

The Matiyasevich Theorem. Preliminaries¹

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Summary. In this article, we prove selected properties of Pell's equation that are essential to finally prove the Diophantine property of two equations. These equations are explored in the proof of Matiyasevich's negative solution of Hilbert's tenth problem.

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0. INTRODUCTION

In this article, we prove, using the Mizar formalism, a number of properties that correspond to the Pell's Equation to prove finally two basic lemmas that are essential in the proof of Matiyasevich's negative solution of Hilbert's tenth problem.

For this purpose, first, we focus on a special case of the Pell's Equation, which has the form

$$x^2 - (a^2 - 1)y^2 = 1, (0.1)$$

where a > 1 and integer numerical solutions are sought for x and y. We develop the Pell's Equation theory formalized for the general case in [1]. Note that $\mathbf{x}_a(0) = 1$, $\mathbf{y}_a(0) = 0$ is an obvious solution. Additionally, if we know a solution of the Pell's equation, we can determine all solutions as well as we can order

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them. In our case the n + 1-solution $\mathbf{x}_a(n+1)$, $\mathbf{y}_a(n+1)$ as shown Theorem 6 can be simply determined in terms of the *n*-solution as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_a(n+1) &= a \cdot \mathbf{x}_a(n) + (a^2 - 1) \cdot \mathbf{y}_a(n) \\ \mathbf{y}_a(n+1) &= \mathbf{x}_a(n) + a \cdot \mathbf{y}_a(n) \end{aligned} \tag{0.2}$$

We show a number of dependency between the elements of these sequences to provide that the equality $y_a(z) = y$ is Diophantine. For this purpose we justify in Theorem 38 that for a given a, z, y holds $y_a(z) = y$ if and only if the following system has a solution for natural numbers x, x_1, y_1, A, x_2, y_2 :

$$a > 1 \land y_1 \ge y \land A > y \land y \ge z \land$$

$$x^2 - (a^2 - 1)y^2 = 1 \land x_1^2 - (a^2 - 1)y_1^2 = 1 \land$$

$$x_2^2 - (A^2 - 1)y_2^2 = 1 \land y_2 \equiv y \mod x_1 \land A \equiv a \mod x_1 \land$$

$$y_2 \equiv z \mod 2y \land A \equiv 1 \mod 2y \land y_1 \equiv 0 \mod y^2$$

$$(0.3)$$

Based on this result we prove in Theorem 39 that the equality $y = x^z$ is Diophantine. For this purpose we justify that for a given x, y, z that $y = x^z$ if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} (y &= 1 \land z = 0) \lor \\ (x &= 0 \land y = 0 \land z > 0) \lor (x = 1 \land y = 1 \land z > 0) \lor \\ (x &> 1 \land z > 0 \land \exists_{y_1, y_2, y_3, K \in \mathbb{N}} \\ y_1 &= y_{z+1}(x) \land K > 2zy_1 \land y_2 = y_{z+1}(K) \land y_3 = y_{z+1}(Kx) \land \\ (0 &\leq y - \frac{y_3}{y_2} < \frac{1}{2} \lor 0 \leq \frac{y_3}{y_2} - y < \frac{1}{2})). \end{aligned}$$

$$(0.4)$$

The formalization follows Z.Adamowicz, P.Zbierski [2] as well as M.Davis [3].

1. Preliminaries

From now on $i, j, n, n_1, n_2, m, k, u$ denote natural numbers, r, r_1, r_2 denote real numbers, x, y denote integers, and a, b denote non trivial natural numbers.

Now we state the propositions:

(1) Let us consider a finite sequence F of elements of \mathbb{N} . Suppose for every k such that $1 < k \leq \text{len } F$ holds $F(k) \mod n = 0$. Then $\sum F \mod n = F(1) \mod n$.

PROOF: Define $\mathcal{P}[\text{natural number}] \equiv \text{for every finite sequence } F \text{ of elements of } \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \text{len } F = \$_1 \text{ and for every } k \text{ such that } 1 < k \leq \text{len } F$ holds $F(k) \mod n = 0$ holds $\sum F \mod n = F(1) \mod n$. $\mathcal{P}[0]$. If $\mathcal{P}[k]$, then $\mathcal{P}[k+1]$. $\mathcal{P}[k]$. \Box

(2) Let us consider a complex-valued finite sequence f. Then there exist complex-valued finite sequences e, o such that

(i)
$$\operatorname{len} e = \lfloor \frac{\operatorname{len} f}{2} \rfloor$$
, and

(ii) len
$$o = \lceil \frac{\ln f}{2} \rceil$$
, and

- (iii) $\sum f = \sum e + \sum o$, and
- (iv) for every n, $e(n) = f(2 \cdot n)$ and $o(n) = f(2 \cdot n 1)$.

PROOF: Define $\mathcal{P}[\text{natural number}] \equiv \text{for every complex-valued finite sequence } f$ such that $\text{len } f = \$_1$ there exist complex-valued finite sequences e, o such that $\text{len } e = \lfloor \frac{\text{len } f}{2} \rfloor$ and $\text{len } o = \lceil \frac{\text{len } f}{2} \rceil$ and $\sum f = \sum e + \sum o$ and for every $n, e(n) = f(2 \cdot n)$ and $o(n) = f(2 \cdot n - 1)$. $\mathcal{P}[0]$. If $\mathcal{P}[n]$, then $\mathcal{P}[n+1]$. $\mathcal{P}[n]$. \Box

Let us consider a. Let us observe that $a^2 - 1$ is non square.

2. Solutions of Pell's Equation – Special Case

Let a, n be natural numbers. Assume a is not trivial. The functor $\mathbf{x}_a(n)$ yielding a natural number is defined by

(Def. 1) for every non trivial natural number b such that b = a there exists a natural number y such that

 $it + y \cdot \sqrt{b^2 - 1} = ((\text{the minimal Pell's solution of } (b^2 - 1))_1 +$

(the minimal Pell's solution of $(b^2 - 1)_2 \cdot \sqrt{b^2 - 1}^n$.

Assume a is not trivial. The functor $\mathfrak{Y}_a(n)$ yielding a natural number is defined by

(Def. 2) for every non trivial natural number b such that b = a holds $\mathbf{x}_b(n) + it \cdot \sqrt{b^2 - 1} = ((\text{the minimal Pell's solution of } (b^2 - 1))_1 + (\text{the minimal Pell's solution of } (b^2 - 1))_2 \cdot \sqrt{b^2 - 1})^n$.

Now we state the propositions:

- (3) (i) $\mathbf{x}_a(0) = 1$, and
 - (ii) $y_a(0) = 0.$
- (4) Suppose $\langle n_1, n_2 \rangle$ is a Pell's solution of $a^2 1$. Then there exists n such that
 - (i) $n_1 = x_a(n)$, and
 - (ii) $n_2 = y_a(n)$.

The theorem is a consequence of (3).

(5) $\langle a, 1 \rangle$ = the minimal Pell's solution of $(a^2 - 1)$.

(6) (i)
$$\mathbf{x}_a(n+1) = \mathbf{x}_a(n) \cdot a + \mathbf{y}_a(n) \cdot (a^2 - 1)$$
, and

(ii) $\mathbf{y}_a(n+1) = \mathbf{x}_a(n) + \mathbf{y}_a(n) \cdot a$.

The theorem is a consequence of (5).

- (7) $(\mathbf{x}_a(n))^2 (a^2 1) \cdot (\mathbf{y}_a(n))^2 = 1$. The theorem is a consequence of (3).
- (8) (i) $\mathbf{x}_{a}(n) + \mathbf{y}_{a}(n) \cdot \sqrt{a^{2} 1} = (a + \sqrt{a^{2} 1})^{n}$, and (ii) $\mathbf{x}_{a}(n) + -\mathbf{y}_{a}(n) \cdot \sqrt{a^{2} - 1} = (a - \sqrt{a^{2} - 1})^{n}$. The theorem is a consequence of (5).
- (9) There exist finite sequences F_2 , F_1 of elements of \mathbb{N} such that
 - (i) $\sum F_2 = \mathfrak{Y}_a(n)$, and
 - (ii) len $F_2 = \lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \rfloor$, and
 - (iii) for every *i* such that $1 \leq i \leq \frac{n+1}{2}$ holds $F_2(i) = \binom{n}{2 \cdot i i} \cdot (a^{n+1-i} \cdot 2 \cdot i) \cdot (a^2 i)^{i-i}$, and
 - (iv) $a^n + \sum F_1 = \mathbf{x}_a(n)$, and
 - (v) len $F_1 = \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$, and

(vi) for every *i* such that $1 \leq i \leq \frac{n}{2}$ holds $F_1(i) = \binom{n}{2 \cdot i} \cdot (a^{n-2 \cdot i}) \cdot (a^2 - 1)^i$. PROOF: Set $A = a^2 - 1$. Define $\mathcal{P}[$ natural number $] \equiv$ there exist finite sequences F_2 , F_1 of elements of \mathbb{N} such that $\sum F_2 = \mathbb{Y}_a(\$_1)$ and len $F_2 = \lfloor \frac{\$_1 + 1}{2} \rfloor$ and for every natural number *i* such that $1 \leq i \leq \frac{\$_1 + 1}{2}$ holds $F_2(i) = \binom{\$_1}{2 \cdot i - 1} \cdot (a^{\$_1 + 1 - 2 \cdot i}) \cdot (A^{i-1})$ and $a^{\$_1} + \sum F_1 = \mathbb{X}_a(\$_1)$ and len $F_1 = \lfloor \frac{\$_1}{2} \rfloor$ and for every natural number *i* such that $1 \leq i \leq \frac{\$_1}{2}$ holds $F_1(i) = \binom{\$_1}{2 \cdot i} \cdot (a^{\$_1 - 2 \cdot i}) \cdot (A^i)$. $\mathcal{P}[0]$. For every natural number *n* such that $\mathcal{P}[n]$ holds $\mathcal{P}[n + 1]$. For every *n*, $\mathcal{P}[n]$. \Box

3. Solutions of Pell's Equation – Inequalities

Now we state the proposition:

- (10) If k ≤ n, then x_a(k) ≤ x_a(n).
 PROOF: Define P[natural number] ≡ x_a(k) ≤ x_a(k+\$1). For every natural number i such that P[i] holds P[i+1] by (6), [6, (29)]. P[n1]. □
 Let us consider a and k. One can verify that x_a(k) is positive. Now we state the propositions:
- (11) If k < n, then $y_a(k) < y_a(n)$. PROOF: Define $\mathcal{P}[\text{natural number}] \equiv \text{if } \$_1 > 0$, then $y_a(k) < y_a(k + \$_1)$. For every natural number *i* such that $\mathcal{P}[i]$ holds $\mathcal{P}[i+1]$. $\mathcal{P}[n_1]$. \Box
- (12) If $y_a(k) = y_a(n)$, then k = n. The theorem is a consequence of (11).

(13)
$$\mathbb{Y}_a(n) \ge n$$
.

PROOF: Define $\mathcal{P}[\text{natural number}] \equiv \mathfrak{Y}_a(\mathfrak{F}_1) \geq \mathfrak{F}_1$. If $\mathcal{P}[k]$, then $\mathcal{P}[k+1]$. $\mathcal{P}[k]$. \Box Let us consider a. Let k be a non zero natural number. Observe that $\mathfrak{Y}_a(k)$ is non zero.

Let a be a non trivial natural number and x be a positive natural number. Note that $a \cdot x$ is non trivial.

Now we state the propositions:

- (14) If $a \neq 2$ and $k \leq n$, then $2 \cdot (y_a(k)) < x_a(n)$. The theorem is a consequence of (7) and (10).
- (15) If a = 2 and $k \leq n$, then $\sqrt{3} \cdot (\mathfrak{Y}_a(k)) < \mathfrak{x}_a(n)$. The theorem is a consequence of (7) and (10).
- (16) If a = 2 and k < n, then $(3 + 2 \cdot \sqrt{3}) \cdot \mathfrak{Y}_a(k) < \mathfrak{x}_a(n)$. The theorem is a consequence of (6) and (15).

(17) (i)
$$(2 \cdot a - 1)^n \cdot (a - 1) \leq \mathbf{x}_a(n + 1) \leq a \cdot (2 \cdot a)^n$$
, and
(ii) $(2 \cdot a - 1)^n \leq \mathbf{y}_a(n + 1) \leq 2 \cdot a^n$.
PROOF: Define $\mathcal{P}[\text{natural number}] \equiv (2 \cdot a - 1)^{\$_1} \leq \mathbf{y}_a(\$_1 + 1) \leq 2 \cdot a^{\$_1}$
and $(2 \cdot a - 1)^{\$_1} \cdot (a - 1) \leq \mathbf{x}_a(\$_1 + 1) \leq a \cdot (2 \cdot a^{\$_1})$. $\mathbf{y}_a(0) = 0$ and $\mathbf{x}_a(0) = 1$.
 $\mathbf{y}_a(1 + 0) = 1 + 0 \cdot a$ and $\mathbf{x}_a(1 + 0) = 1 \cdot a + 0 \cdot (a^2 - 1)$. If $\mathcal{P}[k]$, then
 $\mathcal{P}[k + 1]$. $\mathcal{P}[k]$. \Box

Let us consider a positive natural number x. Now we state the propositions: (18) $x^n \cdot (1 - \frac{1}{2 \cdot a \cdot x})^n \leq \frac{y_{a \cdot x}(n+1)}{y_a(n+1)} \leq x^n \cdot \frac{1}{(1 - \frac{1}{2 \cdot a})^n}$. The theorem is a consequence of (17).

(19) If $a > 2 \cdot n \cdot x^n$, then $x^n - \frac{1}{2} < \frac{y_{a \cdot x}(n+1)}{y_a(n+1)} < x^n + \frac{1}{2}$. The theorem is a consequence of (18).

4. Solutions of Pell's Equation – Equality

Now we state the propositions:

- (20) If $x \ge 0$, then $(\operatorname{sgn} x) \cdot (\mathfrak{Y}_a(|x|)) = \mathfrak{Y}_a(|x|)$. The theorem is a consequence of (3).
- (21) If $x \leq 0$, then $(\operatorname{sgn} x) \cdot (\mathfrak{Y}_a(|x|)) = -\mathfrak{Y}_a(|x|)$. The theorem is a consequence of (3).
- (22) (i) $\mathbf{x}_a(|x+y|) = (\mathbf{x}_a(|x|)) \cdot (\mathbf{x}_a(|y|)) + (a^2 1) \cdot (\operatorname{sgn} x) \cdot (\mathbf{y}_a(|x|)) \cdot (\operatorname{sgn} y) \cdot (\mathbf{y}_a(|y|)), \text{ and}$
 - (ii) $(\operatorname{sgn}(x+y)) \cdot (\operatorname{y}_a(|x+y|)) = (\operatorname{x}_a(|x|)) \cdot (\operatorname{sgn} y) \cdot (\operatorname{y}_a(|y|)) + (\operatorname{sgn} x) \cdot (\operatorname{y}_a(|x|)) \cdot (\operatorname{x}_a(|y|)).$

The theorem is a consequence of (20), (8), and (21).

5. Solutions of Pell's Equation – Congruences

Now we state the propositions:

- (23) $\mathbf{x}_a(n)$ and $\mathbf{y}_a(n)$ are relatively prime. PROOF: Define $\mathcal{P}[\text{natural number}] \equiv \gcd(\mathbf{x}_a(\$_1), \mathbf{y}_a(\$_1)) = 1$. $\mathbf{x}_a(0) = 1$ and $\mathbf{y}_a(0) = 0$. For every n such that $\mathcal{P}[n]$ holds $\mathcal{P}[n+1]$ by (6), [4, (8)], [7, (1), (5)]. For every $n, \mathcal{P}[n]$. \Box
- (24) $y_a(n) \equiv n \pmod{a-1}$. The theorem is a consequence of (9), (3), and (1).
- (25) (i) $\mathbf{x}_a(n) \equiv \mathbf{x}_b(n) \pmod{a-b}$, and (ii) $\mathbf{y}_a(n) \equiv \mathbf{y}_b(n) \pmod{a-b}$. PROOF: Define $\mathcal{P}[\text{natural number}] \equiv \mathbf{x}_a(\$_1) \equiv \mathbf{x}_b(\$_1) \pmod{a-b}$ and $\mathbf{y}_a(\$_1) \equiv \mathbf{y}_b(\$_1) \pmod{a-b}$. $\mathbf{x}_a(0) = 1 = \mathbf{x}_b(0)$ and $\mathbf{y}_a(0) = 0 = \mathbf{y}_b(0)$. For every n such that $\mathcal{P}[n]$ holds $\mathcal{P}[n+1]$. For every n, $\mathcal{P}[n]$. \Box
- (26) If $a \equiv b \pmod{k}$, then $\mathfrak{Y}_a(n) \equiv \mathfrak{Y}_b(n) \pmod{k}$. The theorem is a consequence of (25).
- (27) $\operatorname{sgn}(2 \cdot x + y) \cdot \mathfrak{Y}_a(|2 \cdot x + y|) \equiv -(\operatorname{sgn} y) \cdot \mathfrak{Y}_a(|y|) \pmod{\mathfrak{x}_a(|x|)}$. The theorem is a consequence of (22) and (7).
- (28) $(\operatorname{sgn}(4 \cdot x \cdot n + y)) \cdot (\operatorname{y}_a(|4 \cdot x \cdot n + y|)) \equiv (\operatorname{sgn} y) \cdot (\operatorname{y}_a(|y|)) \pmod{\operatorname{x}_a(|x|)}.$ PROOF: Define $\mathcal{P}[\operatorname{natural number}] \equiv (\operatorname{sgn}(4 \cdot x \cdot \$_1 + y)) \cdot (\operatorname{y}_a(|4 \cdot x \cdot \$_1 + y|)) \equiv (\operatorname{sgn} y) \cdot (\operatorname{y}_a(|y|)) \pmod{\operatorname{x}_a(|x|)}.$ For every n such that $\mathcal{P}[n]$ holds $\mathcal{P}[n+1]$. For every $n, \mathcal{P}[n]$. \Box
- (29) $(\operatorname{sgn}(x+y)) \cdot (\operatorname{y}_a(|x+y|)) \equiv (\operatorname{sgn}(x-y)) \cdot (\operatorname{y}_a(|x-y|)) \pmod{\operatorname{x}_a(|x|)}$. The theorem is a consequence of (27).
- (30) If $n_1 < n_2 \leq n$ and $|x| = y_a(n_1)$ and $|y| = y_a(n_2)$ and $x \equiv y \pmod{\mathbf{x}_a(n)}$, then x = y. PROOF: Consider *i* being an integer such that $x - y = (\mathbf{x}_a(n)) \cdot i$. $-\mathbf{x}_a(n) < x - y < \mathbf{x}_a(n)$. \Box
- (31) Suppose $n_1 \leq 2 \cdot n$ and $n_2 \leq 2 \cdot n$ and $|x| = \mathfrak{Y}_a(n_1)$ and $|y| = \mathfrak{Y}_a(n_2)$ and $x \equiv y \pmod{\mathfrak{x}_a(n)}$. Then
 - (i) $n_1 \equiv n_2 \pmod{2 \cdot n}$, or
 - (ii) $n_1 \equiv -n_2 \pmod{2 \cdot n}$.
- (32) Suppose $n_1 \leq 4 \cdot n$ and $n_2 \leq 4 \cdot n$ and $|x| = \mathbb{Y}_a(n_1)$ and $|y| = \mathbb{Y}_a(n_2)$ and $x \equiv y \pmod{\mathfrak{x}_a(n)}$. Then
 - (i) $n_1 \equiv n_2 \pmod{2 \cdot n}$, or
 - (ii) $n_1 \equiv -n_2 \pmod{2 \cdot n}$.

The theorem is a consequence of (31).

- (i) $n_1 \equiv n_2 \pmod{2 \cdot n}$, or
- (ii) $n_1 \equiv -n_2 \pmod{2 \cdot n}$.

The theorem is a consequence of (28), (20), and (32).

6. Solutions of Pell's Equation – Divisibility

Now we state the propositions:

- (34) $y_a(n) | y_a(n \cdot k)$. PROOF: Define $\mathcal{P}[\text{natural number}] \equiv y_a(n) | y_a(n \cdot \$_1). (y_a(n)) \cdot 0 = y_a(n \cdot 0)$. For every k such that $\mathcal{P}[k]$ holds $\mathcal{P}[k+1]$. For every k, $\mathcal{P}[k]$. \Box
- (35) $y_a(n \cdot k) \equiv k \cdot ((\mathbf{x}_a(n))^{k-1}) \cdot (y_a(n)) \pmod{(y_a(n))^2}$. The theorem is a consequence of (3), (2), and (1).
- (36) If k > 0 and $y_a(k) | y_a(n)$, then k | n. PROOF: Set $P = y_a(k)$. Set $r = n \mod k$. Set $q = n \operatorname{div} k$. $(\operatorname{sgn} n) \cdot (y_a(|n|)) = (\mathbf{x}_a(|r|)) \cdot (\operatorname{sgn} q \cdot k) \cdot (y_a(|q \cdot k|)) + (\operatorname{sgn} r) \cdot (y_a(|r|)) \cdot (\mathbf{x}_a(|q \cdot k|))$. $y_a(n) = (\mathbf{x}_a(|r|)) \cdot ((\operatorname{sgn} q \cdot k) \cdot (y_a(|q \cdot k|))) + (\operatorname{sgn} r) \cdot (y_a(|r|)) \cdot (\mathbf{x}_a(|q \cdot k|))$. $P | y_a(q \cdot k) \cdot P | (\mathbf{x}_a(r)) \cdot (y_a(q \cdot k)) \cdot P$ and $\mathbf{x}_a(k \cdot q)$ are relatively prime. r = 0 by [5, (6)], (11). \Box
- (37) If $(\mathfrak{Y}_a(k))^2 | \mathfrak{Y}_a(n)$, then $\mathfrak{Y}_a(k) | n$. The theorem is a consequence of (3), (36), (35), and (23).

7. Special Case of Pell's Equation is Diophantine

Now we state the proposition:

(38) Let us consider natural numbers y, z, a. Then $y = \mathbb{Y}_a(z)$ and a > 1 if and only if there exist natural numbers x, x_1, y_1, A, x_2, y_2 such that a > 1and $\langle x, y \rangle$ is a Pell's solution of $a^2 - 1$ and $\langle x_1, y_1 \rangle$ is a Pell's solution of $a^2 - 1$ and $y_1 \ge y$ and $A > y \ge z$ and $\langle x_2, y_2 \rangle$ is a Pell's solution of $A^2 - 1$ and $y_2 \equiv y \pmod{x_1}$ and $A \equiv a \pmod{x_1}$ and $y_2 \equiv z \pmod{2 \cdot y}$ and $A \equiv 1 \pmod{2 \cdot y}$ and $y_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{y^2}$. PROOF: If $y = \mathbb{Y}_a(z)$ and a > 1, then there exist natural numbers x, x_1, y_1, A, x_2, y_2 such that a > 1 and $\langle x, y \rangle$ is a Pell's solution of $a^2 - 1$ and $\langle x_1, y_1 \rangle$ is a Pell's solution of $a^2 - 1$ and $y_1 \ge y$ and $A > y \ge z$ and $\langle x_2, y_2 \rangle$ is a Pell's solution of $A^2 - 1$ and $y_2 \equiv y \pmod{x_1}$ and $A \equiv a \pmod{x_1}$ and $y_2 \equiv z \pmod{2 \cdot y}$ and $A \equiv 1 \pmod{2 \cdot y}$ and $A \equiv a \pmod{x_1}$

8. EXPONENTIAL FUNCTION IS DIOPHANTINE

Now we state the proposition:

(39) Let us consider natural numbers x, y, z. Then $y = x^z$ if and only if y = 1and z = 0 or x = 0 and y = 0 and z > 0 or x = 1 and y = 1 and z > 0 or x > 1 and z > 0 and there exist natural numbers y_1, y_2, y_3, K such that $y_1 = y_x(z+1)$ and $K > 2 \cdot z \cdot y_1$ and $y_2 = y_K(z+1)$ and $y_3 = y_{K \cdot x}(z+1)$ and $(0 \leq y - \frac{y_3}{y_2} < \frac{1}{2}$ or $0 \leq \frac{y_3}{y_2} - y < \frac{1}{2})$. PROOF: If $y = x^z$, then y = 1 and z = 0 or x = 0 and y = 0 and z > 0or x = 1 and y = 1 and z > 0 or x > 1 and z > 0 and there exist natural numbers y_1, y_2, y_3, K such that $y_1 = y_x(z+1)$ and $K > 2 \cdot z \cdot y_1$ and $y_2 = y_K(z+1)$ and $y_3 = y_{K \cdot x}(z+1)$ and $(0 \leq y - \frac{y_3}{y_2} < \frac{1}{2}$ or $0 \leq \frac{y_3}{y_2} - y < \frac{1}{2})$. \Box

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