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

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Abstract

Let $\Gamma_{\underline{n}}(k)$ denote (k-1)!, where $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$ and $k \in \{2\} \cup \{2^{2^{n-3}} + 1, 2^{2^{n-3}} + 2, 2^{2^{n-3}} + 3, ...\}$. For an integer $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$, let Σ_n denote the following statement: if a system of equations $S \subseteq \{\Gamma_{\underline{n}}(x_i) = x_k : i, k \in \{1, ..., n\}\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, ..., n\}\}$ has only finitely many solutions in positive integers $x_1, ..., x_n$, then each such solution $(x_1, ..., x_n)$ satisfies $x_1, ..., x_n \in 2^{2^{n-2}}$. The statement Σ_6 proves the following implication: if the equation x(x + 1) = y! has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x and y, then each such solution (x, y) belongs to the set $\{(1, 2), (2, 3)\}$. The statement Σ_6 proves the following implication: if the equation $x! + 1 = y^2$ has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x and y, then each such solution (x, y) belongs to the set $\{(4, 5), (5, 11), (7, 71)\}$. The statement Σ_9 implies the infinitude of primes of the form $n^2 + 1$. The statement Σ_9 implies the infinitude of twin primes. The statement Σ_{16} implies the infinitude of Sophie Germain primes. A modified statement Σ_7 implies the infinitude of Wilson primes.

Key words and phrases: Brocard's problem, Brocard-Ramanujan equation $x! + 1 = y^2$, composite Fermat numbers, Erdös' equation x(x + 1) = y!, prime numbers of the form $n^2 + 1$, prime numbers of the form n! + 1, Richert's lemma, Sophie Germain primes, Wilson primes, twin prime conjecture.

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1 Introduction

We consider sets $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ for which we know an algorithm that computes a threshold number $t(X) \in \mathbb{N}$ such that X is infinite if and only if X contains an element greater than t(X), cf. [35]. We assume here that the sets $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ are defined by formulae in the language of ZF whereas the algorithm that computes t(X) is written specifically for X. If a set $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is empty or infinite, then any non-negative integer *m* is a threshold number of X. If a set $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is non-empty and finite, then the all threshold numbers of X form the set $\{\max(X), \max(X) + 1, \max(X) + 2, \ldots\}$.

2 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 1. ([4, p. 35]). There exists a polynomial $D(x_1, ..., x_m)$ with integer coefficients such that if ZFC is arithmetically consistent, then the sentences "The equation $D(x_1, ..., x_m) = 0$ is solvable in non-negative integers" and "The equation $D(x_1, ..., x_m) = 0$ is not solvable in non-negative integers" are not provable in ZFC.

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, we know an algorithm which for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ decides whether or not $n \in \mathcal{Y}$. Let $\gamma \colon \mathbb{N}^{m+1} \to \mathbb{N}$ be a computable bijection, and let $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathbb{N}^{m+1}$ be the solution set of the equation $D(x_1, \ldots, x_m) + 0 \cdot x_{m+1} = 0$. 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.

In Figure 1, $D(x_1, ..., x_m)$ 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, card(\mathcal{K}) = 1.

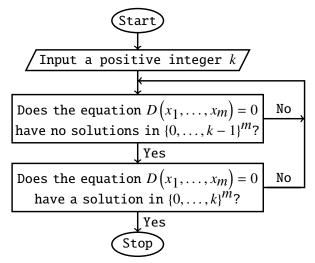


Fig. 1 The algorithm which may halt only when ZFC is inconsistent

Theorem 4. If ZFC is consistent, then for every positive integer n, the inclusion $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \{1, ..., n\}$ is not provable in ZFC.

Proof. It follows from Gödel's second incompleteness theorem because the inclusion $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \{1, ..., n\}$ implies $\mathcal{K} = \emptyset$ and the consistency of *ZFC*.

Theorem 5. (cf. Theorem 29). If ZFC is consistent and a computer program halts for at most finitely many positive integers k on the input, then not always we can write the decimal expansion of a positive integer n which is not smaller than every such number k.

Proof. We write a computer program which implements the algorithm in Figure 1. This program halts exactly for elements of \mathcal{K} on the input. The set \mathcal{K} is finite as $card(\mathcal{K}) \leq 1$. By Theorem 4, if *ZFC* is consistent, then for every positive integer *n*, the inclusion $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \{1, ..., n\}$ is not provable in *ZFC*. \Box

3 Hypothetical statements $\Psi_3, \ldots, \Psi_{16}$ and number-theoretic 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 $n \ge 2$. Let h(1) = 1, and let $h(n+1) = 2^{2h(n)}$ for every positive integer *n*. Let g(3) = 4, and let g(n+1) = g(n)! for every integer $n \ge 3$. 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 2 illustrates the construction of the system \mathcal{U}_n .

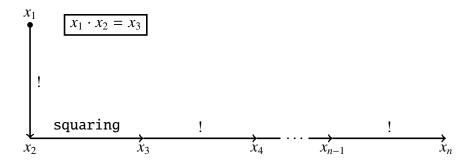


Fig. 2 Construction of the system \mathcal{U}_n

Lemma 1. For every integer $n \ge 3$, 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

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

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

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

Theorem 6. Every statement Ψ_n is true with an unknown integer bound that depends on n.

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

Theorem 7. For every statement Ψ_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

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

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

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

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

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

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 $x \in \{1\} \cup \mathcal{P}$.

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4 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. ([30, p. 109]. If a system $S \subseteq G_n$ has only finitely many solutions in non-negative integers x_1, \ldots, x_n , then each such solution (x_1, \ldots, x_n) satisfies $x_1, \ldots, x_n \leq h(2n)$.

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

Observations 1 and 2 heuristically justify Hypothesis 3.

Observation 1. (cf. [30, p. 110, Observation 1]). For every system $S \subseteq G_n$ which involves all the variables x_1, \ldots, x_n , the following new system

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

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

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 $n \ge 3$, 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, ..., 1) and (f(1), ..., f(n)).

For a positive integer *n*, let Φ_n denote the following statement: *if a system*

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

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

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 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 [22, pp. 2–3] and [13, pp. 3–4]. The following result strengthens Skolem's theorem.

Lemma 7. ([28, p. 720]). Let $D(x_1, ..., x_p) \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, ..., x_p]$. Assume that deg $(D, x_i) \ge 1$ for each $i \in \{1, ..., p\}$. We can compute a positive integer n > p and a system $T \subseteq E_n$ which satisfies the following two conditions:

Condition 1. If $K \in \mathcal{R}ng \cup \{\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\}$, then

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

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

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

Let α , β , and γ denote variables.

Lemma 8. ([20, 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 1. 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:

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

Lemma 9. (cf. [30, p. 110, Lemma 4]). Let $D(x_1, ..., x_p) \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, ..., x_p]$. Assume that $\deg(D, x_i) \ge 1$ for each $i \in \{1, ..., p\}$. 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 $\tilde{x}_1, \ldots, \tilde{x}_p$,

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

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

Conditions 3 and 4 imply that the equation $D(x_1, ..., x_p) = 0$ 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 1 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 ([15]) implies a negative answer to Open Problem 1, see [14, 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 [12, p. 300].

5 The Brocard-Ramanujan equation $x! + 1 = y^2$

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

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

Lemma 2 and the diagram in Figure 3 explain the construction of the system \mathcal{A} .

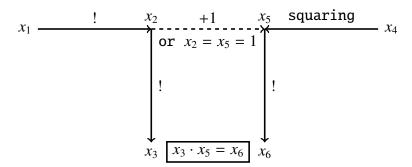


Fig. 3 Construction of the system \mathcal{A}

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:

$$x_{2} = x_{1}!$$

$$x_{3} = (x_{1}!)!$$

$$x_{5} = x_{1}! + 1$$

$$x_{6} = (x_{1}! + 1)!$$

Proof. It follows from Lemma 2.

It is conjectured that x! + 1 is a perfect square only for $x \in \{4, 5, 7\}$, see [31, 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 Ψ_6 guarantees that each such solution (x_1, x_4) belongs to the set {(4, 5), (5, 11), (7, 71)}.

Proof. Suppose that the antecedent holds. Let positive integers x_1 and x_4 satisfy $x_1! + 1 = x_4^2$. Then, $x_1, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$. By Lemma 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 Ψ_6 implies that $x_6 = (x_1! + 1)! \leq g(6) = g(5)!$. Hence, $x_1! + 1 \leq g(5) = g(4)!$. Consequently, $x_1 < g(4) = 24$. If $x_1 \in \{1, \dots, 23\}$, then $x_1! + 1$ is a perfect square only for $x_1 \in \{4, 5, 7\}$.

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

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

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\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}
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Lemma 2 and the diagram in Figure 4 explain the construction of the system \mathcal{B} .

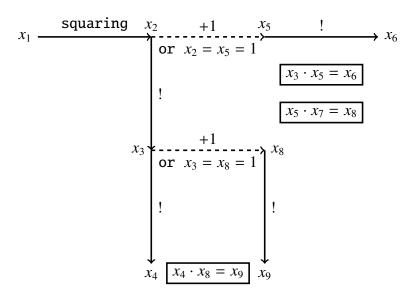


Fig. 4 Construction of the system \mathcal{B}

Lemma 11. For every integer $x_1 \ge 2$, 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:

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

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 11 follows from Lemma 6.

Lemma 12. 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, $x_9 = x_8! \leq 2$.

Edmund Landau's conjecture states that there are infinitely many primes of the form $n^2 + 1$, see [16, pp. 37–38].

Theorem 11. The statement Ψ_9 proves the following implication: if there exists an integer $x_1 \ge 2$ such that $x_1^2 + 1$ is prime and greater than g(7), then there are infinitely many primes of the form $n^2 + 1$.

Proof. Suppose that the antecedent holds. By Lemma 11, there exists a unique tuple $(x_2, \ldots, x_9) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^8$ such that the tuple (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_9) solves the system \mathcal{B} . Since $x_1^2 + 1 > g(7)$, we obtain that $x_1^2 \ge g(7)$. Hence, $(x_1^2)! \ge g(7)! = g(8)$. Consequently,

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

Since $\mathcal{B} \subseteq B_9$, the statement Ψ_9 and the inequality $x_9 > g(9)$ imply that the system \mathcal{B} has infinitely many solutions $(x_1, \ldots, x_9) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^9$. According to Lemmas 11 and 12, there are infinitely many primes of the form $n^2 + 1$.

7 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] and [23].

Theorem 12. (cf. Theorem 17). The statement Ψ_9 proves the following implication: if there exists an integer $x_1 \ge g(6)$ such that $x_1! + 1$ is prime, then there are infinitely many primes of the form n! + 1.

Proof. We leave the analogous proof to the reader.

8 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 [16, p. 39]. Let C denote the following system of equations:

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

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

$$x_{2} \cdot x_{4} = x_{5}$$

$$x_{5}$$

$$x_{7} \cdot x_{9} = x_{10}$$

$$x_{10}$$

$$x_{11} = x_{12}$$

$$x_{12}$$

$$x_{11} = x_{12}$$

$$x_{12}$$

$$x_{12}$$

$$x_{13}$$

$$x_{13}$$

$$x_{13}$$

$$x_{10}$$

$$x_{10} = x_{10}$$

$$x_{10}$$

$$x_{10}$$

$$x_{10}$$

$$x_{10}$$

$$x_{10}$$

$$x_{10}$$

$$x_{10}$$

$$x_{10}$$

$$x_{10}$$

$$x_{11} = x_{12}$$

$$x_{11}$$

$$x_{12}$$

$$x_{12}$$

$$x_{13}$$

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:

$$x_{1} = x_{4} - 1$$

$$x_{2} = (x_{4} - 1)!$$

$$x_{3} = ((x_{4} - 1)!)!$$

$$x_{5} = x_{4}!$$

$$x_{6} = x_{9} - 1$$

$$x_{7} = (x_{9} - 1)!$$

$$x_{8} = ((x_{9} - 1)!)!$$

$$x_{10} = x_{9}!$$

$$x_{11} = \frac{(x_{4} - 1)! + 1}{x_{4}}$$

$$x_{12} = (x_{4} - 1)! + 1$$

$$x_{13} = ((x_{4} - 1)! + 1)!$$

$$x_{14} = \frac{(x_{9} - 1)! + 1}{x_{9}}$$

$$x_{15} = (x_{9} - 1)! + 1$$

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 13 follows from Lemma 6.

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

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

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 $x_1, \ldots, x_{16} \le 7!$. Indeed, for example, if $x_4 = 2$ then $x_6 = x_4 + 1 = 3$. Hence, $x_7 = x_6! = 6$. Therefore, $x_{15} = x_7 + 1 = 7$. Consequently, $x_{16} = x_{15}! = 7!$.

Theorem 13. The statement Ψ_{16} proves the following implication: (*) if there exists a twin prime greater than g(14), then there are infinitely many twin primes.

Proof. Suppose that the antecedent holds. Then, there exist prime numbers x_4 and x_9 such that $x_9 = x_4 + 2 > g(14)$. Hence, $x_4, x_9 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2\}$. By Lemma 13, there exists a unique tuple $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_8, x_{10}, x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{13}, x_{14}, x_{15}, x_{16}) \in (\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\})^{14}$ such that the tuple (x_1, \dots, x_{16}) solves the system *C*. Since $x_9 > g(14)$, we obtain that $x_9 - 1 \ge g(14)$. Therefore, $(x_9 - 1)! \ge g(14)! = g(15)$. Hence, $(x_9 - 1)! + 1 > g(15)$. Consequently,

$$x_{16} = ((x_9 - 1)! + 1)! > g(15)! = g(16)$$

Since $C \subseteq B_{16}$, the statement Ψ_{16} and the inequality $x_{16} > g(16)$ imply that the system *C* has infinitely many solutions in positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_{16} . According to Lemmas 13 and 14, there are infinitely many twin primes.

Let $\mathbb{P}(x)$ denote the predicate "*x* is a prime number". Dickson's conjecture ([16, p. 36], [33, p. 109]) implies that the existential theory of $(\mathbb{N}, =, +, \mathbb{P})$ is decidable, see [33, Theorem 2, p. 109]. For a positive integer *n*, let Θ_n denote the following statement: for every system $S \subseteq \{x_i + 1 = x_k : i, k \in \{1, ..., n\}\} \cup \{\mathbb{P}(x_i) : i \in \{1, ..., n\}\}$ the solvability of *S* in non-negative integers is decidable.

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

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

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

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

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

If sentence (1) is false, then the twin prime conjecture is false. If sentence (1) is true, then there exists a twin prime greater than g(14). In this case, the twin prime conjecture follows from Theorem 13.

9 Hypothetical statements $\Delta_5, \ldots, \Delta_{14}$ about the Gamma function 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 6 explain the construction of the system \mathcal{J}_n .

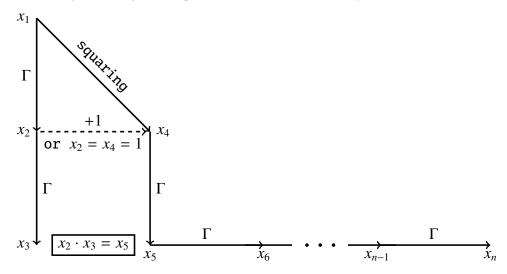


Fig. 6 Construction of the system \mathcal{J}_n

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

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

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

Lemmas 3 and 6 imply that the statements Δ_n have similar consequences as the statements Ψ_n .

Theorem 15. The statement Δ_6 implies that any prime number $p \ge 25$ proves the infinitude of primes.

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

10 Hypothetical statements $\Sigma_3, \ldots, \Sigma_{16}$ about the Gamma function and their consequences

Let $\Gamma_{[n]}(k)$ denote (k-1)!, where $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$ and $k \in \{2\} \cup \{2^{2^{n-3}} + 1, 2^{2^{n-3}} + 2, 2^{2^{n-3}} + 3, ...\}$. 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:

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

Lemma 16. For every integer $n \in \{3, ..., 16\}$, $P_n \subseteq Q_n$ and the system P_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 Σ_n denote the following statement: if a system of equations $S \subseteq Q_n$ has only finitely many solutions in positive integers $x_1, ..., x_n$, then each such solution $(x_1, ..., x_n)$ satisfies $x_1, ..., x_n \leq 2^{2^{n-2}}$.

Hypothesis 5. *The statements* $\Sigma_3, \ldots, \Sigma_{16}$ *are true.*

Lemma 17. (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 $Z_9 \subseteq Q_9$ be the system of equations in Figure 7.

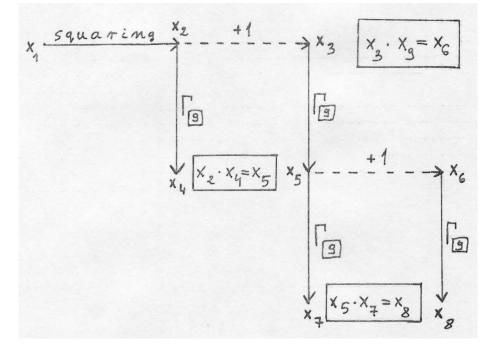


Fig. 7 Construction of the system Z_9

Lemma 18. For every positive integer x_1 , the system 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 .

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 6 and 17.

On sets $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ for which we know an algorithm ...

Lemma 19. ([26]). The number $(13!)^2 + 1 = 38775788043632640001$ is prime.

Lemma 20.
$$((13!)^2 \ge 2^{2^{9-3}} + 1 = 18446744073709551617) \land (\Gamma_{9}((13!)^2) > 2^{2^{9-2}})$$

Theorem 16. The statement Σ_9 implies the infinitude of primes of the form $n^2 + 1$.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 18-20.

Theorem 17. (cf. Theorem 12). The statement Σ_9 implies that any prime of the form n! + 1 with $n \ge 2^{2^{9-3}}$ proves the infinitude of primes of the form n! + 1.

Proof. We leave the proof to the reader.

Let $Z_{14} \subseteq Q_{14}$ be the system of equations in Figure 8.

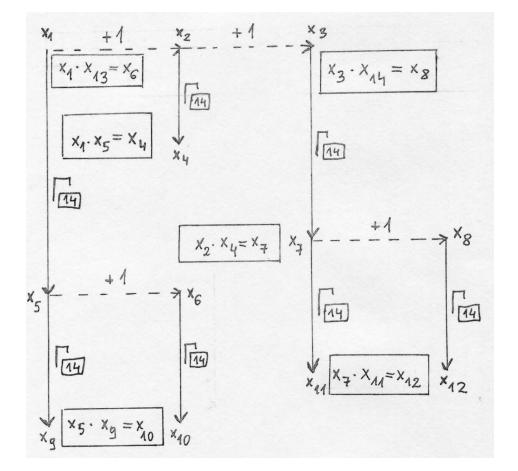


Fig. 8 Construction of the system Z_{14}

Lemma 21. For every positive integer x_1 , the system 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 .

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 6 and 17.

Lemma 22. ([34, p. 87]). The numbers $459 \cdot 2^{8529} - 1$ and $459 \cdot 2^{8529} + 1$ are prime (Harvey Dubner). **Lemma 23.** $459 \cdot 2^{8529} - 1 > 2^{2^{14-2}} = 2^{4096}$.

Theorem 18. The statement Σ_{14} implies the infinitude of twin primes.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 21–23.

13

A prime *p* is said to be a Sophie Germain prime if both *p* and 2p + 1 are prime, see [32]. Let $Z_{16} \subseteq Q_{16}$ be the system of equations in Figure 9.

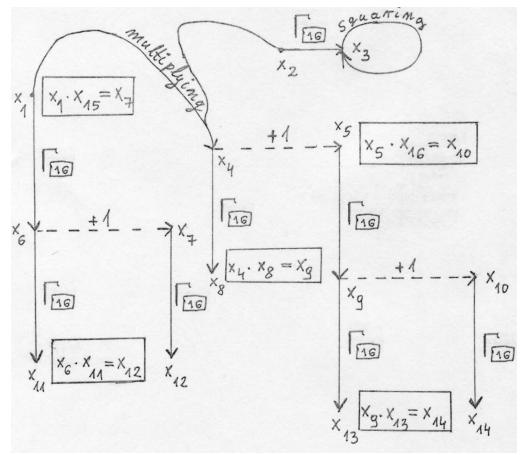


Fig. 9 Construction of the system Z_{16}

Lemma 24. 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 .

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 6 and 17.

Lemma 25. ([18, p. 330]). $8069496435 \cdot 10^{5072} - 1$ is a Sophie Germain prime (Harvey Dubner).

Lemma 26. $8069496435 \cdot 10^{5072} - 1 > 2^{2^{16-2}}$

Theorem 19. The statement Σ_{16} implies the infinitude of Sophie Germain primes.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 24-26.

Theorem 20. The statement Σ_6 proves the following implication: if the equation x(x + 1) = y! has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x and y, then each such solution (x, y) belongs to the set $\{(1, 2), (2, 3)\}$.

Proof. We leave the proof to the reader.

The question of solving the equation x(x + 1) = y! was posed by P. Erdös, see [1]. F. Luca proved that the *abc* conjecture implies that the equation x(x + 1) = y! has only finitely many solutions in positive integers, see [11].

Theorem 21. The statement Σ_6 proves the following implication: if the equation $x! + 1 = y^2$ has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x and y, then each such solution (x, y) belongs to the set $\{(4, 5), (5, 11), (7, 71)\}$.

Proof. We leave the proof to the reader.

11 A hypothesis which implies the infinitude of Wilson primes

Let

$$\mathcal{V}_7 = \{\Gamma_5(x_i) = x_k : i, k \in \{1, \dots, 7\}\} \cup \{x_i \cdot x_j = x_k : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, 7\}\}$$

Let I_7 denote the following system of equations:

 $\begin{cases} x_1 \cdot x_1 &= x_1 \\ \Gamma_{5}(x_2) &= x_1 \\ x_2 \cdot x_2 &= x_3 \\ x_3 \cdot x_3 &= x_4 \\ x_4 \cdot x_4 &= x_5 \\ \Gamma_{5}(x_5) &= x_6 \\ \Gamma_{5}(x_6) &= x_7 \end{cases}$

Lemma 27. $I_7 \subseteq V_7$ and the system I_7 has exactly one solution in positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_7 , namely (1, 2, 4, 16, 256, 255!, (255! - 1)!).

Let Ξ_7 denote the following statement: if a system of equations $S \subseteq V_7$ has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_7 , then each such solution (x_1, \ldots, x_7) satisfies $x_1, \ldots, x_7 \leq (255! - 1)!$.

Hypothesis 6. The statement Ξ_7 is true.

Lemma 28. (cf. Lemma 3). For every positive integers x and y, $x \cdot \Gamma_{5}(x) = \Gamma_{5}(y)$ if and only if $(x + 1 = y) \land (x \ge 17)$.

A Wilson prime is a prime number p such that p^2 divides (p-1)! + 1, see [2], [18, p. 346], and [27]. It is conjectured that the set of Wilson primes is infinite, see [2]. Let $Z_7 \subseteq V_7$ be the system of equations in Figure 10.

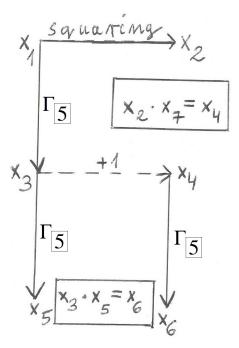


Fig. 10 Construction of the system Z_7

Lemma 29. For every positive integer x_1 , the system \mathbb{Z}_7 is solvable in positive integers x_2, \ldots, x_7 if and only if x_1 is a Wilson prime prime and $x_1 \ge 17$. In this case, positive integers x_2, \ldots, x_7 are uniquely determined by x_1 .

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 6 and 28.

Lemma 30. ([2], [18, p. 346], [27]). 563 is a Wilson prime.

Lemma 31.
$$\Gamma_{5}(\Gamma_{5}(563) + 1) > (255! - 1)!$$

Theorem 22. The statement Ξ_7 implies the infinitude of Wilson primes.

Proof. It follows from Lemmas 29–31.

Let $\widehat{\Xi_7}$ denote the following statement: if a system of equations

$$S \subseteq \{\Gamma_{6}(x_{i}) = x_{k} : i, k \in \{1, \dots, 7\}\} \cup \{x_{i} \cdot x_{j} = x_{k} : i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, 7\}\}$$

has only finitely many solutions in positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_7 , then each such solution (x_1, \ldots, x_7) satisfies $x_1, \ldots, x_7 \leq (256^2 - 1)!$.

Theorem 23. The statement $\widehat{\Xi_7}$ implies the infinitude of Wilson primes.

Proof. We leave the analogous proof to the reader.

12 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 $n \ge 5$, see [9, p. 23].

Theorem 24. ([29]). An unproven inequality stated in [29] implies that $2^{2^n} + 1$ is composite for every integer $n \ge 5$.

Let

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

Lemma 32. 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 Γ_n denote the following statement: if a system $S \subseteq H_n$ 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 Γ_n says that for subsystems of H_n the largest known solution is indeed the largest possible.

Hypothesis 7. The statements $\Gamma_1, \ldots, \Gamma_{13}$ 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 [12, p. 300].

Theorem 25. Every statement Γ_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 26. The statement Γ_{13} proves the following implication: if $z \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ and $2^{2^{z}} + 1$ is composite and greater than h(12), then $2^{2^{z}} + 1$ is composite for infinitely many positive integers z.

Proof. Let us consider the equation

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

in positive integers. By Lemma 5, we can transform equation (2) 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 11.

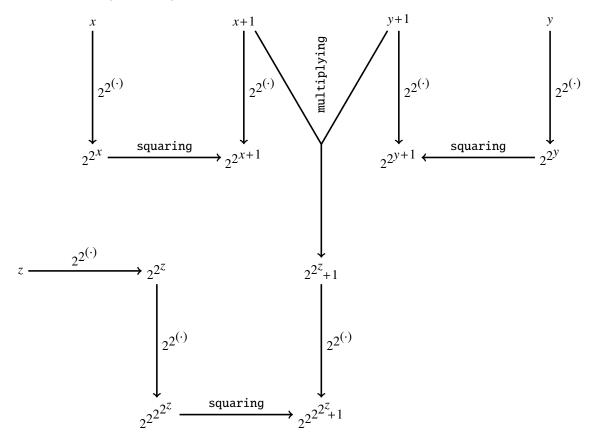


Fig. 11 Construction of the system G

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

13 Subsets of N whose infinitude is unconditionally equivalent to the halting of a Turing machine

The following lemma is known as Richert's lemma.

Lemma 33. ([6], [19], [21, 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, ..., $b + m_{k+1}$ are all expressible as sums of one or more distinct elements of the set $\{m_1, \ldots, m_k\}$. Then every integer greater than b is expressible as a sum of one or more distinct elements of the set $\{m_1, m_2, m_3, \ldots\}$.

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

Corollary 2. If the sequence $\{m_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is computable and the algorithm in Figure 12 terminates, then almost all positive integers are expressible as a sum of one or more distinct elements of the set $\{m_1, m_2, m_3, \ldots\}$. In particular, if the sequence $\{m_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is computable and the algorithm in Figure 12 terminates, then the set \mathcal{T} is infinite. In this case, the algorithm is Figure 12 prints all positive integers which are not expressible as a sum of one or more distinct elements of the set $\{m_1, m_2, m_3, \ldots\}$.

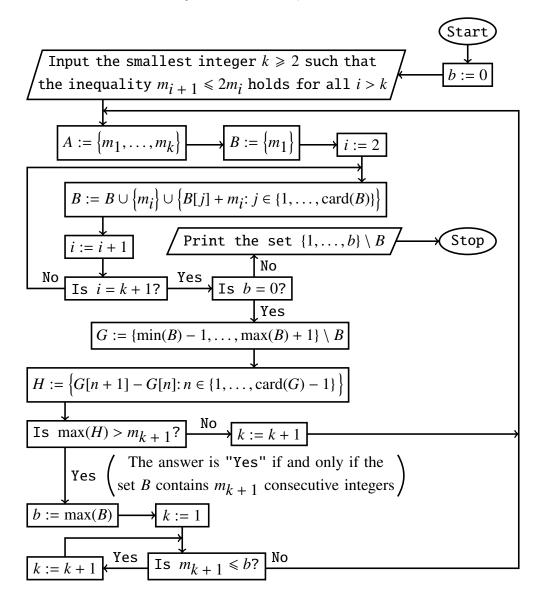


Fig. 12 The algorithm which uses Richert's lemma

Theorem 27. ([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 12 terminates if and only if almost all positive integers are expressible as a sum of one or more distinct elements of the set $\{m_1, m_2, m_3, \ldots\}$.

Corollary 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 12 terminates if and only if the set \mathcal{T} is infinite.

We show how the algorithm in Figure 12 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 $m_i = [t_i]$.

On sets $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ for which we know an algorithm ...

Lemma 34. The inequality $m_{i+1} \leq 2m_i$ holds for every positive integer *i*.

Proof. For every positive integer *i*,

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

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

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

Theorem 28. The algorithm in Figure 12 terminates for the sequence $\{m_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$.

Proof. By Lemma 34, 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 12 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,
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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 4. $\mathcal{T} = [2762, \infty) \cap \mathbb{N}$.

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.

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

Let fact⁻¹: {1, 2, 6, 24, ...} $\rightarrow \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ denote the inverse function to the factorial function. For positive integers *x* and *y*, let 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, \ldots, x_n such that x_1 is defined as the variable x, and for every integer $i \in \{2, \ldots, n\}$, x_i is defined as $\Gamma(x_{i-1})$, or fact⁻¹(x_{i-1}), or rem(x_{i-1}, x_{i-2}) – but only if $i \ge 3$ 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 $n \ge 4$. For an integer $n \ge 4$, let Ω_n denote the following statement: if a program of length *n* returns positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_n for at most finitely many positive integers *x*, then every such *x* does not exceed $\delta(n)$.

Theorem 29. (cf. Theorem 5). For every integer $n \ge 4$, the statement Ω_n is true with an unknown integer bound that depends on n.

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

Lemma 35. ([21, pp. 214–215]) . For every positive integer x, $\operatorname{rem}(\Gamma(x), x) \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ if and only if $x \in \{4\} \cup \mathcal{P}$.

Theorem 30. For every integer $n \ge 4$ and for every positive integer x, the following program \mathcal{H}_n

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

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

Proof. We make three observations.

Observation 4. If $x_{n-3} = 3$, then $x_1, ..., x_{n-3} \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ and $x = x_1 = \delta(n)$. If $x = \delta(n)$, then $x_1, ..., x_{n-3} \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ and $x_{n-3} = 3$. Hence, $x_{n-2} = \Gamma(x_{n-3}) = 2$ and $x_{n-1} = \Gamma(x_{n-2}) = 1$. Therefore, $x_n = \operatorname{rem}(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}) = 1$.

Observation 5. If $x_{n-3} = 2$, then $x = x_1 = \ldots = x_{n-3} = 2$. If x = 2, then $x_1 = \ldots = x_{n-3} = 2$. Hence, $x_{n-2} = \Gamma(x_{n-3}) = 1$ and $x_{n-1} = \Gamma(x_{n-2}) = 1$. Therefore, $x_n = \operatorname{rem}(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}) = 0 \notin \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$.

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

Observations 4–6 cover the case when $x_{n-3} \in \{1, 2, 3\}$. If $x_{n-3} \ge 4$, then $x_{n-2} = \Gamma(x_{n-3})$ is greater than 4 and composite. By Lemma 35, $x_n = \operatorname{rem}(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}) = \operatorname{rem}(\Gamma(x_{n-2}), x_{n-2}) = 0 \notin \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$.

Corollary 5. For every integer $n \ge 4$, the bound $\delta(n)$ in the statement Ω_n cannot be decreased.

Lemma 36. If $x \in \mathcal{P}$, then rem $(\Gamma(x), x) = x - 1$.

Proof. It follows from Lemma 6.

Lemma 37. For every positive integer x, the following program \mathcal{A}

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

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

Proof. For an integer $i \in \{1, ..., 4\}$, let A_i denote the set of positive integers x such that the first *i* instructions of the program \mathcal{A} returns positive integers $x_1, ..., x_i$. 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 35, the term x_3 (which equals 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 $x_1, \ldots, x_4 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. Hence, $4 \in A_4$. If $x \in \mathcal{P}$, then Lemma 36 implies that $x_3 = \operatorname{rem}(\Gamma(x), x) = x - 1 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. Therefore, for every $x \in \mathcal{P}$, the term $x_4 = \operatorname{fact}^{-1}(x_3)$ 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 31. The statement Ω_4 implies that the set of primes of the form n! + 1 is infinite.

Proof. The number 3! + 1 = 7 is prime. By Lemma 37, for x = 7 the program \mathcal{A} returns positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_4 . Since $x = 7 > 3 = \delta(4)$, the statement Ω_4 guarantees that the program \mathcal{A} returns positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_4 for infinitely many positive integers x. By Lemma 37, there are infinitely many primes of the form n! + 1.

Lemma 38. If $x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$, then fact⁻¹($\Gamma(x)$) = x - 1.

Theorem 32. If the set of primes of the form n! + 1 is infinite, then the statement Ω_4 is true.

Proof. There exist exactly 10 programs of length 4 that differ from \mathcal{H}_4 and \mathcal{A} , see Figure 13. 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, \ldots, x_4 on input x. We omit 10 easy proofs which use Lemmas 35 and 38. The sets S_i are infinite, see Figure 13.

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

Fig. 13 12 programs of length 4, $x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$

This completes the proof.

Hypothesis 8. The statements $\Omega_4, \ldots, \Omega_7$ are true.

Lemma 39. For every positive integer x, the following program \mathcal{B}

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

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

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

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

We show that

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

If x = 4, then $x_1, \ldots, x_6 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. 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 36 implies that $x_3 = \operatorname{rem}(\Gamma(x), x) = x - 1 = n!$. Hence, $x_4 = \operatorname{fact}^{-1}(x_3) = n$ and $x_5 = \Gamma(x_4) = \Gamma(n) \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. By Lemma 35, the term x_6 (which equals $\operatorname{rem}(\Gamma(n), n)$) belongs to $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ if and only if $n \in \{4\} \cup \mathcal{P}$. This proves equality (5) as $n \neq 4$.

Theorem 33. The statement Ω_6 implies that for infinitely many primes p the number p! + 1 is prime.

Proof. The numbers 11 and 11! + 1 are prime, see [3, p. 441] and [25]. By Lemma 39, for x = 11! + 1 the program \mathcal{B} returns positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_6 . Since $x = 11! + 1 > 6! = \delta(6)$, the statement Ω_6 guarantees that the program \mathcal{B} returns positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_6 for infinitely many positive integers x. By Lemma 39, for infinitely many primes p the number p! + 1 is prime.

Lemma 40. For every positive integer x, the following program C

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

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

Proof. For an integer $i \in \{1, ..., 6\}$, let C_i denote the set of positive integers x such that the first i instructions of the program C returns positive integers $x_1, ..., x_i$. If $x \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, then $x_6 = 0$. Therefore, $C_6 \subseteq \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$. By Lemma 38, for every integer $x \ge 4$, $x_4 = (x - 1)! - 1$, $x_5 = \Gamma((x - 1)! - 1)$, and $x_1, ..., x_5 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. By Lemma 35, for every integer $x \ge 4$,

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

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 $(x - 1)! - 1 \ge 5$ for every integer $x \ge 4$. Hence,

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

It is conjectured that there are infinitely many primes of the form n! - 1, see [3, p. 443] and [24].

Theorem 34. The statement Ω_6 implies that there are infinitely many primes of the form x! - 1.

Proof. The number (975 - 1)! - 1 is prime, see [3, p. 441] and [24]. By Lemma 40, for x = 975 the program *C* returns positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_6 . Since $x = 975 > 720 = \delta(6)$, the statement Ω_6 guarantees that the program *C* returns positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_6 for infinitely many positive integers x. By Lemma 40, the set $\{x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} : (x - 1)! - 1 \in \mathcal{P}\}$ is infinite.

Lemma 41. For every positive integer x, the following program D

$$\begin{cases} x_1 := x \\ x_2 := \Gamma(x_1) \\ x_3 := \operatorname{rem}(x_2, x_1) \\ x_4 := \Gamma(x_3) \\ x_5 := \operatorname{fact}^{-1}(x_4) \\ x_6 := \Gamma(x_5) \\ x_7 := \operatorname{rem}(x_6, x_5) \end{cases}$$

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

Proof. For an integer $i \in \{1, ..., 7\}$, let D_i denote the set of positive integers x such that the first i instructions of the program \mathcal{D} returns positive integers $x_1, ..., x_i$. 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 35, for every integer $x \ge 5$, the term x_3 (which equals rem($\Gamma(x), x$)) belongs to $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ if and only if $x \in \mathcal{P} \setminus \{2, 3\}$. By Lemma 36, for every $x \in \mathcal{P} \setminus \{2, 3\}$, $x_3 = x - 1 \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$. By Lemma 38, 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 35, for every $x \in \mathcal{P} \setminus \{2, 3\}$, the term x_7 (which equals 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 35. The statement Ω_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 [34, p. 87]. By Lemma 41, for $x = 459 \cdot 2^{8529} + 1$ the program \mathcal{D} returns positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_7 . Since $x > 720! = \delta(7)$, the statement Ω_7 guarantees that the program \mathcal{D} returns positive integers x_1, \ldots, x_7 for infinitely many positive integers x. By Lemma 41, there are infinitely many twin primes.

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

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

$$x_1 := x \& PRINT(x_1)$$

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

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

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

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

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

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