

Proof of the Collatz Conjecture

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Abstract

Take any positive integer N . If it is odd, multiply it by three and add one. If it is even, divide it by two. Repeatedly do the same operations to the results, forming a sequence. It is found that, whatever the initial number we choose, the sequence will eventually descend and reach number 1, where it enters a closed loop of 1-4-2-1. This is known as the Collatz conjecture which states that the sequence always converges to 1. So far no proof has ever been found that this holds for every positive integer. In this paper we prove the Collatz conjecture by studying what happens as the sequence becomes infinitely long, thereby avoiding the chaos of finite length sequences. We have noted that the ratio between the number of odd operations and even operations continues to decrease as the sequence length increases, approaching zero for infinite sequence length. This leads to the only possibility that the sequence must eventually decouple from its starting value and enter a cycle, with the only possible cycle being the 1-4-2-1 cycle. We have obtained an equation for the final sequence of infinite length, which is the 1-4-2-1 closed loop:

$$C_n = \frac{\frac{3}{2^{Kn-1}} + 1}{2^{Kn}}$$

Introduction

The Collatz conjecture, originally proposed by Lothar Collatz in 1937[1], is a famous unsolved problem in number theory. It concerns the behavior of the iteration defined on positive integers by:

$$C(N) = \begin{cases} 3N + 1, & \text{if } N \text{ is odd} \\ \frac{N}{2}, & \text{if } N \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

The conjecture asserts that for every positive integer N , repeated iterations of C eventually reaches the number 1. Despite extensive computational evidence and numerous partial results, a full proof has remained illusive[2,3].

Several surveys and studies have explored the problem's rich structure and its generalizations (see, e.g. Lagarias[2]). This paper presents a novel approach that studies the properties of an infinite Collatz sequence, particularly the ratio between the number of even operations and odd operations.

Collatz Sequence of Odd Terms

Definition 1

Odd Collatz Sequence is an alternative representation containing only the odd terms of the sequence.

A term in a Collatz sequence can be even or odd. We start from the fact that even terms always lead to odd terms because of successive divisions by 2. Therefore, for any initial odd number N , an alternative representation of Collatz sequence can be defined as:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 N & \longrightarrow & \frac{3N+1}{2^{K_1}} & \longrightarrow & \frac{3\left(\frac{3N+1}{2^{K_1}}\right)+1}{2^{K_2}} & \longrightarrow & \frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3N+1}{2^{K_1}}\right)+1}{2^{K_2}}\right)+1}{2^{K_3}} \\
 & & & & & & \downarrow \\
 & & & & & & \frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3N+1}{2^{K_1}}\right)+1}{2^{K_2}}\right)+1}{2^{K_3}}\right)+1}{2^{K_4}} \\
 & & & & \longleftarrow & & \frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3N+1}{2^{K_1}}\right)+1}{2^{K_2}}\right)+1}{2^{K_3}}\right)+1}{2^{K_4}}\right)+1}{2^{K_5}} \\
 & & & \downarrow & & & \downarrow \\
 & & & \frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3N+1}{2^{K_1}}\right)+1}{2^{K_2}}\right)+1}{2^{K_3}}\right)+1}{2^{K_4}}\right)+1}{2^{K_5}}\right)+1}{2^{K_6}} & \longrightarrow & \dots & \dots
 \end{array}$$

All terms of the above sequence are odd numbers because every time an even term occurs in the sequence it is successively divided by 2 until an odd term occurs. That is, when an even term occurs, we don't include it into the sequence but divide it by an integral power of 2 until we get an odd term, which is included into the sequence. Thus, with this we have created an alternative Collatz sequence as shown above with all terms odd.

By expanding each term we get the following:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{3\left(\frac{3^{N+1}}{2^{K_1}}\right) + 1}{2^{K_2}} &= \frac{3^2 N + 3 + 2^{K_1}}{2^{K_1+K_2}} \\
 \frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3^{N+1}}{2^{K_1}}\right) + 1}{2^{K_2}}\right) + 1}{2^{K_3}} &= \frac{3\left(\frac{3^2 N + 3 + 2^{K_1}}{2^{K_1+K_2}}\right) + 1}{2^{K_3}} = \frac{3^3 N + 3^2 + 3 * 2^{K_1} + 2^{K_1+K_2}}{2^{K_1+K_2+K_3}} \\
 \frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3^{N+1}}{2^{K_1}}\right) + 1}{2^{K_2}}\right) + 1}{2^{K_3}}\right) + 1}{2^{K_4}} &= \frac{3\left(\frac{3^3 N + 3^2 + 3 * 2^{K_1} + 2^{K_1+K_2}}{2^{K_1+K_2+K_3}}\right) + 1}{2^{K_4}} \\
 &= \frac{3^4 N + 3^3 + 3^2 * 2^{K_1} + 3 * 2^{K_1+K_2} + 2^{K_1+K_2+K_3}}{2^{K_1+K_2+K_3+K_4}}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3\left(\frac{3N+1}{2^{K1}}\right)+1}{2^{K2}}\right)+1}{2^{K3}}\right)+1}{2^{K4}} + 1}{2^{K5}} = \frac{3\left(\frac{3^4N+3^3+3^2*2^{K1}+3*2^{K1+K2}+2^{K1+K2+K3}}{2^{K1+K2+K3+K4}}\right) + 1}{2^{K5}}$$

$$= \frac{3^5N + 3^4 + 3^3 * 2^{K1} + 3^2 * 2^{K1+K2} + 3 * 2^{K1+K2+K3} + 2^{K1+K2+K3+K4}}{2^{K1+K2+K3+K4+K5}}$$

and so on.

From the above, if we take the $(3N+1)/2$ term to be the first (n=1) term, then the n^{th} odd Collatz term (C_n) will be:

$$C_n = \frac{3^nN + 3^{n-1} + 3^{n-2} * 2^{K1} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K1+K2+\dots+Kn-3} + 3 * 2^{K1+K2+\dots+Kn-2} + 2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn-1}}{2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn}} \dots (1)$$

C_n can be written as:

$$C_n = \frac{3^nN + 3^{n-1}}{2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn}} + \frac{3^{n-2} * 2^{K1} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K1+K2+\dots+Kn-3} + 3 * 2^{K1+K2+\dots+Kn-2} + 2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn-1}}{2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn}}$$

The number of even Collatz operations compared to the number of odd operations

Intuitively, the number of even operations is significantly greater than the number of odd operations, and increasingly so at very large or infinitely large numbers. This follows from the fact that Collatz operation on an odd number always results in an even number, whereas an even operation may result in several successive even operations before an odd number occurs again, and this effect is even more pronounced at very large numbers. After every odd operation, the next term is always an even term and the probability that this even term has large powers of two as a factor (e.g. 2^{1000}) indefinitely increases as the length of the sequence approaches infinity. Although the rigor of such proof could be questioned (claiming that it is based on probability), one can arbitrarily increase this probability, making it approach 1 in the limit, that is by assuming infinite length of the sequence.

Assumption 1

The ratio of the number of odd operations to the number of even operations continuously decreases with increase in length of the sequence and approaches zero for infinite length of the sequence. That is:

$$\frac{n}{K1 + K2 + K3 + \dots + Kn} \rightarrow 0 \text{ at infinity}$$

Where n is the total number of Collatz odd operations and $K1 + K2 + K3 + \dots + Kn$ is the total number of Collatz even operations in a sequence.

Assumption 2

This assumption concerns the terms in equation (1):

$$\frac{3^n}{2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn}} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \text{ and } K1 + K2 + K3 + \dots + Kn \rightarrow \infty$$

We postpone the proof of these assumptions. Later on we will show that Assumption 2 follows from Assumption 1. We can see that the first term is the coefficient of N . The convergence of these terms to zero at infinity (infinite length of the sequence) would reflect the fact that the number of even Collatz operations is significantly greater than the number of odd operations in a sequence, which intuitively means that the sequence always follows a general descent, eventually reaching the number 1.

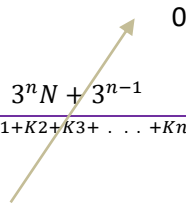
Proof of the Collatz Conjecture

Theorem 1

All Collatz sequences converge to the trivial loop 1-4-2-1.

Proof

Using Assumption 2, we can see that the first terms of equation (1) diminish to zero for a sequence of infinite length.

$$C_n = \frac{3^n N + 3^{n-1}}{2^{K_1+K_2+K_3+\dots+K_n}} + \frac{3^{n-2} * 2^{K_1} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K_1+K_2+\dots+K_{n-3}} + 3 * 2^{K_1+K_2+\dots+K_{n-2}} + 2^{K_1+K_2+K_3+\dots+K_{n-1}}}{2^{K_1+K_2+K_3+\dots+K_n}}$$


$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{3^{n-2} * 2^{K_1} + 3^{n-3} * 2^{K_1+K_2} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K_1+K_2+\dots+K_{n-3}} + 3 * 2^{K_1+K_2+\dots+K_{n-2}} + 2^{K_1+K_2+K_3+\dots+K_{n-1}}}{2^{K_1+K_2+K_3+\dots+K_n}}$$

We now factor out the term 2^{K_1} ,

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{2^{K_1} (3^{n-2} + 3^{n-3} * 2^{K_2} + 3^{n-4} * 2^{K_2+K_3} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K_2+\dots+K_{n-3}} + 3 * 2^{K_2+\dots+K_{n-2}} + 2^{K_2+K_3+\dots+K_{n-1}})}{2^{K_1+K_2+K_3+\dots+K_n}}$$

Cancelling the 2^{K_1} terms from both the numerator and the denominator,

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{(3^{n-2} + 3^{n-3} * 2^{K_2} + 3^{n-4} * 2^{K_2+K_3} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K_2+\dots+K_{n-3}} + 3 * 2^{K_2+\dots+K_{n-2}} + 2^{K_2+K_3+\dots+K_{n-1}})}{2^{K_2+K_3+\dots+K_n}}$$

This can be re-written as:

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{(3^{n-2})}{2^{K2+K3+\dots+Kn}} + \frac{(3^{n-3} * 2^{K2} + 3^{n-4} * 2^{K2+K3} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K2+\dots+Kn-3} + 3 * 2^{K2+\dots+Kn-2} + 2^{K2+K3+\dots+Kn-1})}{2^{K2+K3+\dots+Kn}}$$

Again, as n and $K2+K3+\dots+Kn$ approach infinity, the first term diminishes to zero:

$$\frac{(3^{n-2})}{2^{K2+K3+\dots+Kn}} \rightarrow 0 \quad (\text{Note that this follows from } \frac{3^n}{2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn}} \rightarrow 0)$$

Therefore:

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{(3^{n-2})}{2^{K2+K3+\dots+Kn}} + \frac{(3^{n-3} * 2^{K2} + 3^{n-4} * 2^{K2+K3} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K2+\dots+Kn-3} + 3 * 2^{K2+\dots+Kn-2} + 2^{K2+K3+\dots+Kn-1})}{2^{K2+K3+\dots+Kn}}$$

$C_n \rightarrow \frac{(3^{n-3} * 2^{K2} + 3^{n-4} * 2^{K2+K3} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K2+\dots+Kn-3} + 3 * 2^{K2+\dots+Kn-2} + 2^{K2+K3+\dots+Kn-1})}{2^{K2+K3+\dots+Kn}}$

Again, factoring out 2^{K2} ,

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{2^{K2}(3^{n-3} + 3^{n-4} * 2^{K3} + 3^{n-5} * 2^{K3+K4} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K3+\dots+Kn-3} + 3 * 2^{K3+\dots+Kn-2} + 2^{K3+K4+\dots+Kn-1})}{2^{K2+K3+\dots+Kn}}$$

and cancelling the 2^{K2} terms from both the numerator and the denominator,

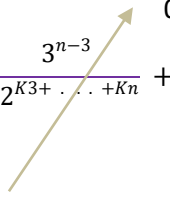
$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{(3^{n-3} + 3^{n-4} * 2^{K3} + 3^{n-5} * 2^{K3+K4} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K3+\dots+Kn-3} + 3 * 2^{K3+\dots+Kn-2} + 2^{K3+K4+\dots+Kn-1})}{2^{K3+\dots+Kn}}$$

Again, this can be re-written as:

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{3^{n-3}}{2^{K3+\dots+Kn}} + \frac{(3^{n-4} * 2^{K3} + 3^{n-5} * 2^{K3+K4} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K3+\dots+Kn-3} + 3 * 2^{K3+\dots+Kn-2} + 2^{K3+K4+\dots+Kn-1})}{2^{K3+\dots+Kn}}$$

Again applying our assumption about convergence to zero at infinity, that is as n and $K2+K3+\dots+Kn$ approach infinity, the first term diminishes to zero.

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{3^{n-3}}{2^{K3+\dots+Kn}} + \frac{(3^{n-4} * 2^{K3} + 3^{n-5} * 2^{K3+K4} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K3+\dots+Kn-3} + 3 * 2^{K3+\dots+Kn-2} + 2^{K3+K4+\dots+Kn-1})}{2^{K3+\dots+Kn}}$$



$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{(3^{n-4} * 2^{K3} + 3^{n-5} * 2^{K3+K4} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K3+\dots+Kn-3} + 3 * 2^{K3+\dots+Kn-2} + 2^{K3+K4+\dots+Kn-1})}{2^{K3+\dots+Kn}}$$

Next we factor out 2^{K3} and repeat the above procedure, then factor out 2^{K4} , and so on.

It can be shown that eventually we get:

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{3}{2^{Kn-1+Kn}} + \frac{2^{Kn-1}}{2^{Kn-1+Kn}}$$

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{3}{2^{Kn-1+Kn}} + \frac{1}{2^{Kn}}$$

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{1}{2^{Kn}} \left(\frac{3}{2^{Kn-1}} + 1 \right) = \frac{\frac{3}{2^{Kn-1}} + 1}{2^{Kn}}$$

Now, since C_n can only be a whole number, then the term:

$$\left(\frac{3}{2^{Kn-1}} + 1 \right)$$

must be some factor of 2. The only possible value of 2^{Kn-1} is 1. That is:

$$2^{Kn-1} = 1$$

Therefore,

$$\left(\frac{3}{2^{Kn-1}} + 1 \right) = \frac{3}{1} + 1 = 4$$

Therefore:

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{\frac{3}{2^{Kn-1}} + 1}{2^{Kn}} = \frac{4}{2^{Kn}}$$

Again, since C_n can only be a whole number, only three values are possible for C_n .

$$2^{Kn} = 1 \Rightarrow C_n = 4$$

$$2^{Kn} = 2 \Rightarrow C_n = 2$$

$$2^{Kn} = 4 \Rightarrow C_n = 1$$

Thus we have proved that (almost?) all Collatz sequences eventually converge to the 1-4-2-1 loop.

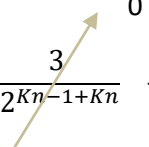
What we have done is we progressively eliminated much smaller (negligible) terms, by progressively assuming more and more sequence lengths, until only two terms remained. From the requirement that terms of the Collatz sequence must be whole numbers, we arrived at the 1-4-2-1 closed loop. Note that theoretically we could have done the same at any stage in the elimination process but those equations would be much harder to solve. Instead of stopping when two terms remained, we can also continue the procedure until only one remains, as follows:

For a Collatz sequence of infinite length diverging to infinity, the first term is infinitely smaller than the second term:

$$\frac{3}{2^{Kn-1+Kn}} \ll \frac{1}{2^{Kn}}$$

This is because for a Collatz sequence on its way of diverging to infinity, large values of K_{n-1} and K_n definitely occur along its path, making the above inequality correct. Take $K_n = K_{n-1} = 10$, for example. We can see that the left hand side is much less than the right hand side. As already explained, as the sequence diverges to infinity, the probability that an even term has very large powers of two as a factor also increases accordingly.

Therefore, for a Collatz sequence diverging to infinity:

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{3}{2^{Kn-1+Kn}} + \frac{1}{2^{Kn}}$$


$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{1}{2^{Kn}}$$

Thus, we are inevitably left with only one term. This is the only term that would remain and would not vanish if the Collatz sequence diverged to infinity. By contradiction, the Collatz sequence cannot diverge to infinity because this term is less than or equal to 1.

Therefore, since a Collatz term can only be a whole number, the only possible value will be:

$$C_n \rightarrow \frac{1}{2^{Kn}} = \frac{1}{2^0} = 1$$

$K_n = 0$ because there is no even operation after the final odd number in the sequence, which is the number 1.

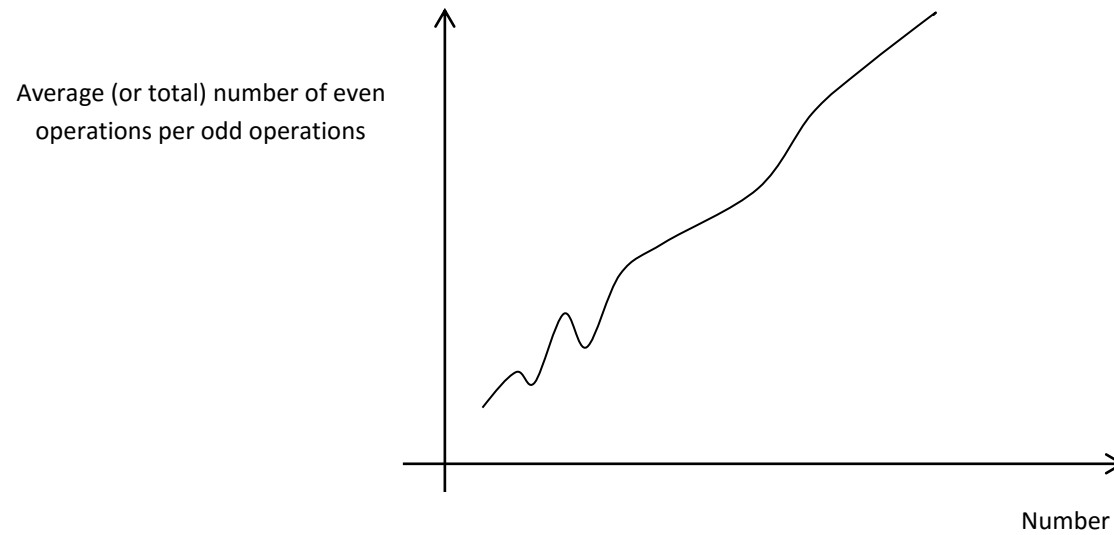
It should be noted that this whole proof rests on one assumption: the ratio of the total number of odd operations to the total number of even operations diminishes to zero for a sequence diverging to infinity because the number of even operations after each odd operation continues to increase to infinity *if the sequence diverged to infinity*. Here we see the beauty of mathematics. We began by assuming what we wanted to disprove, namely that the sequence could diverge to infinity, but ended up in the trivial 1-4-2-1 loop.

Proof of convergence to zero at infinity

So far, we have reduced the problem of the Collatz conjecture to a problem of proving that those terms assumed as converging to zero at infinity indeed converge to zero. Next, I present the proof of convergence to zero of the terms we have assumed as converging to zero at infinity, and perhaps the rigor of the proof could be the only possible one with regard to the Collatz conjecture.

We start from the fact that the total number of even Collatz operations in a given Collatz sequence is significantly greater than the number of total odd Collatz operations, and this effect indefinitely increases for infinitely large numbers and infinitely long sequences. That is, if one starts with a very, very large number, the total number of even operations will be very large compared to the total number of odd operations, resulting in steep descent of the sequence. In fact, the steepness of the general descent indefinitely increases as the starting value approaches infinity. The steepness of the general descent will gradually decrease as the sequence descends towards finitely large numbers and the descent of the sequence becomes less and less pronounced at relatively small numbers, and more chaotic at smaller numbers, but eventually reaching 1 in all cases.

Why does the ratio of the total number of even operations to the number of odd operations, or the average number of even operations following each odd operation, would increase vastly if the sequence diverged to infinity? The reason for this is that at infinitely large numbers, unlike at smaller numbers, even integers can have very large powers of two as a factor, say 2^{10} , 2^{100} , 2^{1000} etc. Thus, since every Collatz operation on an odd number results in an even number, once the sequence lands on an even number it may go through tens or hundreds or thousands of successive even operations before ending in an odd number, that is before another odd operation occurs again, vastly dropping the sequence. There can never be successive odd operations, but there can always be successive even operations. Therefore, although every odd operation results in a term greater than the term before it, that operation always results in even operation(s), which may result in vast descent of the sequence, much more than its ascent by the single odd operation. In other words, at relatively small numbers, an even number can have 2 , 2^2 , 2^3 , 2^4 , etc. as a factor and at very large numbers this could be all the way from 2 , 2^2 , \dots to 2^{100} and still at immensely large numbers 2 , 2^2 , \dots to 2^{10000} and so on, following the same trend indefinitely. Therefore, as the starting odd number increases, the average and total ratio of even to odd operations also increases accordingly. Thus, after just one odd operation, there could be thousands or billions of successive even operations before the next odd operation occurs, always resulting in a steep average descent of the sequence. As the length of the sequence increases towards infinity, the ratio between the total number of odd operations and the total number of even operations continuously tends towards zero. This results from the fact that as the starting value increases more and more even operations occur *per every odd operation*.



Note that the above graph is qualitative, meant only to explain the concept.

Proof of Assumption 2

From Assumption 1 :

$$\frac{n}{K1 + K2 + K3 + \dots + Kn} \rightarrow 0 \text{ at infinity}$$

Let

$$\frac{n}{K1 + K2 + K3 + \dots + Kn} = r$$

$$\Rightarrow n = r (K1 + K2 + K3 + \dots + Kn)$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{3^n}{2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn}} = \frac{3^{r(K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn)}}{2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn}} = \left(\frac{3^r}{2}\right)^{(K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn)}$$

Now since r approaches 0 at infinity (Assumption 1), $r = 0$ at infinity:

$$\left(\frac{3^r}{2}\right)^{(K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn)} = \left(\frac{3^0}{2}\right)^{(K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn)} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{(K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn)} = 0, \text{ at infinity, that is for } K1 + K2 + K3 + \dots + Kn \rightarrow \infty$$

Proof of Assumption 1

Lemma 1

Let n_1 and n_2 be any two even positive integers, with $n_2 > n_1$. Let $n_1 = m_1 \times 2^{k_1}$ and $n_2 = m_2 \times 2^{k_2}$, where m_1 and m_2 are odd numbers. The probability that $k_2 > k_1$ is always greater than the probability that $k_1 > k_2$. In other words, the probability that a larger even number has a given power (k) of two is greater than the probability that a smaller even number has the same power of two.

Lemma 2 follows from the fact that the probability that an even number $n = m \times 2^k$ having greater k increases as n increases. This follows from the fact that larger numbers can have higher factors of 2 than smaller numbers. For example, even numbers up to 100 can have $2^1, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5, 2^6$ as factors, whereas even numbers up to 1000 can have $2^1, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5, 2^6, 2^7, 2^8, 2^9$, as factors, and even numbers up to 1,000,000 can have $2^1, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5, 2^6, 2^7, 2^8, 2^9, 2^{10}, 2^{11}, 2^{12}, 2^{13}, 2^{14}, 2^{15}, 2^{16}, 2^{17}, 2^{18}, 2^{19}$ and even numbers up to 1,000,000,000 can have $2^1, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5, 2^6, 2^7, 2^8, 2^9, 2^{10}, 2^{11}, 2^{12}, 2^{13}, 2^{14}, 2^{15}, 2^{16}, 2^{17}, 2^{18}, 2^{19}, 2^{20}, 2^{21}, 2^{22}, 2^{23}, 2^{24}, 2^{25}, 2^{26}, 2^{27}, 2^{28}, 2^{29}$ and so on. We state this truth as follows: the *density* of even numbers increases as we go to higher and higher regions of the number space and this density increases indefinitely as we go to infinity.

This clearly proves that the probability that a bigger number has a given powers of 2 is greater than the probability that a smaller number has the same power of 2. It follows that the number of even operations after every odd operation increases with increase of the starting value, and increases towards infinity as the starting number goes to infinity.

The next graph illustrates this effect. We can see that the slope of the graph continues to increase as the number of Collatz operations increases. We can see that not only the local slope dy/dx , but also the global slope y/x , increases with the number of operations.

We can see that the ratio of the total number of even operations to the total number of odd operations is greater at point B than at point A on the curve, indicating a continuous increase of this ratio with increase in the number of Collatz operations (or sequence length), the ratio approaching infinity for infinite sequence length and, conversely, the ratio of odd to even operations approaching zero.

$$\frac{\text{Number of even Collatz operations}}{\text{Number of odd Collatz operations}} \simeq \infty \quad (\text{for infinite length of sequence})$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\text{Number of odd Collatz operations}}{\text{Number of even Collatz operations}} \simeq 0 \quad (\text{for infinite length of sequence})$$

Now let us see how the number of odd operations and the number of even operations affects the sequence. Before that let us see one pattern I observed .

Any odd number N can be represented as:

$$N = N_1 2^m - 1 \quad , \quad \text{where } N_1 \text{ is also an odd number}$$

A sequence with starting number N makes m consecutive (meaning every other Collatz term) odd operations before reaching an even number, which is the maximum. We see that an even number

$$N_1 2^m$$

also makes m even operations.

We know that the consecutive odd operations ascend the sequence. Let us see by how much:

From

$$N \longrightarrow \frac{3N+1}{2} = 1.5 * N + 0.5 \cong 1.5 N \quad , \text{for } N \gg 0.5$$

Therefore, one odd operation , $(3N+1)/2$, ascends the sequence by a factor of 1.5. One even operation $(N/2)$ descends the sequence by a factor of 2.

Now let us compare k consecutive even operations and n consecutive odd operations.

$$\frac{2^k}{1.5^n}$$

Let us compare the effect for $k = n = 10$ (we tak $k = n$ for comparison of their effects):

$$\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{10} = 17.7$$

For $k = n = 20$

$$\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{20} = 315.3$$

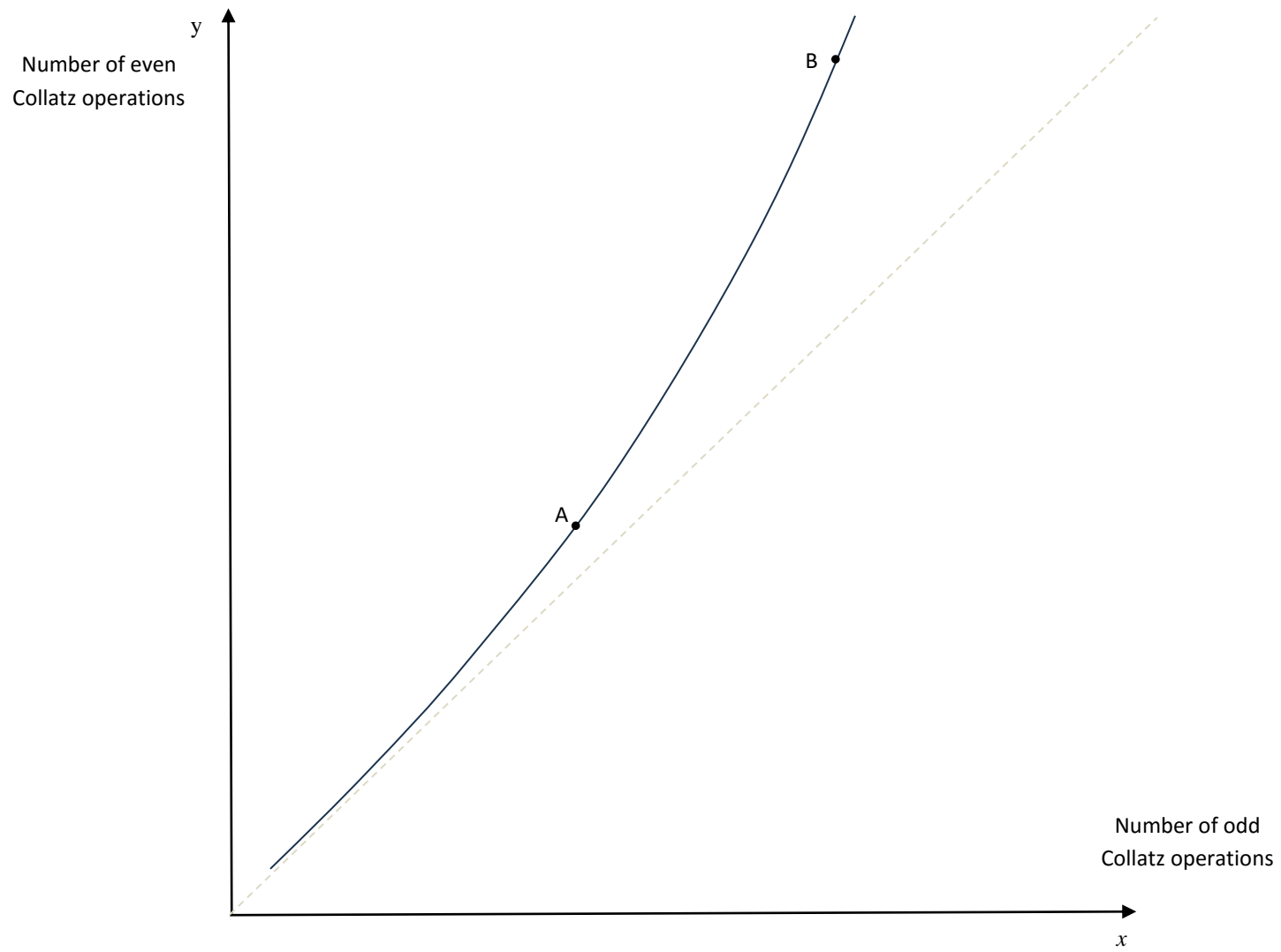
For $k = n = 50$

$$\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{50} = 1765781$$

For $k = n = 100$

$$\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{100} \cong 3117982410000$$

This means that 100 consecutive odd operations followed by 100 consecutive even operations will descend the sequence by about three trillion. We can see that is effect is even more dramatic with increase of n and k to 300, 1000, 1000000, etc. Therefore, we see that there is no mystery on why the Collatz sequence always converges if we accept that probabilistic laws globally govern the sequence.



Now, there are two possibilities for the Collatz conjecture to be disproved.

1. The sequence indefinitely diverges to infinity.
2. The sequence may enter some closed loop (there might be more than one loop).

Since we have already proved that the Collatz sequence cannot diverge to infinity, next we consider the possibility of another closed loop other than the trivial loop.

Proof that no closed loops exist other than the 1-4-2-1 loop

Corollary 1

There are no closed loops of the Collatz sequence other than the trivial loop of 1-4-2-1.

We propose a property of a closed loop as follows: *any closed loop is decoupled from the sequences and the numbers in the sequences leading to it.* Since multiple Collatz sequences lead to the closed loop, the closed loop must be independent from any sequence (and its terms) leading to that closed loop. It necessarily follows that the coefficient of N vanishes at infinity, in the following equation:

$$C_n = \frac{3^n N + 3^{n-1}}{2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn}} + \frac{3^{n-2} * 2^{K1} + \dots + 3^2 * 2^{K1+K2+\dots+Kn-3} + 3 * 2^{K1+K2+\dots+Kn-2} + 2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn-1}}{2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn}}$$

Note that the coefficient of N here is:

$$\frac{3^n}{2^{K1+K2+K3+\dots+Kn}}$$

which in turn brings us back to our previous assumption about the convergence of terms to zero at infinity, which in turn leads to the 1-4-2-1 loop! So we began with an assumption that another closed loop could exist somewhere in the darkness of infinity, which demanded the vanishing of the coefficient of N, which led back to the only known closed loop of 1-4-2-1. This should be a complete, rigorous mathematical proof (by induction) that no other closed loop exists.

In other words, assume that a closed loop exists at some immensely large number. Any closed loop requires that the coefficient of N must diminish to zero in the limit. Assume that the sequence was not decoupled from the starting number even at infinity, that is for infinite length of the sequence. By contradiction, there cannot be such a closed loop because C_n cannot be shown to converge to constant numbers (possible terms in the supposed closed loop), in the same way that we have proved that every Collatz sequence converges to the number 4, 2 or 1. In summary, any closed loop requires the coefficient of N to diminish to zero at infinity, but then this leads to the 1-4-2-1 loop. This proves that no other closed loop can exist.

Arbitrarily Close to One Probability Vs Absolute Certainty

Our analysis and arguments have shown that the probability of a Collatz sequence converging to the number 1 can be shown to be arbitrarily close to *one*. Conversely, the probability of a Collatz sequence diverging to infinity can be shown to be arbitrarily close to *zero*. But one can argue that, irrespective of all the arguments and analysis made so far, these arguments and analysis do not rule out at least one sequence diverging to infinity, out of infinitely many possible sequences.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_D = 0 \quad , \quad \text{where } P_D \text{ is the probability that a given sequence diverges}$$

In this paper, we have proved that (at least) *almost all* Collatz sequences converge to the number 1. The question then is: could a Collatz sequence exist, at least one, that diverges to infinity? Can we say with absolute certainty that no Collatz sequence exists that diverges to infinity?

We raise the following fundamental questions:

1. If the analysis presented proves that *almost all* Collatz sequences converge, then what is the proof that *all* sequences converge?
2. Do we need a different, unrelated proof for the latter, unrelated to the number theories and Collatz sequence behaviors discussed in this paper?
3. Or, does such a proof even exist?
4. Or, could the ideas and analysis introduced in this paper lead to a complete proof of the conjecture?

We strongly feel that the analysis presented in this paper should also be *part of* the complete proof.

Postulate 1

If the convergence of sequences is rigorously proved based on probabilistic approach, then probabilistic approach must also prove or disprove the divergence of sequences with certainty.

Postulate 2

The ratio between the number of total Collatz operations to the number of even Collatz operations increases as we move to higher regions of the number space.

Why must this postulate be true? Because we have logical explanations and because we have been able to successfully explain why all known Collatz sequences converge.

Postulate 3

Postulate 2 applies to all Collatz sequences and all terms of Collatz sequences, including to sequences that diverge to infinity (if they exist).

Therefore, this principle is universal and applies to *all* Collatz sequences and their terms. To state that these principles could possibly not apply to sequences that diverge to infinity (if they exist) would contradict all the successful analysis we have done so far. If the principle about the ratio between the number of odd operations to the number of even operations explains why all known sequences converge, then the same principle should allow a sequence diverging to infinity, if any exists.

From the above, it follows that the probability that a sequence diverges to infinity is arbitrarily close to zero. As repeatedly explained, as the sequence continues to ascend to infinity, it would eventually enter a region and a border beyond which it cannot ascend anymore, because of high *density* of even numbers.

Definition 2

The density of even numbers in a region of the number space is qualitatively defined as a measure of the number of even numbers in that region having large powers of two as a factor.

Does a Collatz sequence exist, at least one sequence, that diverges to infinity?

We have analytically proved that the probability of a sequence diverging to infinity is zero (zero in the limit). But this raises an immediate objection: zero probability does not rule out at least one diverging sequence. One can argue that, divergence of one sequence out of infinitely many possible sequences does not contradict our result of zero probability and therefore, the analysis made so far in this paper has not ruled out at least one diverging sequence. Zero probability that a sequence diverges to infinity does not guarantee zero sum (total) of probabilities of divergence of infinitely many Collatz sequences. That is, even if the probability of each sequence diverging to infinity is zero (almost zero), the sum of infinitely many zeros could give finite total probability. The only guarantee that not even a single diverging Collatz sequence exists is if the *sum* of the probabilities of divergence of the infinitely many possible sequences itself is shown to be *zero*.

Let

P_1 = the probability of Collatz sequence 1 diverging to infinity = 0

P_2 = the probability of Collatz sequence 2 diverging to infinity = 0

P_3 = the probability of Collatz sequence 3 diverging to infinity = 0

•
•
•

P_N = the probability of a collatz sequence N diverging to infinity = 0

Proving that not even one Collatz sequence exists that diverges to infinity requires that:

$$P_1 + P_1 + P_1 + \dots + P_N = 0, \quad \text{where } N \text{ is infinite}$$

$$0 + 0 + 0 + \dots + 0 = 0$$

If

$$0 + 0 + 0 + \dots + 0 = 1$$

then one diverging sequence exists. If

$$0 + 0 + 0 + \dots + 0 = 2$$

then two diverging sequences exist and if:

$$0 + 0 + 0 + \dots + 0 = 1000000$$

then one million diverging sequences exist, and so on.

The above is to illustrate that zero individual probabilities may not necessarily add up to zero total probability.

Now back to the problem: can we determine with certainty that no Collatz sequence exists that diverges to infinity ?

To prove this, we need to prove that the sum of the probabilities of divergence of each of the infinitely many Collatz sequences is zero. That is:

$$0 + 0 + 0 + \dots + 0 = 0$$

Consider infinitely many sequences each with a zero probability of diverging to infinity, as already proved in the analysis. Assume that at least one diverging sequence exists. Such a sequence would have to indefinitely ascend to infinity, against all odds. Even number density, as we already defined, continues to increase as the sequence ascends. As the sequence ascends to higher and higher regions up the number space, and to infinity, the even number density also continues to increase indefinitely, and the probability of sustained ascent continues to diminish. Let us assume that a sequence diverges forever to infinity, irrespective of this effect.

Let the probability that a sequence ascends to 10^{100} be some value, say 10^{-10} . Then the probability of ascending the next 10^{500} would be even less, say 10^{-20} , and the probability of ascending the next 10^{1500} would be even less 10^{-40} , so on to infinity. Therefore, the probability of the sequence diverging to infinity will be the product of infinite, small, diminishing probabilities:

Probability of divergence of a sequence =

$$10^{-10} * 10^{-20} * 10^{-40} * \dots * 10^{-1000} * \dots * 10^{-1000000} * \dots * 10^{-10000000000000000000} * \dots * 10^{-\infty} = 0$$

To get the total probability of divergence, the probabilities of divergence of each of the Collatz sequences are added. Such zeros are so extremely small that the sum of infinite such zeros gives zero.

$$P_1 + P_1 + P_1 + \dots + P_N = 0 \quad , \quad \text{where } N \text{ is infinite}$$

$$0 + 0 + 0 + \dots + 0 = 0$$

This means that even if the probability of each individual event is 1 (almost), the the probability of *all* events will not necessarily be 1.

Now let us apply this concept to the Collatz conjecture. I have presented a reasonably rigorous analysis and argument that the probability of a Collatz sequence diverging to infinity is zero in the limit. A counter-argument could be made that although the probability of divergence of each sequence is zero, the sum of the probabilities of divergence of the *infinite* possible Collatz sequences may not be zero, because $0 * \infty$ is indeterminate, and therefore at least one diverging sequence has not been ruled out.

Let the probability of divergence of each sequence be P_1 . Let the number of possible Collatz sequences be *Infinity 1*, ∞_1 . Now, the sum of the probabilities of divergence of all sequences will be:

$$\text{Sum of probabilities of divergence of infinite Collatz sequences} = P_1 * \infty_1$$

Now, existence of one Collatz sequence diverging to infinity is excluded only if we can show that the above product is zero. That is:

$$P_1 * \infty_1 = 0$$

For the above product to be zero, P_1 must be a zero that is extremely so small that the product will be zero. Remember: *not all zeros are equal!*. (Conventionally, one would argue that zero times infinity is indeterminate).

As we have already discussed, P_1 is not an ‘ordinary’ zero ! P_1 is an infinite (let us call this *Infinity 2*, ∞_2) product of extremely small probabilities p (lower case) !

Let P_1 be:

$$P_1 = p * p * p * \dots * p = p^{\infty_2},$$

where p (lower case) is the probability that a Collatz sequence ascends upto some value, or ‘height’ in the number space, say H_1 .

We know that starting values of up to $2^{71} \approx 10^{21}$ have been checked and all sequences shown to converg to 1. Sequences that ascended as high as tens of millions times the starting number have been recorded. Even if we don’t have information on the particular starting value that led to such sequence, we can safely assume the starting value for this particular sequence to be the highest checked value, that is 2^{71} , so the highest a sequence has ascended would be 10,000,000 times 2^{71} , which is about 10^{28} . We take this to be H_1 .

Therefore, for starting numbers upto 10^{21} , since at least one diverging sequence has not ascended beyond $H_1 = 10^{28}$, the probability that a sequence ascends beyond some value (H_1 in this case) is less than 1 part in 10^{21} , that is 10^{-21} , which we will take as p .

$$p = 10^{-21}$$

A sequence diverging to infinity would have to reach value H_1 , AND then reach H_2 , AND then reach H_3 , . . . and AND then H_{100} . . . AND then reach $H_{1000000000}$ AND then reach H_{∞_2} . The ANDs convert to multiplication of probabilities.

Although we have estimated H_1 based on computational data, its actual value is not important in our analysis, and therefore we don't need to estimate the other values also: H_2 , H_3 , H_4 , , and this does not affect our argument and analysis. We estimated the value of H_1 to help the reader understand what it is, and to avoid any confusions.

Therefore,

The probability that a sequence diverges to infinity (P_1) =

*the probability that it ascends to some value H_1 * the probability that it ascends from H_1 to some higher value H_2 **

*the probability that it ascends from H_2 to some higher value H_3 * **

the probability that it ascends from H_{∞_2-1} to some higher value H_{∞_2}

Assume that H_1 , H_2 , H_3 , ... are such that the probability that a sequence reaches H_1 , the probability that the sequence ascends from H_1 to some higher value H_2 , the probability that the sequence ascends from H_2 to some higher value H_3 , and so on, are all equal to p , for simplicity of argument.

Therefore,

$$P_1 = p * p * p * \dots * p = p^{\infty_2} = 10^{-21} * 10^{-21} * 10^{-21} * \dots * 10^{-21} = (10^{-21})^{\infty_2}$$

Logically and intuitively, this means that a sequence can diverge to infinity only if it reaches some value AND if it reaches some next higher value AND if it reaches some higher next value AND if it reaches some next higher value and so on, this continuous indefinitely. In probability theory these ANDs mean multiplication of probabilities.

Therefore, the probability of a Collatz sequence diverging to infinity will be:

$$P_1 = (10^{-21})^{\infty_2}$$

Now that we have obtained the probability of divergence of one Collatz sequence, we can compute the probability that no Collatz sequence diverges to infinity.

$$P_1 * \infty_1 = (10^{-21})^{\infty_2} * \infty_1$$

Now we have two separated infinities in this equation, not mixed up as in conventional understanding.

Now remember the usual counter-argument : even if the probability of divergence of each sequence is zero, the sum of infinite (∞_1) such zeros may not necessarily be zero, so a diverging sequence is not excluded.

However, the new insight being presented in this paper defines two different infinities and the counter-argument can be easily refuted because ∞_2 overwhelms the effect of ∞_1 , because ∞_2 is an exponent, whereas ∞_1 is a multiplier, with vastly different effects. To illustrate this let :

$$\infty_1 = \infty_2 = 10^{1000}$$

Therefore,

$$(10^{-21})^{\infty_2} * \infty_1 = (10^{-21})^{10^{1000}} * 10^{1000} = 10^{-2100000000000000000000000.....000} * 10^{1000} \approx (10^{-21})^{10^{1000}} = 0$$

which is overwhelmingly zero. Although we have assumed the same value for both ∞_1 and ∞_2 , the exponent effect of ∞_2 overwhelmed the multiplying effect of ∞_1 . (Not all infinities are equal!). Therefore, this proves with certainty that no Collatz sequence exists that diverges to infinity. Perhaps any doubt beyond this would be philosophical, not mathematical.

∞_1 and ∞_2 can be assumed to be much larger or even infinity, yet another infinity, ∞_3 .

The key in this analysis is the idea that the probability of a Collatz sequence diverging to infinity is a *product* of infinite small probabilities. Therefore,

Sum of probabilities of divergence of infinite Collatz sequences = 0

Therefore,

$$\text{Probability that no Collatz sequence diverges} = 1$$

To get some perspective, we know that starting values up to 10^{21} have been checked. Imagine increasing this to ∞ , where some very large value can be assigned to ∞ . What would be the probability of finding one diverging sequence?

We have shown that the probability of a Collatz sequence diverging to infinity can be assumed to be of the form:

$$P_1 = (10^{-21})^{\infty_2}$$

Therefore, the probability of finding one diverging sequence out of ∞_1 will be:

$$\infty_1 * (10^{-21})^{\infty_2} = \infty_1 * 10^{-21\infty_2}$$

From the above equation, we can see that increasing ∞_1 increases the probability, whereas increasing ∞_2 exponentially decreases the probability. One would expect that increasing the sample size from 10^{21} to ∞_1 increases the probability of finding a diverging sequence. However, since ∞_2 is an exponent, while ∞_1 is a multiplier, the effect of ∞_2 completely overwhelms that of ∞_1 .

A foundational postulate completing the argument

We have shown, with reasonable rigor, that the probability that a sequence diverges is zero. The question is therefore no longer whether a diverging sequence might exist, but a more fundamental one: can probability be taken as the final word in mathematics? Even after establishing that the probability is zero, the mind does not cease its curiosity. Mathematics demands exactness and absolute certainty. This raises a deeper question: if probability has enabled a successful analysis, can probability also provide closure? We argue that it would be both natural and conceptually satisfying if probability itself delivered the final answer. The persistence of doubt may not signal a flaw, but rather the existence of a final, precise resolution.

We therefore propose the following foundational closure principle: if the probability that a sequence diverges is zero in the limit-that is, if the total probability assigned to all diverging sequences vanishes in the limit-then no diverging sequence exists.

Postulate 5 Zero-Probability Non-Existence

If an event is assigned probability zero in the limit under a fully specified and deterministic mathematical model, then the event does not exist.

$$\text{Probability that a Collatz sequence diverges} = \frac{\text{number of diverging sequences}}{\text{total number of sequences}} = \frac{0}{\infty} = 0$$

We need to make a crucial distinction here:

$$\frac{0}{\infty} = 0 \quad \text{but} \quad \frac{1}{\infty} = 0_1 \neq 0$$

Not all zeros are equal!

If the probability of an event is mathematically zero in the limit, then it does not exist. By ‘zero’ we mean exactly zero. In a sample space of ∞ Collatz sequences, there is exactly *zero* diverging sequence. With a probability of $1/\infty$, one would find more and more diverging sequences if the sample space is increased. With a probability of $0/\infty$, the number of diverging sequences found is exactly zero, regardless of the sample space.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have been able to prove the Collatz sequence, by studying the property of the sequence of infinite length, thereby avoiding the chaos of the finite length sequences. We noted that at infinite sequence lengths, the ratio of odd operations to even operations diminishes, approaching zero. This leads to the eventual decoupling of the sequence from the starting value, ending in the only possible path of all sequences: the 1-4-2-1 loop. We have also introduced a new insight about infinities and zeros, to close the gap that exists due to vague understanding regarding probabilities that depend on infinities and zeros.

We have shown that the probability that a sequence diverges is zero. The question, however, is no longer whether a diverging sequence might exist, but a deeper, philosophical one: can probability be taken as the final word in mathematics? Even after being told that the probability is zero, with reasonably rigorous analysis, the mind does not stop asking. To close this question, we have made a final postulate: *if the probability of an event is mathematically zero in the limit, then it doesn't exist.*

Glory Be To Almighty God Jesus Christ and His Mother, Our Lady Saint Virgin Mary

References

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APPENDIX

Intuitive explanation of convergence

Intuitively, we can understand the Collatz sequence as resulting from the interaction of two ‘forces’: upward pushing force and downward pulling force. The upward pushing force is the odd operations and the downward pulling force is the even operations. As the sequence continues to ascend towards infinity, if such a sequence ever exists, the sequence will eventually enter a region in the number space beyond which it cannot ascend because the effect of the even operations can no more be overcome by the odd operations.

One can get more insights by studying other Collatz like sequences. For example:

$$C(N) = \begin{cases} 5N + 1, & \text{if } N \text{ is odd} \\ \frac{N}{2}, & \text{if } N \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

Or, the even more explosive:

$$C(N) = \begin{cases} 3N^2 + 1, & \text{if } N \text{ is odd} \\ \frac{N}{2}, & \text{if } N \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

Intuitively, it seems that, particularly the second sequence is divergent and if one were to do computations to study its behavior, one would conclude that this sequence always diverges to infinity. However, whether this sequence diverges forever or ever converges can only be determined by the kind of analysis we have already done. In this case, the ‘upward’ force is much stronger than the downward ‘force’. Whether the effect of increasing even number density as one ascends towards infinity would curb this sequence (as it does in the case of the Collatz sequence) can only be determined by analysis. Perhaps, the problem regarding this sequence could be to determine with certainty that the sequence always diverges to infinity, that is, determine with certainty that *all* sequences diverge to infinity. This problem would be quite the opposite of the Collatz sequence. Note that, unlike the Collatz sequence, no amount of computation can prove the divergence of even one sequence. Only convergence of a given sequence can be computationally proved and no computation exists that can prove the divergence of a sequence. Divergence can only be proved analytically. Alternatively, perhaps this sequence might eventually enter a region in the number space that is immensely large, that it cannot go beyond due to the even number density effect, and eventually enter a closed loop and hover there indefinitely. *If a sequence cannot diverge to infinity, it cannot progress indefinitely without eventually entering some*

closed loop. I guess that this particular sequence diverges to infinity because its upward progress outpaces the downward force. However, only rigorous analysis by assuming infinite sequence length can tell what happens with this particular sequence.