

Hilbert's tenth problem

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Theorem (Matiyasevich-Robinson-Davis-Putnam)

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Positive results

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Degree three: unknown.

Degree four: as hard as general equation (Skolem), and thus undecidable by MRDP.

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1964: computer search carried out for $1 < n \leq 1000$, $|y| \leq |x| \leq 65536$. For $n \leq 100$ the only new discovery was $87 = 4271^3 - 4126^3 - 1972^3$. The conclusion was that the conjecture is likely false.

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$$33 = 8\,866\,128\,975\,287\,528^3 + (-8\,778\,405\,442\,862\,239)^3 + (-2\,736\,111\,468\,807\,040)^3$$

Diophantine equation

A simple observation: there is an algorithm deciding whether $f \in \mathbb{Z}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ has integer solution \Leftrightarrow there is an algorithm deciding whether $f \in \mathbb{Z}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ has natural number solution.

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\Rightarrow : Lagrange's four-square theorem says every natural number is the sum of four squares of integers. So $f(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ has natural number solution iff the following has integer solution.

$$f(X_{11}^2 + X_{12}^2 + X_{13}^2 + X_{14}^2, \dots, X_{n1}^2 + X_{n2}^2 + X_{n3}^2 + X_{n4}^2)$$

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\Leftarrow : For example, $f(X, Y)$ has integer solution iff one of $f(X, Y)$, $f(X, -Y)$, $f(-X, Y)$ and $f(-X, -Y)$ has natural number solution.

Diophantine equation

A subset of \mathbb{N}^m is *Diophantine* if it is of the form

$$\{\bar{a} \in \mathbb{N}^m : \exists \bar{x} \in \mathbb{N}^n f(\bar{a}, \bar{x}) = 0\}$$

for some $f \in \mathbb{Z}[A_1, \dots, A_m, X_1, \dots, X_n]$

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Theorem (Matiyasevich-Robinson-Davis-Putnam)

Diophantine sets are exactly the recursively enumerable sets.

There is an r.e. set $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}^m$ that is not recursive. If S is defined by $f(\bar{A}, \bar{X})$, then there is no algorithm that determines whether $f(\bar{a}, \bar{X})$ has natural number solution for a given $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{N}^m$.

History of MRDP theorem

1949: Davis showed Diophantine sets are not closed under complementation.

1950: Robinson realized if there is a function such that: (i) its graph is Diophantine, (ii) it grows exponentially, then certain sets (such as the set of all primes) are Diophantine.

1959: Davis and Putnam improved Robinson's "certain sets" to all r.e. sets, conditional on the then unproven Green-Tao theorem.

1960: Robinson removed the dependence on Green-Tao.

1961-1969: People found various other reductions.

1970: Matiyasevich showed the function $n \mapsto F_{2n}$ works, where F_n is the n -th Fibonacci number.

Outline of the proof

We follow Lou's notes for the proof of MRDP theorem.

After some initial reductions, enough to show that Diophantine sets are closed under *bounded* universal quantification.

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Define $x_a(n)$, $y_a(n)$ by $x_a(n) + y_a(n)\sqrt{a^2 - 1} = (a + \sqrt{a^2 - 1})^n$,
i.e., $(x_a(n), y_a(n))$ is the n -th solution to the Pell's equation
 $x^2 - (a^2 - 1)y^2 = 1$.

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Use intricate congruence properties of these numbers to show $(a, n) \mapsto y_a(n)$ is Diophantine, which in turn implies that $n \mapsto 2^n$ is Diophantine.

Basic properties

Convention: polynomials $f(\bar{X})$ have integer coefficients; variables $a, b, c, x, y, z, m, n, u, \dots$ range over natural numbers.

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Examples:

- ▶ $\{(a, b) : a < b\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}^2$ is Diophantine: $\exists x a + x + 1 - b = 0$.
- ▶ $\{(a, b) : a \mid b\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}^2$ is Diophantine: $\exists x a \cdot x - b = 0$
- ▶ $\{(a, b, c) : a \equiv b \pmod{c}\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}^3$ is Diophantine:
 $\exists x (a - b - cx) \cdot (b - a - cx) = 0$.

Basic properties

Diophantine sets are closed under union and intersection: consider $f \cdot g$ and $f^2 + g^2$ resp.

A function is Diophantine if its graph is. $\gcd(a, b)$ and $\text{rem}(a, b)$ are Diophantine. For $\gcd(a, b)$ consider

$$\exists x \exists y (ax - by = c \vee by - ax = c) \wedge c \mid a \wedge c \mid b.$$

Diophantine functions are closed under composition. Preimage or image of Diophantine set under Diophantine function is Diophantine.

Basic properties

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Recall that r.e. sets are defined by $\exists \bar{x}\varphi$ where φ is bounded. To show that r.e. sets are Diophantine, it suffices to show that Diophantine sets are closed under bounded universal quantification. To show this we temporarily assume that $n \mapsto 2^n$ is Diophantine.

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Lemma: If 2^x is Diophantine, so are x^y , $\binom{x}{y}$ and $x!$.

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Lemma: If 2^x is Diophantine, so are x^y , $\binom{x}{y}$ and $x!$.

$$2^{xy} \equiv x \pmod{2^{xy} - x}$$

$$2^{xy^2} \equiv x^y \pmod{2^{xy} - x}$$

$$x^y = \text{rem}(2^{xy^2}, 2^{xy} - x) \text{ if } y > 1 \text{ (since } x^y < 2^{xy} - x)$$

Bounded quantification theorem

A small further reduction: we want to show a set of form

$$\forall u \leq x \exists \bar{v} F(\bar{a}, x, u, \bar{v}) = 0$$

is Diophantine, where

$$F(\bar{A}, X, U, \bar{V}) \in \mathbb{Z}[A_1, \dots, A_m, X, U, V_1, \dots, V_n].$$

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$$\forall u \leq x \exists \bar{v} F(\bar{a}, x, u, \bar{v}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \exists y \forall u \leq x \exists \bar{v} \leq y F(\bar{a}, x, u, \bar{v}) = 0$$

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For simplicity assume $n = 1$.

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Idea: this holds iff there are b and coprime p_u 's for $u \leq x$ s.t. $\text{rem}(b, p_u) \leq y$ and $F(\bar{a}, x, y, u, \text{rem}(b, p_u)) = 0$.

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To express this for all $u \leq x$, find a large number M s.t. $M \equiv u \pmod{p_u}$, and the above implies

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Choose p_u carefully plus some other stuff to make this sufficient.

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$$F(\bar{A}, X, Y, U, V) \in \mathbb{Z}[A_1, \dots, A_m, X, Y, U, V].$$

Choose $G(\bar{A}, X, Y)$ s.t. $G(\bar{a}, x, y) > 2x + 2$, $G(\bar{a}, x, y) > y + 1$, and $G(\bar{a}, x, y) > |F(\bar{a}, x, y, u, v)|$ for all $u \leq x$ and $v \leq y$. E.g., let $G(\bar{A}, X, Y) = F^*(\bar{A}, X, Y, X, Y) + 2X + Y + 3$ where F^* replaces all coefficients in F by absolute values.

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$$\text{BQT: } \forall u \leq x \exists v \leq y F(\bar{a}, x, y, u, v) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \\ \exists b \left[\binom{b}{y+1} \equiv F(\bar{a}, x, y, g! - 1, b) \equiv 0 \pmod{\binom{g!-1}{x+1}} \right]$$

where $g = G(\bar{a}, x, y)$.

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Let $g = G(\bar{a}, x, y)$, then $\forall u \leq x \exists v \leq y F(\bar{a}, x, y, u, v) = 0 \Leftrightarrow$
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$$\begin{aligned} \binom{g! - 1}{x + 1} &= \frac{(g! - 1)(g! - 2) \cdots (g! - x - 1)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdots (x + 1)} \\ &= \frac{g! - 1}{1} \cdot \frac{g! - 2}{2} \cdots \frac{g! - x - 1}{x + 1} \\ &= \left(\frac{g!}{1} - 1 \right) \cdot \left(\frac{g!}{2} - 1 \right) \cdots \left(\frac{g!}{x + 1} - 1 \right) \end{aligned}$$

Claim: each prime factor of $\binom{g!-1}{x+1}$ is $> g$, and $\frac{g!}{u+1} - 1$ are coprime.

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Claim: each prime factor of $\binom{g!-1}{x+1}$ is $> g$, and $\frac{g!}{u+1} - 1$ are coprime.

For each $u \leq x$ let p_u be a prime factor of $\frac{g!}{u+1} - 1$. So $g! - 1 \equiv u \pmod{p_u}$, and for any b we have

$$F(\bar{a}, x, y, g! - 1, b) \equiv F(\bar{a}, x, y, u, \text{rem}(b, p_u)) \pmod{p_u}$$

Bounded quantification theorem

Let $g = G(\bar{a}, x, y)$, then $\forall u \leq x \exists v \leq y F(\bar{a}, x, y, u, v) = 0 \Leftrightarrow$
 $\exists b \left[\binom{b}{y+1} \equiv F(\bar{a}, x, y, g! - 1, b) \equiv 0 \pmod{\binom{g!-1}{x+1}} \right]$

\Leftarrow : Suppose such a b exists, in particular $p_u \mid \binom{b}{y+1}$ for each $u \leq x$, so $p_u \mid b \cdot (b-1) \cdots (b-y)$, so $p_u \mid (b-k)$ for some $k \leq y$. Thus $\text{rem}(b, p_u) \leq y$, and by assumption on g we have

$$|F(\bar{a}, x, y, u, \text{rem}(b, p_u))| < g < p_u,$$

but this is also congruent mod p_u to $F(\bar{a}, x, y, g! - 1, b)$, so it's 0.

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 $\exists b \left[\binom{b}{y+1} \equiv F(\bar{a}, x, y, g! - 1, b) \equiv 0 \pmod{\binom{g!-1}{x+1}} \right]$

\Rightarrow : Suppose for every $u \leq x$ there exists such a $v_u \leq y$. By CRT there is a $b < \binom{g!-1}{x+1}$ s.t. $\text{rem}(b, \frac{g!}{u+1} - 1) = v_u$. Thus

$$\frac{g!}{u+1} - 1 \mid (b - v_u) \mid b \cdot (b - 1) \cdots (b - y)$$

Then $\binom{g!-1}{x+1} \mid \binom{b}{y+1}$ since each prime factor of $\binom{g!-1}{x+1}$ is $> g$ and $g > y + 1$. Also easy to check $g! - 1 \equiv u \pmod{\frac{g!}{u+1} - 1}$, so $F(\bar{a}, x, y, g! - 1, b) \equiv 0 \pmod{\frac{g!}{u+1} - 1}$ for each $u \leq x$, and the result follows.

Pell's equation

It remains to show $n \mapsto 2^n$ is Diophantine. For this we use the properties of Pell's equation

$$x^2 - dy^2 = 1$$

$(x, y) \in \mathbb{N}^2$ is a solution iff $x + y\sqrt{d}$ is a unit in the ring $O_{\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})}$; if $x_1 + y_1\sqrt{d}$ and $x_2 + y_2\sqrt{d}$ are units then so is their product, so $(x_1x_2 + dy_1y_2, x_1y_2 + x_2y_1)$ is a solution.

The Indian mathematician Bhāskara II (c. 1114–1185) was the first to show that there always exist nontrivial solutions. In modern language, the group of units of $O_{\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})}$ is isomorphic to $\{-1, 1\} \times \mathbb{Z}$, and the generator for \mathbb{Z} is the element $x + y\sqrt{d}$ with $x > 1$ minimal.

Pell's equation

The minimal solution to Pell's equation varies wildly, e.g., when $d = 61$ it's $x = 1766319049$, $y = 226153980$, due to Fermat.

We are going to consider the family $x^2 - (a^2 - 1)y^2 = 1$, whose minimal solution is obviously $(a, 1)$. Define $x_a(n)$, $y_a(n)$ by

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They satisfy various formulas, such as

$$y_a(m + n) = x_a(m)y_a(n) + x_a(n)y_a(m)$$

$$y_a(n + 2) = 2ay_a(n + 1) - y_a(n)$$

Pell's equation

Growth rate: $(2a - 1)^n \leq y_a(n + 1) < (2a)^2$, $2n \leq y_a(n)$ for $n \geq 2$

Congruence rules: $y_a(n) \equiv n \pmod{a - 1}$,

$y_a(n) \equiv y_b(n) \pmod{a - b}$

Periodicity: if $y_a(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$ then $y_a(k) \equiv y_a(l) \pmod{m}$ for any $k = l \pmod{2n}$

1st step-down lemma: $y_a(m) \mid y_a(n) \Leftrightarrow m \mid n$

$y_a(m)^2 \mid y_a(n) \Leftrightarrow my_a(m) \mid n$

2nd step-down lemma: if $y_a(k) \equiv y_a(l) \pmod{x_a(n)}$ then $k \equiv \pm l \pmod{2n}$

Pell's equation

Claim: for $a, y, n \geq 2$, we have $y = y_a(n)$ iff there are x, u, v, s, t, b such that

(i) $2n \leq y$

(ii) $x^2 - (a^2 - 1)y^2 = 1$

(iii) $v \geq 1$ & $u^2 - (a^2 - 1)v^2 = 1$

(iv) $b \geq 2$ & $s^2 - (b^2 - 1)t^2 = 1$

(v) $b \equiv a \pmod{u}$

(vi) $b \equiv 1 \pmod{y}$

(vii) $t \equiv y \pmod{u}$

(viii) $t \equiv n \pmod{y}$

(ix) $y^2 \mid v$

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- (vi) $b \equiv 1 \pmod{y}$
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- (viii) $t \equiv n \pmod{y}$
- (ix) $y^2 \mid v$

Idea?: (ii) implies $y = y_a(k)$ for some k . By the growth bound we have $2k \leq y$, and some intricate (but completely elementary) arguments show $n \equiv \pm k \pmod{y}$.

Exponentiation is Diophantine

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$$2^n \left(1 - \frac{1}{4a}\right)^n \leq \frac{y_{2a}(n + 1)}{y_a(n + 1)} \leq 2^n \left(1 + \frac{1}{2a - 1}\right)^n$$

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Some simple estimation shows if $a \geq 2ny_3(n + 1) + 1$ then

$$\left| \frac{y_{2a}(n + 1)}{y_a(n + 1)} - 2^n \right| < \frac{1}{2},$$

$$\text{so } 2^n = m \Leftrightarrow 2|y_{2a}(n + 1) - my_a(n + 1)| < y_a(n + 1)$$

Variants

One can also ask about solutions in other rings or fields. The theories of \mathbb{Q}_p , \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are decidable, so there exist algorithm for checking, e.g., whether a given polynomial with integer coefficients has real solution.

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An important open case is Hilbert tenth for rationals. Robinson proved in 1949 that \mathbb{Z} is definable in \mathbb{Q} , using a formula of form $\forall \bar{x} \exists \bar{y} \forall \bar{z} f(n, \bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z}) = 0$. Consequently, the theory of \mathbb{Q} is undecidable.

Poonen improved this to $\forall \exists$, and Koenigsmann found a \forall -definition. If there is an \exists -definition then Hilbert tenth for rationals would have a negative answer, but this is impossible assuming the Bombieri-Lang conjecture in number theory.

Reference

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