

# On sets $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ for which we know an algorithm that computes a threshold number $t(\mathcal{X}) \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\mathcal{X}$ is infinite if and only if $\mathcal{X}$ contains an element greater than $t(\mathcal{X})$

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## Abstract

We define computable functions  $g, h : \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ . For an integer  $n \geq 3$ , let  $\Psi_n$  denote the following statement: *if a system  $S \subseteq \{x_i! = x_k : (i, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}) \wedge (i \neq k)\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$  has only finitely many solutions in positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , then each such solution  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  satisfies  $x_1, \dots, x_n \leq g(n)$* . For a positive integer  $n$ , let  $\Gamma_n$  denote the following statement: *if a system  $S \subseteq \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \cup \{2^{2^{x_i}} = x_k : i, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$  has only finitely many solutions in positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , then each such solution  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  satisfies  $x_1, \dots, x_n \leq h(n)$* . We prove: **(1)** if the equation  $x! + 1 = y^2$  has only finitely many solutions in positive integers, then the statement  $\Psi_6$  guarantees that each such solution  $(x, y)$  belongs to the set  $\{(4, 5), (5, 11), (7, 71)\}$ , **(2)** the statement  $\Psi_9$  proves the following implication: if there exists a positive integer  $x$  such that  $x^2 + 1$  is prime and  $x^2 + 1 > g(7)$ , then there are infinitely many primes of the form  $n^2 + 1$ , **(3)** the statement  $\Psi_9$  proves the following implication: if there exists an integer  $x \geq g(6)$  such that  $x! + 1$  is prime, then there are infinitely many primes of the form  $n! + 1$ , **(4)** 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, **(5)** the statement  $\Gamma_{13}$  proves the following implication: if  $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  and  $2^{2^n} + 1$  is composite and greater than  $h(12)$ , then  $2^{2^n} + 1$  is composite for infinitely many positive integers  $n$ .

**Key words and phrases:** Brocard's problem, Brocard-Ramanujan equation, composite Fermat numbers, halting of a Turing machine, prime numbers of the form  $n^2 + 1$ , prime numbers of the form  $n! + 1$ , Richert's lemma, twin prime conjecture.

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## 1 Introduction

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]. The following statement

- (1) "For every non-negative integer  $n$  there exist prime numbers  $p$  and  $q$  such that  $p + 2 = q$  and  $p \in [10^n, 10^n + 1]$ "

is a  $\Pi_1$  statement which strengthens the twin prime conjecture, see [3, p. 43], cf. [5, pp. 337–338]. Statement (1) is equivalent to the non-halting of a Turing machine. C. H. Bennett claims that most mathematical conjectures can be settled indirectly by proving stronger  $\Pi_1$  statements, see [1].

In this article, we study sets  $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  for which we know an algorithm that computes a threshold number  $t(\mathcal{X}) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\mathcal{X}$  is infinite if and only if  $\mathcal{X}$  contains an element greater than  $t(\mathcal{X})$ . If  $\mathcal{X}$  is computable, then this property implies that the infinity of  $\mathcal{X}$  is equivalent to the halting of a Turing machine. If a set  $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  is empty or infinite, then any non-negative integer  $m$  is a threshold number of  $\mathcal{X}$ . If a set  $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  is non-empty and finite, then the all threshold numbers of  $\mathcal{X}$  form the set  $\{\max(\mathcal{X}), \max(\mathcal{X}) + 1, \max(\mathcal{X}) + 2, \dots\}$ .

**Theorem 1.** ([4, p. 35]). *There exists a polynomial  $D(x_1, \dots, x_m)$  with integer coefficients such that if ZFC is arithmetically consistent, then the sentences "The equation  $D(x_1, \dots, x_m) = 0$  is solvable in non-negative integers" and "The equation  $D(x_1, \dots, x_m) = 0$  is not solvable in non-negative integers" are not provable in ZFC.*

Let  $\mathcal{Y}$  denote the set of all non-negative integers  $k$  such that the equation  $D(x_1, \dots, x_m) = 0$  has no solutions in  $\{0, \dots, k\}^m$ . Since the set  $\{0, \dots, k\}^m$  is finite, we know an algorithm which for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  decides whether or not  $n \in \mathcal{Y}$ . Let  $\gamma: \mathbb{N}^{m+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  be a computable bijection, and let  $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathbb{N}^{m+1}$  be the solution set of the equation  $D(x_1, \dots, x_m) + 0 \cdot x_{m+1} = 0$ . Theorem 1 implies Theorems 2 and 3.

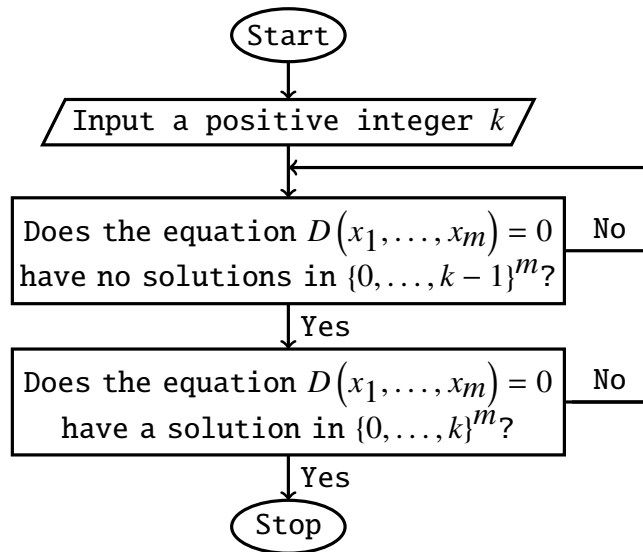
**Theorem 2.** *If ZFC is arithmetically consistent, then for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  the sentences " $n$  is a threshold number of  $\mathcal{Y}$ " and " $n$  is not a threshold number of  $\mathcal{Y}$ " are not provable in ZFC.*

**Theorem 3.** *We know an algorithm which for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  decides whether or not  $n \in \gamma(\mathcal{E})$ . The set  $\gamma(\mathcal{E})$  is empty or infinite. In both cases, every non-negative integer  $n$  is a threshold number of  $\gamma(\mathcal{E})$ . If ZFC is arithmetically consistent, then the sentences " $\gamma(\mathcal{E})$  is empty", " $\gamma(\mathcal{E})$  is not empty", " $\gamma(\mathcal{E})$  is finite", and " $\gamma(\mathcal{E})$  is infinite" are not provable in ZFC.*

The classes of the infinite recursively enumerable sets and of the infinite recursive sets are not recursively enumerable, see [16, p. 234].

**Corollary 1.** *If an algorithm  $\text{Alg}_1$  for every recursive set  $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  finds a non-negative integer  $\text{Alg}_1(\mathcal{R})$ , then there exists a finite set  $\mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\mathcal{W} \cap [\text{Alg}_1(\mathcal{W}) + 1, \infty) \neq \emptyset$ . If an algorithm  $\text{Alg}_2$  for every recursively enumerable set  $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  finds a non-negative integer  $\text{Alg}_2(\mathcal{R})$ , then there exists a finite set  $\mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\mathcal{W} \cap [\text{Alg}_2(\mathcal{W}) + 1, \infty) \neq \emptyset$ .*

In Figure 1,  $D(x_1, \dots, x_m)$  stands for the polynomial described in Theorem 1. Let  $\mathcal{K}$  denote the set of all positive integers  $k$  such that the algorithm in Figure 1 halts for  $k$  on the input. If ZFC is consistent, then  $\mathcal{K} = \emptyset$ . Otherwise,  $\text{card}(\mathcal{K}) = 1$ .



**Fig. 1** The algorithm whose execution may not terminate

**Theorem 4.** *For every positive integer  $n$ , the inclusion  $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$  implies that the consistency of ZFC is decidable.*

*Proof.* We assume that  $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ . If the equation  $D(x_1, \dots, x_m) = 0$  has a solution in  $\{0, \dots, n\}^m$ , then ZFC is inconsistent. Otherwise, ZFC is consistent.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.** *For every positive integer  $n$ , the inclusion  $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$  is not provable in ZFC, if ZFC is arithmetically consistent.*

*Proof.* It follows from Theorem 4 and Gödel's Second Incompleteness theorem.  $\square$

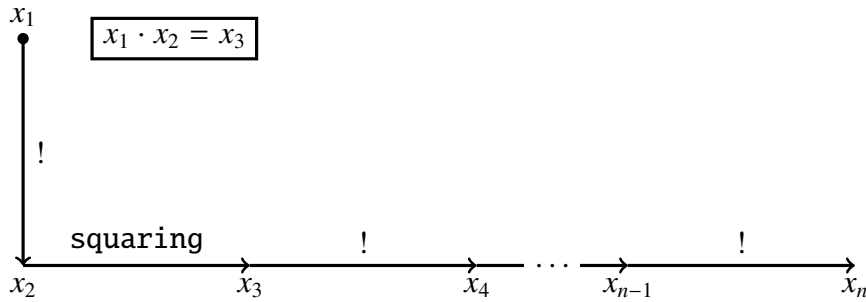
**Corollary 2.** (cf. Theorem 21). *If a computer program halts for at most finitely many positive integers  $k$  on the input, then not always we can write an integer that is greater than every such number.*

## 2 Basic definitions and lemmas

For a positive integer  $n$ , let  $\Gamma(n)$  denote  $(n - 1)!$ . Let  $f(1) = 2$ ,  $f(2) = 4$ , and let  $f(n + 1) = f(n)!$  for every integer  $n \geq 2$ . Let  $h(1) = 1$ , and let  $h(n + 1) = 2^{2^{h(n)}}$  for every positive integer  $n$ . Let  $g(3) = 4$ , and let  $g(n + 1) = g(n)!$  for every integer  $n \geq 3$ . For an integer  $n \geq 3$ , 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 2 illustrates the construction of the system  $\mathcal{U}_n$ .



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

**Lemma 1.** For every integer  $n \geq 3$ , the system  $\mathcal{U}_n$  has exactly two solutions in positive integers, namely  $(1, \dots, 1)$  and  $(2, 2, g(3), \dots, g(n))$ .

Let

$$B_n = \{x_i! = x_k : (i, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}) \wedge (i \neq k)\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$$

For an integer  $n \geq 3$ , let  $\Psi_n$  denote the following statement: if a system  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq B_n$  has only finitely many solutions in positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , then each such solution  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  satisfies  $x_1, \dots, x_n \leq g(n)$ . The statement  $\Psi_n$  says that for subsystems of  $B_n$  the largest known solution is indeed the largest possible.

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

**Theorem 6.** 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. □

**Theorem 7.** For every statement  $\Psi_n$ , the bound  $g(n)$  cannot be decreased.

*Proof.* It follows from Lemma 1 because  $\mathcal{U}_n \subseteq B_n$ . □

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

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

**Lemma 3.** For every positive integers  $x$  and  $y$ ,  $x \cdot \Gamma(x) = \Gamma(y)$  if and only if

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

**Lemma 4.** For every positive integers  $x$  and  $y$ ,  $x + 1 = y$  if and only if

$$(1 \neq y) \wedge (x! \cdot y = y!)$$

**Lemma 5.** For every non-negative integers  $b$  and  $c$ ,  $b + 1 = c$  if and only if  $2^{2^b} \cdot 2^{2^b} = 2^{2^c}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{P}$  denote the set of prime numbers.

**Lemma 6.** (Wilson's theorem, [7, p. 89]). For every positive integer  $x$ ,  $x$  divides  $(x - 1)! + 1$  if and only if  $x \in \{1\} \cup \mathcal{P}$ .

### 3 Heuristic arguments against the statement $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2\} \Psi_n$

Let

$$G_n = \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \cup \{x_i + 1 = x_k : i, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$$

**Hypothesis 2.** ([27, p. 109].) *If a system  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq G_n$  has only finitely many solutions in non-negative integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , then each such solution  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  satisfies  $x_1, \dots, x_n \leq h(2n)$ .*

**Hypothesis 3.** *If a system  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq G_n$  has only finitely many solutions in positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , then each such solution  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  satisfies  $x_1, \dots, x_n \leq f(2n)$ .*

Observations 1 and 2 heuristically justify Hypothesis 3.

**Observation 1.** (cf. [27, p. 110, Observation 1]). *For every system  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq G_n$  which involves all the variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , the following new system*

$$\left( \bigcup_{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k \in \mathcal{S}} \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k\} \right) \cup \{x_k! = y_k : k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \cup \left( \bigcup_{x_i + 1 = x_k \in \mathcal{S}} \{1 \neq x_k, y_i \cdot x_k = y_k\} \right)$$

*is equivalent to  $\mathcal{S}$ . If the system  $\mathcal{S}$  has only finitely many solutions in positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , then the new system has only finitely many solutions in positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_n$ .*

*Proof.* It follows from Lemma 4. □

**Observation 2.** *The equation  $x_1! = x_1$  has exactly two solutions in positive integers, namely  $x_1 = 1$  and  $x_1 = f(1)$ . The system  $\begin{cases} x_1! = x_1 \\ x_1 \cdot x_1 = x_2 \end{cases}$  has exactly two solutions in positive integers, namely  $(1, 1)$  and  $(f(1), f(2))$ . For every integer  $n \geq 3$ , the following system*

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

*has exactly two solutions in positive integers, namely  $(1, \dots, 1)$  and  $(f(1), \dots, f(n))$ .*

For a positive integer  $n$ , let  $\Phi_n$  denote the following statement: *if a system*

$$\mathcal{S} \subseteq \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \cup \{x_i! = x_k : i, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \cup \{1 \neq x_k : k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$$

*has only finitely many solutions in positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , then each such solution  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  satisfies  $x_1, \dots, x_n \leq f(n)$ .*

**Theorem 8.** *The statement  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \Phi_n$  implies Hypothesis 3.*

*Proof.* It follows from Lemma 4. □

Let  $\mathcal{R}ng$  denote the class of all rings  $\mathbf{K}$  that extend  $\mathbb{Z}$ , and let

$$E_n = \{1 = x_k : k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \cup \{x_i + x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$$

Th. Skolem proved that every Diophantine equation can be algorithmically transformed into an equivalent system of Diophantine equations of degree at most 2, see [21, pp. 2–3] and [12, pp. 3–4]. The following result strengthens Skolem's theorem.

**Lemma 7.** ([25, p. 720]). Let  $D(x_1, \dots, x_p) \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_p]$ . Assume that  $\deg(D, x_i) \geq 1$  for each  $i \in \{1, \dots, p\}$ . We can compute a positive integer  $n > p$  and a system  $T \subseteq E_n$  which satisfies the following two conditions:

**Condition 1.** If  $\mathbf{K} \in \mathcal{Rng} \cup \{\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\}$ , then

$$\forall \tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_p \in \mathbf{K} \left( D(\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_p) = 0 \iff \exists \tilde{x}_{p+1}, \dots, \tilde{x}_n \in \mathbf{K} (\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_p, \tilde{x}_{p+1}, \dots, \tilde{x}_n) \text{ solves } T \right)$$

**Condition 2.** If  $\mathbf{K} \in \mathcal{Rng} \cup \{\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\}$ , then for each  $\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_p \in \mathbf{K}$  with  $D(\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_p) = 0$ , there exists a unique tuple  $(\tilde{x}_{p+1}, \dots, \tilde{x}_n) \in \mathbf{K}^{n-p}$  such that the tuple  $(\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_p, \tilde{x}_{p+1}, \dots, \tilde{x}_n)$  solves  $T$ .

Conditions 1 and 2 imply that for each  $\mathbf{K} \in \mathcal{Rng} \cup \{\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\}$ , the equation  $D(x_1, \dots, x_p) = 0$  and the system  $T$  have the same number of solutions in  $\mathbf{K}$ .

Let  $\alpha, \beta$ , and  $\gamma$  denote variables.

**Lemma 8.** ([19, p. 100]) For each positive integers  $x, y, z$ ,  $x + y = z$  if and only if

$$(zx + 1)(zy + 1) = z^2(xy + 1) + 1$$

**Corollary 3.** We can express the equation  $x + y = z$  as an equivalent system  $\mathcal{F}$ , where  $\mathcal{F}$  involves  $x, y, z$  and 9 new variables, and where  $\mathcal{F}$  consists of equations of the forms  $\alpha + 1 = \gamma$  and  $\alpha \cdot \beta = \gamma$ .

*Proof.* The new 9 variables express the following polynomials:

$$zx, \quad zx + 1, \quad zy, \quad zy + 1, \quad z^2, \quad xy, \quad xy + 1, \quad z^2(xy + 1), \quad z^2(xy + 1) + 1$$

□

**Lemma 9.** (cf. [27, p. 110, Lemma 4]). Let  $D(x_1, \dots, x_p) \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_p]$ . Assume that  $\deg(D, x_i) \geq 1$  for each  $i \in \{1, \dots, p\}$ . We can compute a positive integer  $n > p$  and a system  $T \subseteq G_n$  which satisfies the following two conditions:

**Condition 3.** For every positive integers  $\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_p$ ,

$$D(\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_p) = 0 \iff \exists \tilde{x}_{p+1}, \dots, \tilde{x}_n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} (\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_p, \tilde{x}_{p+1}, \dots, \tilde{x}_n) \text{ solves } T$$

**Condition 4.** If positive integers  $\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_p$  satisfy  $D(\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_p) = 0$ , then there exists a unique tuple  $(\tilde{x}_{p+1}, \dots, \tilde{x}_n) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{n-p}$  such that the tuple  $(\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_p, \tilde{x}_{p+1}, \dots, \tilde{x}_n)$  solves  $T$ .

Conditions 3 and 4 imply that the equation  $D(x_1, \dots, x_p) = 0$  and the system  $T$  have the same number of solutions in positive integers.

*Proof.* Let the system  $T$  be given by Lemma 7. We replace in  $T$  each equation of the form  $1 = x_k$  by the equation  $x_k \cdot x_k = x_k$ . Next, we apply Corollary 3 and replace in  $T$  each equation of the form  $x_i + x_j = x_k$  by an equivalent system of equations of the forms  $\alpha + 1 = \gamma$  and  $\alpha \cdot \beta = \gamma$ . □

**Theorem 9.** Hypothesis 3 implies that there is an algorithm which takes as input a 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.

*Proof.* It follows from Lemma 9. □

**Open Problem 1.** Is there an algorithm which takes as input a Diophantine equation, and returns an integer such that this integer is greater than the moduli of integer (non-negative integer, positive integer) solutions, if the solution set is finite?

Matiyasevich's conjecture on finite-fold Diophantine representations ([14]) implies a negative answer to Open Problem 1, see [13, p. 42].

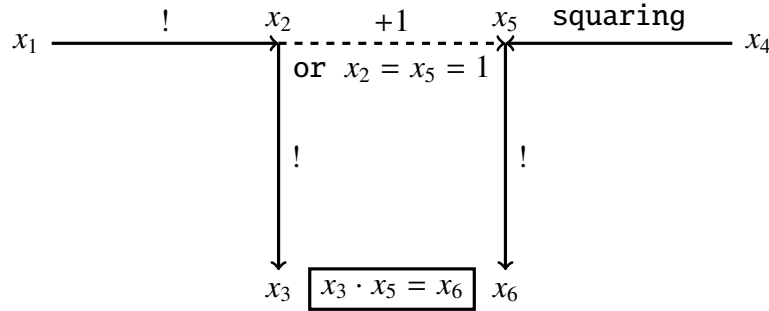
The statement  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \Phi_n$  implies that there is an algorithm which takes as input a factorial Diophantine equation, and returns an integer such that this integer is greater than the solutions in positive integers, if these solutions form a finite set. This conclusion 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 [11, p. 300].

## 4 Brocard's problem

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 3 explain the construction of the system  $\mathcal{A}$ .



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

**Lemma 10.** 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:

$$\begin{aligned} x_2 &= x_1! \\ x_3 &= (x_1!)! \\ x_5 &= x_1! + 1 \\ x_6 &= (x_1! + 1)! \end{aligned}$$

*Proof.* It follows from Lemma 2. □

It is conjectured that  $x! + 1$  is a perfect square only for  $x \in \{4, 5, 7\}$ , see [28, 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 [17].

**Theorem 10.** 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  $\{(4, 5), (5, 11), (7, 71)\}$ .

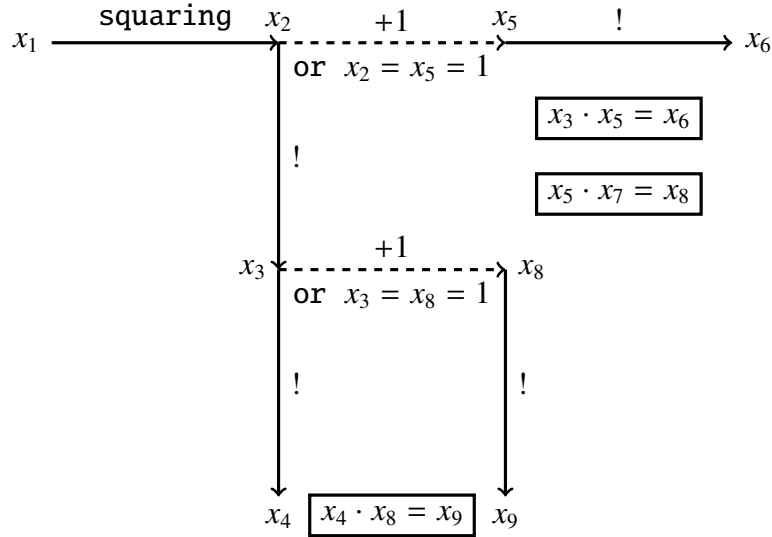
*Proof.* Suppose that the antecedent holds. Let positive integers  $x_1$  and  $x_4$  satisfy  $x_1! + 1 = x_4^2$ . Then,  $x_1, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$ . By Lemma 10, the system  $\mathcal{A}$  is solvable in positive integers  $x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6$ . Since  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq B_6$ , 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  $x_1 \in \{4, 5, 7\}$ . □

## 5 Are there infinitely many prime numbers of the form $n^2 + 1$ ?

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 4 explain the construction of the system  $\mathcal{B}$ .



**Fig. 4** Construction of the system  $\mathcal{B}$

**Lemma 11.** For every integer  $x_1 \geq 2$ , the system  $\mathcal{B}$  is solvable in positive integers  $x_2, \dots, x_9$  if and only if  $x_1^2 + 1$  is prime. In this case, the integers  $x_2, \dots, x_9$  are uniquely determined by the following equalities:

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

*Proof.* By Lemma 2, for every integer  $x_1 \geq 2$ , 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 11 follows from Lemma 6.  $\square$

**Lemma 12.** There are only finitely many tuples  $(x_1, \dots, x_9) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$  which solve the system  $\mathcal{B}$  and satisfy  $x_1 = 1$ .

*Proof.* If a tuple  $(x_1, \dots, x_9) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$  solves the system  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $x_1 = 1$ , then  $x_1, \dots, x_9 \leq 2$ . 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,  $x_9 = x_8! \leq 2$ .  $\square$

Edmund Landau's conjecture states that there are infinitely many primes of the form  $n^2 + 1$ , see [15, pp. 37–38].

**Theorem 11.** The statement  $\Psi_9$  proves the following implication: if there exists an integer  $x_1 \geq 2$  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 11, there exists a unique tuple  $(x_2, \dots, x_9) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^8$  such that the tuple  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_9)$  solves the system  $\mathcal{B}$ . Since  $x_1^2 + 1 > g(7)$ , we obtain that  $x_1^2 \geq g(7)$ . Hence,  $(x_1^2)! \geq g(7)! = g(8)$ . Consequently,

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

Since  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{B}_9$ , the statement  $\Psi_9$  and the inequality  $x_9 > g(9)$  imply that the system  $\mathcal{B}$  has infinitely many solutions  $(x_1, \dots, x_9) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$ . According to Lemmas 11 and 12, there are infinitely many primes of the form  $n^2 + 1$ .  $\square$

## 6 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 [2, p. 443] and [22].

**Theorem 12.** *The statement  $\Psi_9$  proves the following implication: if there exists an integer  $x_1 \geq g(6)$  such that  $x_1! + 1$  is prime, then there are infinitely many primes of the form  $n! + 1$ .*

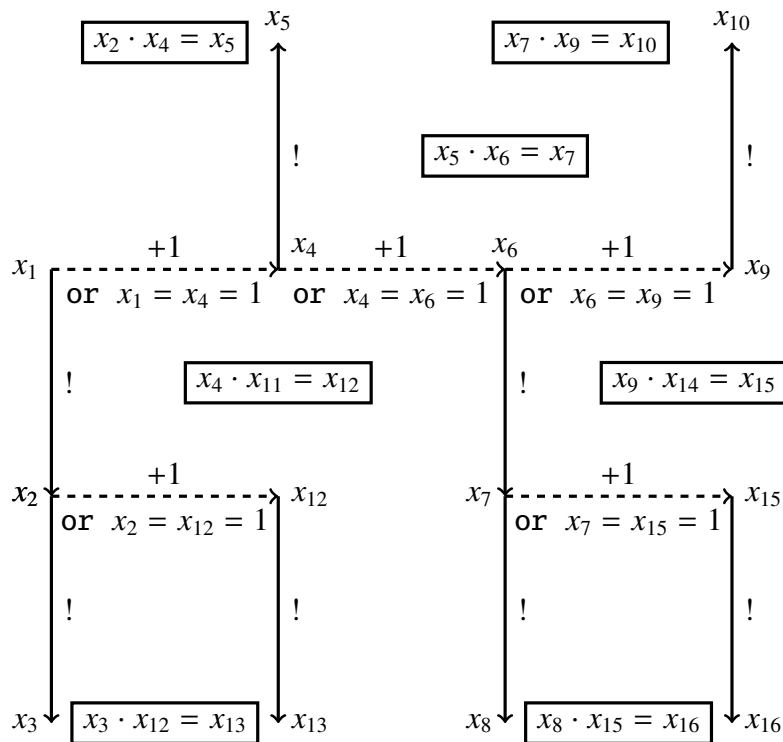
*Proof.* We leave the analogous proof to the reader. □

## 7 The twin prime conjecture

Let  $C$  denote the following system of equations:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_1! = x_2 \\ x_2! = x_3 \\ x_4! = x_5 \\ x_6! = x_7 \\ x_7! = x_8 \\ x_9! = x_{10} \\ x_{12}! = x_{13} \\ x_{15}! = x_{16} \\ x_2 \cdot x_4 = x_5 \\ x_5 \cdot x_6 = x_7 \\ x_7 \cdot x_9 = x_{10} \\ x_4 \cdot x_{11} = x_{12} \\ x_3 \cdot x_{12} = x_{13} \\ x_9 \cdot x_{14} = x_{15} \\ x_8 \cdot x_{15} = x_{16} \end{array} \right.$$

Lemma 2 and the diagram in Figure 5 explain the construction of the system  $C$ .



**Fig. 5** Construction of the system  $C$



**Lemma 13.** 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:

$$\begin{aligned}
x_1 &= x_4 - 1 \\
x_2 &= (x_4 - 1)! \\
x_3 &= ((x_4 - 1)!)! \\
x_5 &= x_4! \\
x_6 &= x_9 - 1 \\
x_7 &= (x_9 - 1)! \\
x_8 &= ((x_9 - 1)!)! \\
x_{10} &= x_9! \\
x_{11} &= \frac{(x_4 - 1)! + 1}{x_4} \\
x_{12} &= (x_4 - 1)! + 1 \\
x_{13} &= ((x_4 - 1)! + 1)! \\
x_{14} &= \frac{(x_9 - 1)! + 1}{x_9} \\
x_{15} &= (x_9 - 1)! + 1 \\
x_{16} &= ((x_9 - 1)! + 1)!
\end{aligned}$$

*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 13 follows from Lemma 6.  $\square$

**Lemma 14.** There are only finitely many tuples  $(x_1, \dots, x_{16}) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{16}$  which solve the system  $C$  and satisfy

$$(x_4 \in \{1, 2\}) \vee (x_9 \in \{1, 2\})$$

*Proof.* If a tuple  $(x_1, \dots, x_{16}) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{16}$  solves the system  $C$  and

$$(x_4 \in \{1, 2\}) \vee (x_9 \in \{1, 2\})$$

then  $x_1, \dots, x_{16} \leq 7!$ . 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,  $x_{16} = x_{15}! = 7!$ .  $\square$

**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 13, there exists a unique tuple  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_8, x_{10}, x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{13}, x_{14}, x_{15}, x_{16}) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{16}$  such that the tuple  $(x_1, \dots, x_{16})$  solves the system  $C$ . Since  $x_9 > g(14)$ , we obtain that  $x_9 - 1 \geq g(14)$ . Therefore,  $(x_9 - 1)! \geq g(14)! = g(15)$ . 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  $x_1, \dots, x_{16}$ . According to Lemmas 13 and 14, there are infinitely many twin primes.  $\square$

Let  $\mathbb{P}(x)$  denote the predicate " $x$  is a prime number". Dickson's conjecture ([15, p. 36], [29, p. 109]) implies that the existential theory of  $(\mathbb{N}, =, +, \mathbb{P})$  is decidable, see [29, Theorem 2, p. 109]. For a positive integer  $n$ , let  $\Theta_n$  denote the following statement: for every system  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \{x_i + 1 = x_k : i, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \cup \{\mathbb{P}(x_i) : i \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$  the solvability of  $\mathcal{S}$  in non-negative integers is decidable.

**Lemma 15.** *If the existential theory of  $(\mathbb{N}, =, +, \mathbb{P})$  is decidable, then the statements  $\Theta_n$  are true.*

*Proof.* For every non-negative integers  $x$  and  $y$ ,  $x + 1 = y$  if and only if

$$\exists u, v \in \mathbb{N} ((u + u = v) \wedge \mathbb{P}(v) \wedge (x + u = y))$$

□

**Theorem 14.** *The conjunction of the implication (\*) and the statement  $\Theta_{g(14)+2}$  implies that the twin prime conjecture is decidable.*

*Proof.* By the statement  $\Theta_{g(14)+2}$ , we can decide the truth of the sentence

$$\exists x_1 \dots \exists x_{g(14)+2} ((\forall i \in \{1, \dots, g(14) + 1\} x_i + 1 = x_{i+1}) \wedge \mathbb{P}(x_{g(14)}) \wedge \mathbb{P}(x_{g(14)+2})) \quad (2)$$

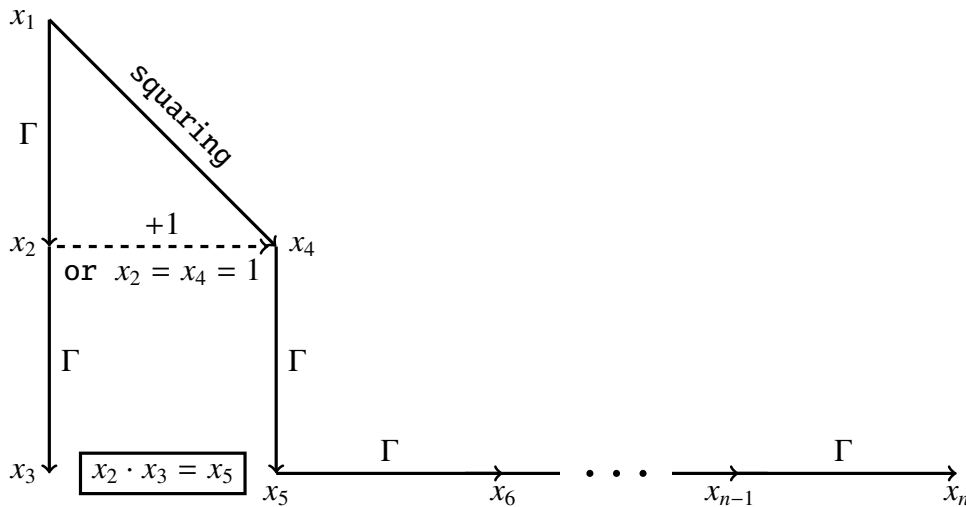
If sentence (2) is false, then the twin prime conjecture is false. If sentence (2) is true, then there exists a twin prime greater than  $g(14)$ . In this case, the twin prime conjecture follows from Theorem 13. □

## 8 A hypothesis which implies that any prime number $p \geq 25$ proves that there are infinitely many prime numbers

Let  $\lambda(5) = \Gamma(25)$ , and let  $\lambda(n + 1) = \Gamma(\lambda(n))$  for every integer  $n \geq 5$ . For an integer  $n \geq 5$ , 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 6 explain the construction of the system  $\mathcal{J}_n$ .



**Fig. 6** Construction of the system  $\mathcal{J}_n$

**Observation 3.** *For every integer  $n \geq 5$ , the system  $\mathcal{J}_n$  has exactly two solutions in positive integers, namely  $(1, \dots, 1)$  and  $(5, 24, 23!, 25, \lambda(5), \dots, \lambda(n))$ .*

For an integer  $n \geq 5$ , let  $\Delta_n$  denote the following statement: *if a system  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \{\Gamma(x_i) = x_k : i, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$  has only finitely many solutions in positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , then each such solution  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  satisfies  $x_1, \dots, x_n \leq \lambda(n)$ .*

**Hypothesis 4.** *The statements  $\Delta_5, \dots, \Delta_{14}$  are true.*

Lemmas 3 and 6 imply that the statements  $\Delta_n$  have similar consequences as the statements  $\Psi_n$ .

**Theorem 15.** *The statement  $\Delta_6$  implies that any prime number  $p \geq 25$  proves that there are infinitely many prime numbers.*

*Proof.* It follows from Lemmas 3 and 6. We leave the details to the reader. □

## 9 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 [10, 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 [10, p. 1].

**Open Problem 2.** ([10, 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  $n \geq 5$ , see [9, p. 23].

**Theorem 16.** ([26]). *An unproven inequality stated in [26] implies that  $2^{2^n} + 1$  is composite for every integer  $n \geq 5$ .*

Let

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

**Lemma 16.** *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  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^n$ , namely  $(h(1), \dots, h(n))$ .*

For a positive integer  $n$ , let  $\Gamma_n$  denote the following statement: *if a system  $S \subseteq H_n$  has only finitely many solutions in positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , then each such solution  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  satisfies  $x_1, \dots, x_n \leq h(n)$ .* The statement  $\Gamma_n$  says that for subsystems of  $H_n$  the largest known solution is indeed the largest possible.

**Hypothesis 5.** *The statements  $\Gamma_1, \dots, \Gamma_{13}$  are true.*

The truth of the statement  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \Gamma_n$  is doubtful because a computable upper bound on non-negative integer solutions does not exist for exponential Diophantine equations with a finite number of solutions, see [11, p. 300].

**Lemma 17.** *For every positive integer  $n$ , the system  $H_n$  has a finite number of subsystems.*

**Theorem 17.** *Every statement  $\Gamma_n$  is true with an unknown integer bound that depends on  $n$ .*

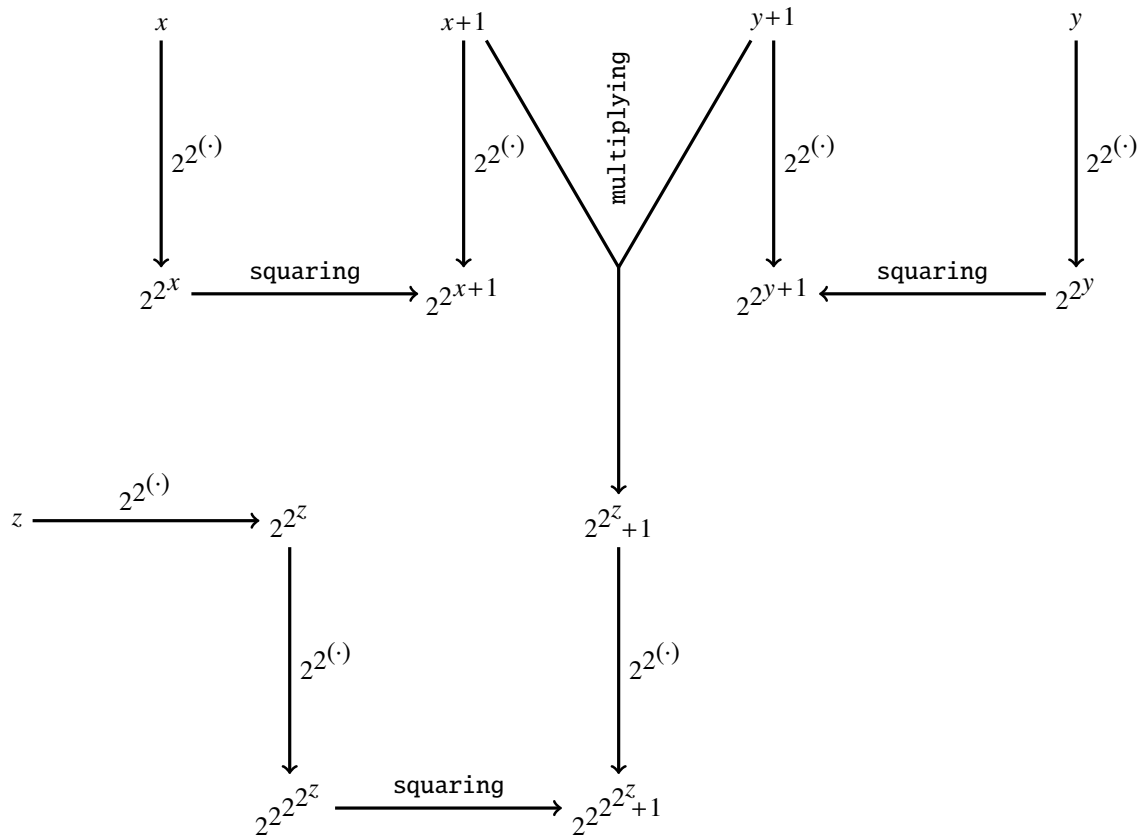
*Proof.* It follows from Lemma 17. □

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

$$(x+1)(y+1) = 2^{2^z} + 1 \tag{3}$$

in positive integers. By Lemma 5, we can transform equation (3) into an equivalent system  $\mathcal{G}$  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 7.



**Fig. 7** Construction of the system  $\mathcal{G}$

Since  $2^{2^z} + 1 > h(12)$ , we obtain that  $2^{2^{2^{2^z} + 1}} > h(13)$ . By this, the statement  $\Gamma_{13}$  implies that the system  $\mathcal{G}$  has infinitely many solutions in positive integers. It means that there are infinitely many composite Fermat numbers.  $\square$

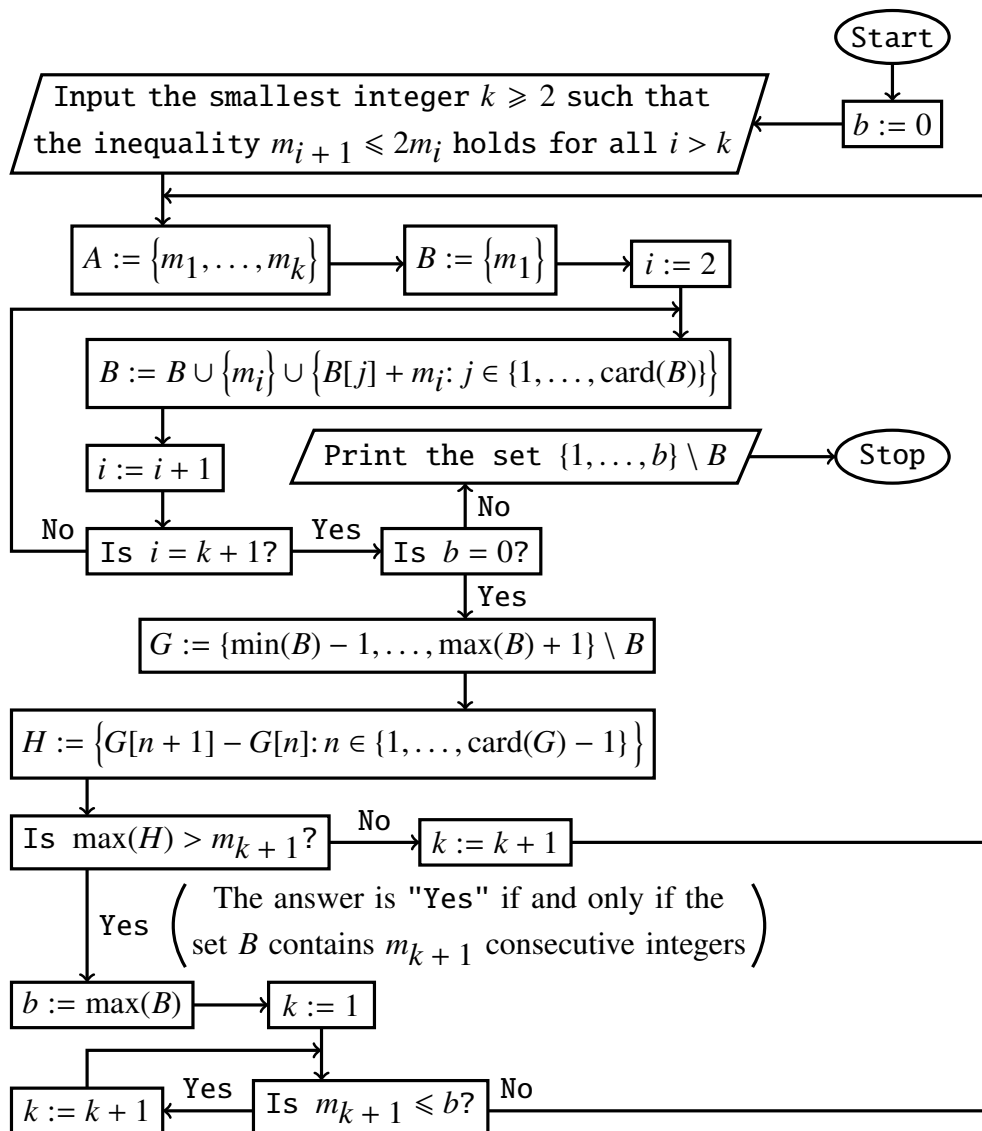
## 10 Subsets of $\mathbb{N}$ whose infinitude is unconditionally equivalent to the halting of a Turing machine

The following lemma is known as Richert's lemma.

**Lemma 18.** ([6], [18], [20, p. 152]). *Let  $\{m_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  be an increasing sequence of positive integers such that for some positive integer  $k$  the inequality  $m_{i+1} \leq 2m_i$  holds for all  $i > k$ . Suppose there exists a non-negative integer  $b$  such that the numbers  $b + 1, b + 2, b + 3, \dots, b + m_{k+1}$  are all expressible as sums of one or more distinct elements of the set  $\{m_1, \dots, m_k\}$ . Then every integer greater than  $b$  is expressible as a sum of one or more distinct elements of the set  $\{m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots\}$ .*

Let  $\mathcal{T}$  denote the set of all positive integers  $i$  such that every integer  $j \geq i$  is expressible as a sum of one or more distinct elements of the set  $\{m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots\}$ . Obviously,  $\mathcal{T} = \emptyset$  or  $\mathcal{T} = [d, \infty) \cap \mathbb{N}$  for some positive integer  $d$ .

**Corollary 4.** *If the sequence  $\{m_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  is computable and the algorithm in Figure 8 terminates, then almost all positive integers are expressible as a sum of one or more distinct elements of the set  $\{m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots\}$ . In particular, if the sequence  $\{m_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  is computable and the algorithm in Figure 8 terminates, then the set  $\mathcal{T}$  is infinite. In this case, the algorithm in Figure 8 prints all positive integers which are not expressible as a sum of one or more distinct elements of the set  $\{m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots\}$ .*



**Fig. 8** The algorithm which uses Richert's lemma

**Theorem 19.** ([8, Theorem 2.3]). *If there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that the inequality  $m_{i+1} \leq (2 - \varepsilon) \cdot m_i$  holds for every sufficiently large  $i$ , then the algorithm in Figure 8 terminates if and only if almost all positive integers are expressible as a sum of one or more distinct elements of the set  $\{m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots\}$ .*

**Corollary 5.** *If there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that the inequality  $m_{i+1} \leq (2 - \varepsilon) \cdot m_i$  holds for every sufficiently large  $i$ , then the algorithm in Figure 8 terminates if and only if the set  $\mathcal{T}$  is infinite.*

We show how the algorithm in Figure 8 works for a concrete sequence  $\{m_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ . Let  $[\cdot]$  denote the integer part function. For a positive integer  $i$ , let  $t_i = \frac{(i + 19)^{i + 19}}{(i + 19)! \cdot 2^{i + 19}}$ , and let  $m_i = [t_i]$ .

**Lemma 19.** *The inequality  $m_{i+1} \leq 2m_i$  holds for every positive integer  $i$ .*

*Proof.* For every positive integer  $i$ ,

$$\frac{m_i}{m_{i+1}} = \frac{[t_i]}{[t_{i+1}]} > \frac{t_i - 1}{t_{i+1}} = \frac{t_i}{t_{i+1}} - \frac{1}{t_{i+1}} \geq \frac{t_i}{t_{i+1}} - \frac{1}{t_2} =$$

$$2 \cdot \frac{i + 20}{i + 19} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{i + 20}\right)^{i+20} - \frac{21! \cdot 2^{21}}{21^{21}} > 2 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{21}\right)^{21} - \frac{21! \cdot 2^{21}}{21^{21}} = \frac{4087158528442715204485120000}{5842587018385982521381124421}$$

The last fraction was computed by MuPAD and is greater than  $\frac{1}{2}$ . □

**Theorem 20.** *The algorithm in Figure 8 terminates for the sequence  $\{m_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ .*

*Proof.* By Lemma 19, we take  $k = 2$  as the initial value of  $k$ . The following *MuPAD* code

```

k:=2:
repeat
A:={floor((i+19)^(i+19)/((i+19)!*2^(i+19))) $i=1..k+1}:
B:={A[1]}:
for i from 2 to nops(A)-1 do
B:=B union {A[i]} union {B[j]+A[i] $j=1..nops(B)}:
end_for:
G:={y $y=B[1]-1..B[nops(B)]+1} minus B:
H:={G[n+1]-G[n] $n=1..nops(G)-1}:
k:=k+1:
until H[nops(H)]>A[nops(A)] end_repeat:
b:=B[nops(B)]:
k:=1:
while floor((k+20)^(k+20)/((k+20)!*2^(k+20)))<=b do
k:=k+1:
end_while:
A:={floor((i+19)^(i+19)/((i+19)!*2^(i+19))) $i=1..k}:
B:={A[1]}:
for i from 2 to nops(A)-1 do
B:=B union {A[i]} union {B[j]+A[i] $j=1..nops(B)}:
end_for:
print({n $n=1..b} minus B):

```

implements the algorithm in Figure 8 because *MuPAD* automatically orders every finite set of integers and the inequality  $H[nops(H)] > A[nops(A)]$  holds true if and only if the set  $B$  contains  $m_{k+1}$  consecutive integers. The code returns the following output:

```

{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20,
21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38,
39, 40, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 55, 56, 57, 58,
59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77,
78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 97,
98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 111,
112, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125, 127,
129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143,
144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 151, 152, 153, 154, 155, 156, 157, 158,
159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176,
177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 183, 184, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 192,
193, 194, 195, 196, 197, 198, 199, 201, 202, 203, 204, 205, 206, 207,

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208, 210, 212, 213, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218, 219, 220, 221, 225, 226,  
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 1056, 1058, 1069, 1073, 1076, 1078, 1080, 1082, 1088, 1089, 1090, 1093,  
 1095, 1107, 1110, 1122, 1123, 1127, 1129, 1130, 1132, 1147, 1152, 1154,  
 1164, 1169, 1174, 1179, 1184, 1201, 1205, 1206, 1218, 1219, 1223, 1224,  
 1226, 1228, 1246, 1250, 1255, 1257, 1258, 1259, 1260, 1275, 1277, 1280,  
 1298, 1300, 1302, 1307, 1315, 1322, 1329, 1331, 1346, 1351, 1352, 1354,  
 1356, 1372, 1374, 1376, 1381, 1383, 1385, 1387, 1396, 1398, 1403, 1405,  
 1426, 1427, 1428, 1450, 1457, 1468, 1472, 1477, 1482, 1497, 1499, 1526,  
 1529, 1533, 1549, 1551, 1573, 1580, 1583, 1603, 1605, 1610, 1625, 1627,  
 1647, 1667, 1679, 1681, 1699, 1701, 1721, 1753, 1773, 1775, 1780, 1795,  
 1817, 1832, 1849, 1852, 1869, 1871, 1886, 1923, 1925, 1943, 1945, 1950,  
 1997, 2022, 2039, 2073, 2120, 2174, 2221, 2246, 2297, 2369, 2416, 2591,  
 2761}

□

**Corollary 6.**  $\mathcal{T} = [2762, \infty) \cap \mathbb{N}$ .

*MuPAD* is a general-purpose computer algebra system. *MuPAD* is no longer available as a stand-alone computer program, but only as the *Symbolic Math Toolbox* of *MATLAB*. Fortunately, the presented code can be executed by *MuPAD Light*, which was offered for free for research and education until autumn 2005.

## 11 A hypothetical infinitude of various classes of primes via computer programs which halt for at most finitely many positive integers on the input

Let  $\text{fact}^{-1}: \{1, 2, 6, 24, \dots\} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  denote the inverse function to the factorial function. For positive integers  $x$  and  $y$ , let  $\text{rem}(x, y)$  denote the remainder from dividing  $x$  by  $y$ .

**Definition.** For a positive integer  $n$ , by a program of length  $n$  we understand any sequence of terms  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  such that  $x_1$  is defined as the variable  $x$ , and for every integer  $i \in \{2, \dots, n\}$ ,  $x_i$  is defined as  $\Gamma(x_{i-1})$ , or  $\text{fact}^{-1}(x_{i-1})$ , or  $\text{rem}(x_{i-1}, x_{i-2})$  – but only if  $i \geq 3$  and  $x_{i-1}$  is defined as  $\Gamma(x_{i-2})$ .

Let  $\delta(4) = 3$ , and let  $\delta(n+1) = \delta(n)!$  for every integer  $n \geq 4$ . For an integer  $n \geq 4$ , let  $\Omega_n$  denote the following statement: if a program of length  $n$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  for at most finitely many positive integers  $x$ , then every such  $x$  does not exceed  $\delta(n)$ .

**Lemma 20.** For every positive integer  $n$ , there are only finitely many programs of length  $n$ .



**Theorem 21.** (cf. Corollary 2). For every integer  $n \geq 4$ , the statement  $\Omega_n$  is true with an unknown integer bound that depends on  $n$ .

*Proof.* It follows from Lemma 20. □

**Lemma 21.** ([20, pp. 214–215]). For every positive integer  $x$ ,  $\text{rem}(\Gamma(x), x) \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  if and only if  $x \in \{4\} \cup \mathcal{P}$ .

**Theorem 22.** For every integer  $n \geq 4$  and for every positive integer  $x$ , the following program  $\mathcal{H}_n$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_1 := x \\ \forall i \in \{2, \dots, n-3\} x_i := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_{i-1}) \\ x_{n-2} := \Gamma(x_{n-3}) \\ x_{n-1} := \Gamma(x_{n-2}) \\ x_n := \text{rem}(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}) \end{array} \right.$$

returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  if and only if  $x = \delta(n)$ .

*Proof.* We make three observations.

**Observation 4.** If  $x_{n-3} = 3$ , then  $x_1, \dots, x_{n-3} \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  and  $x = x_1 = \delta(n)$ .

If  $x = \delta(n)$ , then  $x_1, \dots, x_{n-3} \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  and  $x_{n-3} = 3$ .

Hence,  $x_{n-2} = \Gamma(x_{n-3}) = 2$  and  $x_{n-1} = \Gamma(x_{n-2}) = 1$ . Therefore,  $x_n = \text{rem}(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}) = 1$ .

**Observation 5.** If  $x_{n-3} = 2$ , then  $x = x_1 = \dots = x_{n-3} = 2$ .

If  $x = 2$ , then  $x_1 = \dots = x_{n-3} = 2$ . Hence,  $x_{n-2} = \Gamma(x_{n-3}) = 1$  and  $x_{n-1} = \Gamma(x_{n-2}) = 1$ .

Therefore,  $x_n = \text{rem}(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}) = 0 \notin \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ .

**Observation 6.** If  $x_{n-3} = 1$ , then  $x_{n-2} = \Gamma(x_{n-3}) = 1$ . Hence,  $x_{n-1} = \Gamma(x_{n-2}) = 1$ .

Therefore,  $x_n = \text{rem}(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}) = 0 \notin \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ .

Observations 4–6 cover the case when  $x_{n-3} \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ . If  $x_{n-3} \geq 4$ , then  $x_{n-2} = \Gamma(x_{n-3})$  is greater than 4 and composite. By Lemma 21,  $x_n = \text{rem}(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}) = \text{rem}(\Gamma(x_{n-2}), x_{n-2}) = 0 \notin \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ . □

**Corollary 7.** For every integer  $n \geq 4$ , the bound  $\delta(n)$  in the statement  $\Omega_n$  cannot be decreased.

**Lemma 22.** If  $x \in \mathcal{P}$ , then  $\text{rem}(\Gamma(x), x) = x - 1$ .

*Proof.* It follows from Lemma 6. □

**Lemma 23.** For every positive integer  $x$ , the following program  $\mathcal{A}$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_1 := x \\ x_2 := \Gamma(x_1) \\ x_3 := \text{rem}(x_2, x_1) \\ x_4 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_3) \end{array} \right.$$

returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_4$  if and only if  $x = 4$  or  $x$  is a prime number of the form  $n! + 1$ .

*Proof.* For an integer  $i \in \{1, \dots, 4\}$ , let  $A_i$  denote the set of positive integers  $x$  such that the first  $i$  instructions of the program  $\mathcal{A}$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_i$ . We show that

$$A_4 = \{4\} \cup \{n! + 1 : n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\} \cap \mathcal{P} \tag{4}$$

For every positive integer  $x$ , the terms  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  belong to  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ . By Lemma 21, the term  $x_3$  (which equals  $\text{rem}(\Gamma(x), x)$ ) belongs to  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  if and only if  $x \in \{4\} \cup \mathcal{P}$ . Hence,  $A_3 = \{4\} \cup \mathcal{P}$ . If  $x = 4$ , then  $x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ . Hence,  $4 \in A_4$ . If  $x \in \mathcal{P}$ , then Lemma 22 implies that  $x_3 = \text{rem}(\Gamma(x), x) = x - 1 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ . Therefore, for every  $x \in \mathcal{P}$ , the term  $x_4 = \text{fact}^{-1}(x_3)$  belongs to  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  if and only if  $x \in \{n! + 1 : n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\}$ . This proves equality (4). □

**Theorem 23.** *The statement  $\Omega_4$  implies that the set of primes of the form  $n! + 1$  is infinite.*

*Proof.* The number  $3! + 1 = 7$  is prime. By Lemma 23, for  $x = 7$  the program  $\mathcal{A}$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_4$ . Since  $x = 7 > 3 = \delta(4)$ , the statement  $\Omega_4$  guarantees that the program  $\mathcal{A}$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_4$  for infinitely many positive integers  $x$ . By Lemma 23, there are infinitely many primes of the form  $n! + 1$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 24.** *If  $x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$ , then  $\text{fact}^{-1}(\Gamma(x)) = x - 1$ .*

**Theorem 24.** *If the set of primes of the form  $n! + 1$  is infinite, then the statement  $\Omega_4$  is true.*

*Proof.* There exist exactly 10 programs of length 4 that differ from  $\mathcal{H}_4$  and  $\mathcal{A}$ , see Figure 9. For every such program  $\mathcal{F}_i$ , we determine the set  $S_i$  of all positive integers  $x$  such that the program  $\mathcal{F}_i$  outputs positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_4$  on input  $x$ . We omit 10 easy proofs which use Lemmas 21 and 24. The sets  $S_i$  are infinite, see Figure 9.

$\mathcal{F}_1$	$x_1 := x$	$x_2 := \Gamma(x_1)$	$x_3 := \Gamma(x_2)$	$x_4 := \Gamma(x_3)$	$x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \iff x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} = S_1$
$\mathcal{F}_2$	$x_1 := x$	$x_2 := \Gamma(x_1)$	$x_3 := \Gamma(x_2)$	$x_4 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_3)$	$x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \iff x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} = S_2$
$\mathcal{H}_4$	$x_1 := x$	$x_2 := \Gamma(x_1)$	$x_3 := \Gamma(x_2)$	$x_4 := \text{rem}(x_3, x_2)$	$x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \iff x = 3$
$\mathcal{F}_3$	$x_1 := x$	$x_2 := \Gamma(x_1)$	$x_3 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_2)$	$x_4 := \Gamma(x_3)$	$x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \iff x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} = S_3$
$\mathcal{F}_4$	$x_1 := x$	$x_2 := \Gamma(x_1)$	$x_3 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_2)$	$x_4 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_3)$	$x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \iff x \in \{1\} \cup \{n! + 1 : n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\} = S_4$
$\mathcal{F}_5$	$x_1 := x$	$x_2 := \Gamma(x_1)$	$x_3 := \text{rem}(x_2, x_1)$	$x_4 := \Gamma(x_3)$	$x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \iff x \in \{4\} \cup \mathcal{P} = S_5$
$\mathcal{A}$	$x_1 := x$	$x_2 := \Gamma(x_1)$	$x_3 := \text{rem}(x_2, x_1)$	$x_4 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_3)$	$x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \iff x \in \{4\} \cup \{n! + 1 : n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\} \cap \mathcal{P}$
$\mathcal{F}_6$	$x_1 := x$	$x_2 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_1)$	$x_3 := \Gamma(x_2)$	$x_4 := \Gamma(x_3)$	$x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \iff x \in \{n! : n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\} = S_6$
$\mathcal{F}_7$	$x_1 := x$	$x_2 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_1)$	$x_3 := \Gamma(x_2)$	$x_4 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_3)$	$x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \iff x \in \{n! : n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\} = S_7$
$\mathcal{F}_8$	$x_1 := x$	$x_2 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_1)$	$x_3 := \Gamma(x_2)$	$x_4 := \text{rem}(x_3, x_2)$	$x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \iff x \in \{4!\} \cup \{p! : p \in \mathcal{P}\} = S_8$
$\mathcal{F}_9$	$x_1 := x$	$x_2 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_1)$	$x_3 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_2)$	$x_4 := \Gamma(x_3)$	$x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \iff x \in \{(n)! : n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\} = S_9$
$\mathcal{F}_{10}$	$x_1 := x$	$x_2 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_1)$	$x_3 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_2)$	$x_4 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_3)$	$x_1, \dots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \iff x \in \{((n)!)\! : n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\} = S_{10}$

**Fig. 9** 12 programs of length 4,  $x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$

This completes the proof.  $\square$

**Hypothesis 6.** *The statements  $\Omega_4, \dots, \Omega_7$  are true.*

**Lemma 25.** *For every positive integer  $x$ , the following program  $\mathcal{B}$*

$$\begin{cases} x_1 := x \\ x_2 := \Gamma(x_1) \\ x_3 := \text{rem}(x_2, x_1) \\ x_4 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_3) \\ x_5 := \Gamma(x_4) \\ x_6 := \text{rem}(x_5, x_4) \end{cases}$$

*returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_6$  if and only if  $x \in \{4\} \cup \{p! + 1 : p \in \mathcal{P}\} \cap \mathcal{P}$*

*Proof.* For an integer  $i \in \{1, \dots, 6\}$ , let  $B_i$  denote the set of positive integers  $x$  such that the first  $i$  instructions of the program  $\mathcal{B}$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_i$ . Since the programs  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  have the same first four instructions, the equality  $B_i = A_i$  holds for every  $i \in \{1, \dots, 4\}$ . In particular,

$$B_4 = \{4\} \cup \{n! + 1 : n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\} \cap \mathcal{P}$$

We show that

$$B_6 = \{4\} \cup \{p! + 1 : p \in \mathcal{P}\} \cap \mathcal{P} \quad (5)$$

If  $x = 4$ , then  $x_1, \dots, x_6 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ . Hence,  $4 \in B_6$ . Let  $x \in \mathcal{P}$ , and let  $x = n! + 1$ , where  $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ . Hence,  $n \neq 4$ . Lemma 22 implies that  $x_3 = \text{rem}(\Gamma(x), x) = x - 1 = n!$ . Hence,  $x_4 = \text{fact}^{-1}(x_3) = n$  and  $x_5 = \Gamma(x_4) = \Gamma(n) \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ . By Lemma 21, the term  $x_6$  (which equals  $\text{rem}(\Gamma(n), n)$ ) belongs to  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  if and only if  $n \in \{4\} \cup \mathcal{P}$ . This proves equality (5) as  $n \neq 4$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 25.** *The statement  $\Omega_6$  implies that for infinitely many primes  $p$  the number  $p! + 1$  is prime.*

*Proof.* The numbers 11 and  $11! + 1$  are prime, see [2, p. 441] and [24]. By Lemma 25, for  $x = 11! + 1$  the program  $\mathcal{B}$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_6$ . Since  $x = 11! + 1 > 6! = \delta(6)$ , the statement  $\Omega_6$  guarantees that the program  $\mathcal{B}$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_6$  for infinitely many positive integers  $x$ . By Lemma 25, for infinitely many primes  $p$  the number  $p! + 1$  is prime.  $\square$

**Lemma 26.** *For every positive integer  $x$ , the following program  $\mathcal{C}$*

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_1 := x \\ x_2 := \Gamma(x_1) \\ x_3 := \Gamma(x_2) \\ x_4 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_3) \\ x_5 := \Gamma(x_4) \\ x_6 := \text{rem}(x_5, x_4) \end{array} \right.$$

*returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_6$  if and only if  $(x - 1)! - 1$  is prime.*

*Proof.* For an integer  $i \in \{1, \dots, 6\}$ , let  $C_i$  denote the set of positive integers  $x$  such that the first  $i$  instructions of the program  $\mathcal{C}$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_i$ . If  $x \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ , then  $x_6 = 0$ . Therefore,  $C_6 \subseteq \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ . By Lemma 24, for every integer  $x \geq 4$ ,  $x_4 = (x - 1)! - 1$ ,  $x_5 = \Gamma((x - 1)! - 1)$ , and  $x_1, \dots, x_5 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ . By Lemma 21, for every integer  $x \geq 4$ ,

$$x_6 = \text{rem}(\Gamma((x - 1)! - 1), (x - 1)! - 1)$$

belongs to  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  if and only if  $(x - 1)! - 1 \in \{4\} \cup \mathcal{P}$ . The last condition equivalently expresses that  $(x - 1)! - 1$  is prime as  $(x - 1)! - 1 \geq 5$  for every integer  $x \geq 4$ . Hence,

$$C_6 = (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2, 3\}) \cap \{x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2, 3\} : (x - 1)! - 1 \in \mathcal{P}\} = \{x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} : (x - 1)! - 1 \in \mathcal{P}\}$$

$\square$

It is conjectured that there are infinitely many primes of the form  $n! - 1$ , see [2, p. 443] and [23].

**Theorem 26.** *The statement  $\Omega_6$  implies that there are infinitely many primes of the form  $x! - 1$ .*

*Proof.* The number  $(975 - 1)! - 1$  is prime, see [2, p. 441] and [23]. By Lemma 26, for  $x = 975$  the program  $\mathcal{C}$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_6$ . Since  $x = 975 > 720 = \delta(6)$ , the statement  $\Omega_6$  guarantees that the program  $\mathcal{C}$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_6$  for infinitely many positive integers  $x$ . By Lemma 26, the set  $\{x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} : (x - 1)! - 1 \in \mathcal{P}\}$  is infinite.  $\square$

**Lemma 27.** *For every positive integer  $x$ , the following program  $\mathcal{D}$*

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_1 := x \\ x_2 := \Gamma(x_1) \\ x_3 := \text{rem}(x_2, x_1) \\ x_4 := \Gamma(x_3) \\ x_5 := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_4) \\ x_6 := \Gamma(x_5) \\ x_7 := \text{rem}(x_6, x_5) \end{array} \right.$$

*returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_7$  if and only if both  $x$  and  $x - 2$  are prime.*

*Proof.* For an integer  $i \in \{1, \dots, 7\}$ , let  $D_i$  denote the set of positive integers  $x$  such that the first  $i$  instructions of the program  $\mathcal{D}$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_i$ . If  $x = 1$ , then  $x_3 = 0$ . Hence,  $D_7 \subseteq D_3 \subseteq \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$ . If  $x \in \{2, 3, 4\}$ , then  $x_7 = 0$ . Therefore,

$$D_7 \subseteq (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}) \cap (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 2, 3, 4\}) = \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

By Lemma 21, for every integer  $x \geq 5$ , the term  $x_3$  (which equals  $\text{rem}(\Gamma(x), x)$ ) belongs to  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  if and only if  $x \in \mathcal{P} \setminus \{2, 3\}$ . By Lemma 22, for every  $x \in \mathcal{P} \setminus \{2, 3\}$ ,  $x_3 = x - 1 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ . By Lemma 24, for every  $x \in \mathcal{P} \setminus \{2, 3\}$ , the terms  $x_4$  and  $x_5$  belong to  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  and  $x_5 = x_3 - 1 = x - 2$ . By Lemma 21, for every  $x \in \mathcal{P} \setminus \{2, 3\}$ , the term  $x_7$  (which equals  $\text{rem}(\Gamma(x_5), x_5)$ ) belongs to  $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  if and only if  $x_5 = x - 2 \in \{4\} \cup \mathcal{P}$ . From these facts, we obtain that

$$D_7 = (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}) \cap (\mathcal{P} \setminus \{2, 3\}) \cap (\{6\} \cup \{p + 2 : p \in \mathcal{P}\}) = \{p \in \mathcal{P} : p - 2 \in \mathcal{P}\}$$

□

**Theorem 27.** *The statement  $\Omega_7$  implies that there are infinitely many twin primes.*

*Proof.* Harvey Dubner proved that the numbers  $459 \cdot 2^{8529} - 1$  and  $459 \cdot 2^{8529} + 1$  are prime, see [30, p. 87]. By Lemma 27, for  $x = 459 \cdot 2^{8529} + 1$  the program  $\mathcal{D}$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_7$ . Since  $x > 720! = \delta(7)$ , the statement  $\Omega_7$  guarantees that the program  $\mathcal{D}$  returns positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_7$  for infinitely many positive integers  $x$ . By Lemma 27, there are infinitely many twin primes. □

We can transform every program of length  $n$  into a computer program with  $n$  instructions which for every  $x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$  mathematically does the same if  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^n$ , and never halts if  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \notin (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^n$  or the tuple  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is undefined. To do so, we perform the following steps:

a) We replace the instruction  $x_1 := x$  by the following instruction:

$$x_1 := x \ \& \ \text{PRINT}(x_1)$$

b) We replace every instruction of the form  $x_i = \Gamma(x_{i-1})$  by the following instruction:

$$x_i := \Gamma(x_{i-1}) \ \& \ \text{PRINT}(x_i)$$

c) We replace every instruction of the form  $x_i := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_{i-1})$  by the following instruction:

$$\text{IF } \text{fact}^{-1}(x_{i-1}) \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \ \text{THEN } x_i := \text{fact}^{-1}(x_{i-1}) \ \& \ \text{PRINT}(x_i) \ \text{ELSE GOTO Instruction 1}$$

d) We replace every instruction of the form  $x_i := \text{rem}(x_{i-1}, x_{i-2})$  by the following instruction:

$$\text{IF } \text{rem}(x_{i-1}, x_{i-2}) \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \ \text{THEN } x_i := \text{rem}(x_{i-1}, x_{i-2}) \ \& \ \text{PRINT}(x_i) \ \text{ELSE GOTO Instruction 1}$$

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