves the problem and the set of primes solves the problem.

**Key words and phrases:** Brocard-Ramanujan equation  $x! + 1 = y^2$ , composite Fermat numbers, decidability in the limit, 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, twin primes.

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#### **1** Introduction

The phrase "we know a non-negative integer n" in the title means that we know an algorithm which returns n. The title 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

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

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({ $x \in \mathbb{N} : x \leq n-1$ }) = n.

**Corollary 1.** The title altered to "On ZFC-formulae  $\varphi(x)$  for which we know a non-negative integer *n* such that  $card(\{x \in \mathbb{N} : \varphi(x)\}) \leq n$  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. [28] and [29]. 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, ...}.

It is conjectured that the set of prime numbers of the form  $n^2 + 1$  is infinite, see [17, 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 [17, p. 39]. It is conjectured that the set of composite numbers of the form  $2^{2^n} + 1$  is infinite, see [12, p. 23] and [13, pp. 158–159]. A prime p is said to be a Sophie Germain prime if both p and 2p + 1 are prime, see [26]. It is conjectured that the set of Sophie Germain primes is infinite, see [20, 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  $p \in \left[10^n, 10^{n+1}\right]$  (T)

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]. The statement (T) 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  $\max(H(x_1), \ldots, H(x_n))$ .

**Proposition 1.** The equation  $x^5 - x = y^2 - y$  has only finitely many rational solutions, see [16, 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 [21, 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  $\mathcal{T}$ .

**Open Problem 1.** (cf. Corollary 3) Define a set  $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  that satisfies the following conditions:

(1) the relation  $n \in X$  is simple and has the same intuitive meaning for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

- (2) a known algorithm for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  decides whether or not  $n \in X$ ,
- (3) a known algorithm returns a threshold number of X,
- (4) new elements of X are still discovered,
- (5) we do not know any algorithm deciding the finiteness of X.

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  ${\mathcal F}$  denote the set

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

(the system  $\mathcal{L}$  has a solution in  $\{1, \ldots, k+1\}^7$ )

Let  $\mathcal{P}$  denote the set of prime numbers, and let  $\mathcal{Z}$  denote the set

 $\{k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} : \text{the system } \mathcal{L} \text{ has a solution in } \{1, \dots, k\}^7 \}$ 

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

**Proposition 2.** ([25]) No perfect cuboids are known.

**Corollary 3.** (cf. Open Problem 1) The set  $\mathcal{Z} \cup ([2,9^{99^9}] \cap \mathcal{P})$  satisfies conditions (2)-(5).

**Corollary 4.** 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

$$\mathcal{H} = \begin{cases} \mathbb{N}, \text{ if } \sin\left(9^{9999}\right) < 0\\ \mathbb{N} \cap \left[0, \sin\left(9^{9999}\right) \cdot 9^{999}\right] \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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

**Proposition 3.** The number  $9^{9^2}$  is a threshold number of  $\mathcal{H}$ . We know an algorithm which decides the equality  $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{N}$ . If  $\mathcal{H} \neq \mathbb{N}$ , then the set  $\mathcal{H}$  consists of all integers from 0 to a non-negative integer which can be computed by a known algorithm. We know an algorithm which for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  decides whether or not  $n \in \mathcal{H}$ .

Let

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

**Theorem 1.** *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*. If *ZFC* is consistent, then for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  the sentences " $n \in \mathcal{K}$ " and " $n \notin \mathcal{K}$ " 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 [8] and [11, 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.** ([6, p. 35]) There exists a polynomial  $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$  with integer coefficients such that if ZFC is arithmetically consistent, then the sentences "The equation  $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = 0$  is solvable in non-negative integers" and "The equation  $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = 0$  is not solvable in non-negative integers" are not provable in ZFC.

**Remark 1.** ([5], [10, p. 53]) The polynomial  $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$  is very complicated.

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 not empty", " $\mathcal{E}$  is finite", and " $\mathcal{E}$  is infinite" are not provable in ZFC.

Let  $\mathcal V$  denote the set

 $\left\{k \in \mathbb{N} : \left(\text{the polynomial } D(x_1, \ldots, x_m) \text{ has no solutions in } \{0, \ldots, k\}^m\right) \land \right\}$ 

(the polynomial  $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$  has a solution in  $\{0, \ldots, k+1\}^m$ ).

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

**Theorem 5.** (6) ZFC proves that  $card(\mathcal{V}) \in \{0, 1\}$ . (7) For every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , ZFC proves that  $n \notin \mathcal{V}$ . (8) ZFC does not prove the emptiness of  $\mathcal{V}$ , if ZFC is arithmetically consistent. (9) For every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the sentence "n is a threshold number of  $\mathcal{V}$ " is not provable in ZFC, if ZFC is arithmetically consistent. (10) For every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the sentence "n is not a threshold number of  $\mathcal{V}$ " is not provable in ZFC, if ZFC is arithmetically consistent.

**Open Problem 2.** Define a simple algorithm A such that A returns 0 or 1 on every input  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and the set

 $\mathcal{V} = \{k \in \mathbb{N} : \text{ the program A returns 1 on input } k\}$ 

satisfies conditions (6)-(10).

#### **4** Basic 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

$$2^{2^b} \cdot 2^{2^b} = 2^{2^c}$$

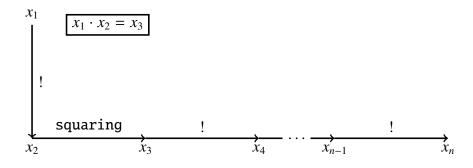
**Lemma 5.** (Wilson's theorem, [9, p. 89]). For every positive integer x, x divides (x - 1)! + 1 if and only if x = 1 or x is prime.

#### **5** Hypothetical statements $\Psi_3, \ldots, \Psi_{16}$

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 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  $\Psi_n$  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  $\Psi_3, \ldots, \Psi_{16}$  are true.

**Remark 2.** By Lemma 2 and algebraic lemmas in [23, p. 110], the statement  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2\} \Psi_n$ implies that there is an algorithm which takes as input a factorial Diophantine equation, and returns an integer such that this integer is greater than the solutions in positive integers, if these solutions form a finite set. This conclusion is a bit strange because a computable upper bound on non-negative integer solutions does not exist for exponential Diophantine equations with a finite number of solutions, see [15, p. 300]. Therefore, the statement  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2\} \Psi_n$  seems to be false.

**Lemma 7.** 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.  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 8.** For every statement  $\Psi_n$ , the bound g(n) cannot be decreased.

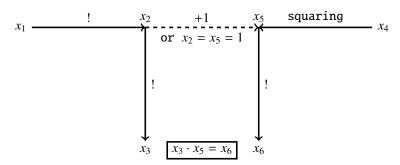
*Proof.* It follows from Lemma 6 because  $\mathcal{U}_n \subseteq B_n$ .

### **6** The Brocard-Ramanujan equation $x! + 1 = y^2$

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

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
x_1! &=& x_2 \\
x_2! &=& x_3 \\
x_5! &=& x_6 \\
x_4 \cdot x_4 &=& x_5 \\
x_3 \cdot x_5 &=& x_6
\end{array}$$

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 [24, 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 [18].

**Theorem 6.** 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)}.

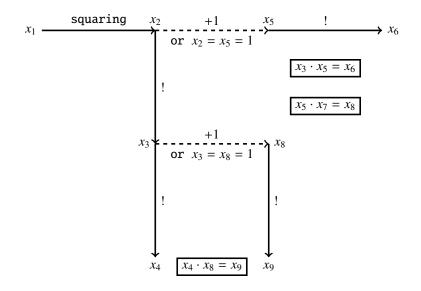
*Proof.* Suppose that the antecedent holds. Let positive integers  $x_1$  and  $x_4$  satisfy  $x_1! + 1 = x_4^2$ . Then,  $x_1, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$ . By Lemma 9, the system  $\mathcal{A}$  is solvable in positive integers  $x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6$ . Since  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq B_6$ , 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  $x_1 \in \{4, 5, 7\}$ .

## 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 [17, pp. 37–38]. Let  $\mathcal{B}$  denote the following system of equations:

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

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:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_2 &=& x_1^2 \\ x_3 &=& (x_1^2)! \\ x_4 &=& ((x_1^2)!)! \\ x_5 &=& x_1^2 + 1 \\ x_6 &=& (x_1^2 + 1)! \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{rcl} x_7 &=& \frac{(x_1^2)! + 1}{x_1^2 + 1} \\ x_8 &=& (x_1^2)! + 1 \\ x_9 &=& ((x_1^2)! + 1)! \end{array}$$

*Proof.* By Lemma 2, 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  $x_1^2 + 1$  divides  $(x_1^2)! + 1$ . Hence, the claim of Lemma 10 follows from Lemma 5.

**Lemma 11.** There are only finitely many tuples  $(x_1, \ldots, x_9) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$  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  $x_1, \ldots, x_9 \leq 2$ . 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,  $x_9 = x_8! \leq 2$ .

**Theorem 7.** (cf. Theorem 11) 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 5.** 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  $\max(X_9 \cap [1, g(7)])$ .

#### 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  $\Psi_9$  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.

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

$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \end{bmatrix}$	=	$x_2$	ro · r	_	<i>r</i> -
$x_2!$	=	$x_3$	$x_2 \cdot x_4$		-
$x_4!$	=	<i>X</i> 5	$x_5 \cdot x_6$	=	$x_7$
$x_6!$		-	$x_7 \cdot x_9$	=	$x_{10}$
· ·			$x_4 \cdot x_{11}$	=	<i>x</i> <sub>12</sub>
$x_7!$		-	$x_3 \cdot x_{12}$	=	$x_{13}$
<i>x</i> 9!	=	$x_{10}$	$x_9 \cdot x_{14}$		
$x_{12}!$	=	<i>x</i> <sub>13</sub>	, <u>.</u> .		
$x_{15}!$	=	$x_{16}$	$x_8 \cdot x_{15}$	_	л16

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

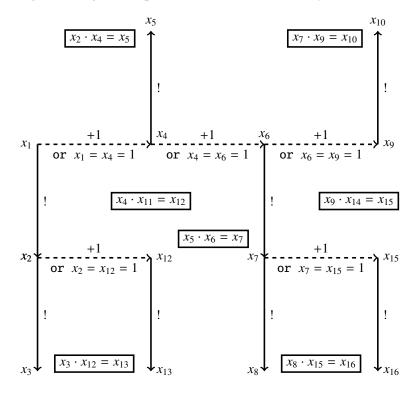


Fig. 4 Construction of the system C

**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:

$x_1$	=	$x_4 - 1$			$(r_{1} - 1)! + 1$
$x_2$	=	$(x_4 - 1)!$	$x_{11}$	=	$\frac{(x_4-1)!+1}{x_4}$
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	=	$((x_4 - 1)!)!$	$x_{12}$	=	$(x_4 - 1)! + 1$
<i>x</i> <sub>5</sub>	=	$x_4!$			$((x_4 - 1)! + 1)!$
$x_6$	=	$x_9 - 1$	<i>x</i> <sub>14</sub>	=	$\frac{(x_9-1)!+1}{x_9}$
<i>x</i> <sub>7</sub>	=	$(x_9 - 1)!$			$(x_9 - 1)! + 1$
$x_8$	=	$((x_9 - 1)!)!$	10		$((x_9 - 1)! + 1)!$
$x_{10}$	=	$x_9!$	10		((, -), -),

*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

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

Hence, the claim of Lemma 12 follows from Lemma 5.

**Lemma 13.** There are only finitely many tuples  $(x_1, \ldots, x_{16}) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{16}$  which solve the system C and satisfy  $(x_4 \in \{1, 2\}) \lor (x_9 \in \{1, 2\})$ .

*Proof.* If a tuple  $(x_1, \ldots, x_{16}) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{16}$  solves the system *C* and  $(x_4 \in \{1, 2\}) \lor (x_9 \in \{1, 2\})$ , then  $x_1, \ldots, x_{16} \leq 7!$ . 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.** (cf. Theorem 13) 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  $(x_1, ..., x_{16})$  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 6.** (cf. [7]) 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.

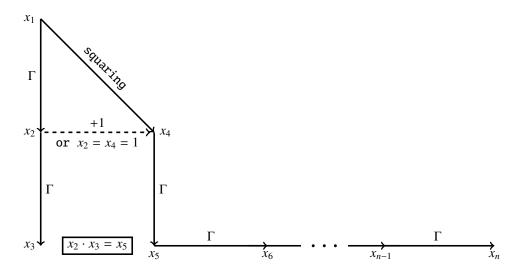
*Proof.* We consider an algorithm which computes  $\max(X_{16} \cap [1, g(14)])$ .

#### **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  $\Delta_n$  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.* 

**Proposition 4.** Lemmas 3 and 5 imply that the statements  $\Delta_n$  have similar consequences as the statements  $\Psi_n$ .

**Remark 3.** By Lemma 3 and algebraic lemmas in [23, p. 110], the statement  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\} \Delta_n$ implies that there is an algorithm which takes as input a factorial Diophantine equation, and returns an integer such that this integer is greater than the solutions in positive integers, if these solutions form a finite set. This conclusion is a bit strange because a computable upper bound on non-negative integer solutions does not exist for exponential Diophantine equations with a finite number of solutions, see [15, p. 300]. Therefore, the statement  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\} \Delta_n$  seems to be false.

**Theorem 10.** 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.

#### **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:

$$\begin{cases} x_1 \cdot x_1 &= x_1 \\ \Gamma_n(x_2) &= x_1 \\ \forall i \in \{2, \dots, n-1\} x_i \cdot x_i &= x_{i+1} \end{cases}$$

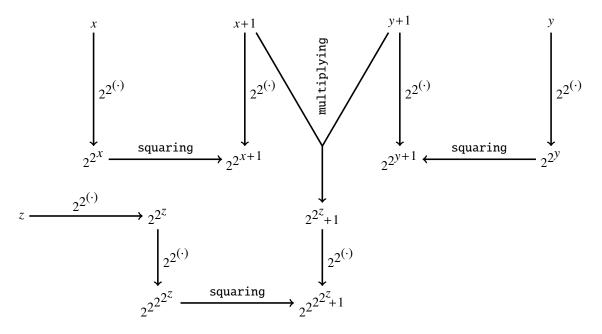
**Lemma 14.** For every integer  $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$ ,  $P_n \subseteq Q_n$  and the system  $P_n$  with  $\Gamma$  instead of  $\Gamma_n$  has exactly one solution in positive integers  $x_1, ..., x_n$ , namely  $(1, 2^{2^0}, 2^{2^1}, 2^{2^2}, ..., 2^{2^{n-2}})$ .

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  $x_1, ..., x_n \leq 2^{2^{n-2}}$ .

**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  $\mathcal{Z}_9 \subseteq Q_9$  be the system of equations in Figure 6.



**Fig. 6** Construction of the system  $Z_9$ 

**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.** ([22]). 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.** (cf. Theorem 7) The statement  $\Sigma_9$  implies the infinitude of primes of the form  $n^2 + 1$ .

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

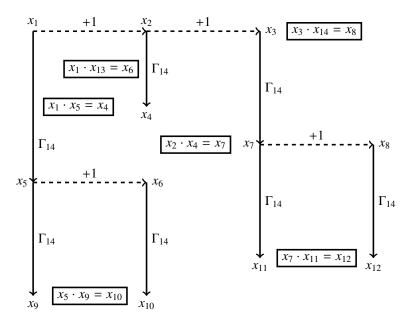
**Theorem 12.** (cf. Theorem 8) The statement  $\Sigma_9$  implies that any prime of the form n! + 1 with  $n \ge 2^{2^{9-3}}$  proves the infinitude of primes of the form n! + 1.

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

**Corollary 7.** 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  $Z_{14} \subseteq Q_{14}$  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  $\Gamma_{14}$ .

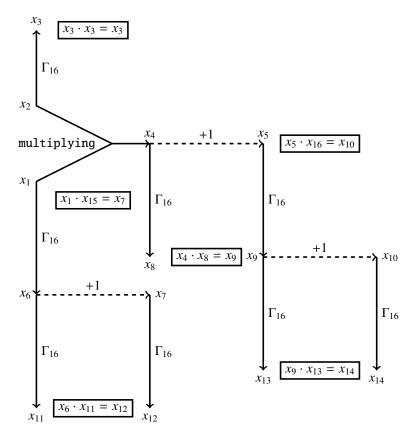
Proof. It follows from Lemmas 3, 5, and 15.

**Lemma 20.** ([27, 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.** (cf. Theorem 9) 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 [26]. It is conjectured that there are infinitely many Sophie Germain primes, see [20, p. 330]. Let  $Z_{16} \subseteq Q_{16}$  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  $Z_{16}$  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  $Z_{16}$  with  $\Gamma$  instead of  $\Gamma_{16}$ .

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

**Lemma 23.** ([20, p. 330]) 8069496435  $\cdot 10^{5072} - 1$  is a Sophie Germain prime (Harvey Dubner).

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

**Theorem 14.** The statement  $\Sigma_{16}$  implies the infinitude of Sophie Germain primes.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 22-24.

**Theorem 15.** 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 [14].

**Theorem 16.** 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.

#### **12** 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 ([19]) command

# (04:04) gp > isprime((65!)^2+1,{flag=2}) %1 = 1

is shown together with its output. This command performs the APRCL primality test, the best deterministic primality test algorithm ([27, 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  $\Omega_9$  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 18.** The statement  $\Omega_{14}$  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 [13, 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 [13, p. 1].

**Open Problem 3.** ([13, 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 [12, p. 23]. Let

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

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  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \leq h(n)$ . 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.* 

**Lemma 29.** Every statement  $\xi_n$  is true with an unknown integer bound that depends on n.

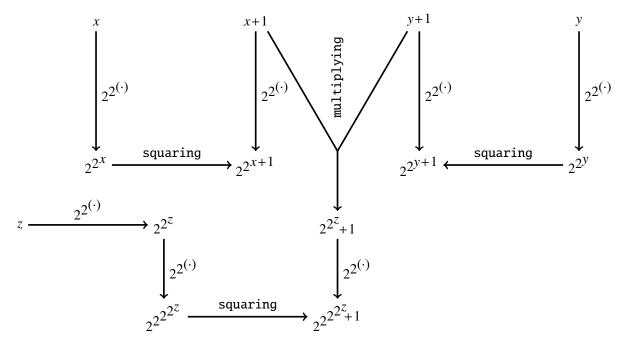
*Proof.* For every positive integer n, the system  $H_n$  has a finite number of subsystems.

**Theorem 19.** 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

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

in positive integers. By Lemma 4, we can transform the equation (E) 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  $\xi_{13}$  implies that the system  $\mathcal{G}$  has infinitely many solutions in positive integers. It means that there are infinitely many composite Fermat numbers.

**Corollary 8.** 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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