

Basics of cyclical sequences theorem

Abstract

This paper introduces two recursive algorithms that create a new subject of numerical sequences which are called **cyclical sequences** and the Collatz sequence is classified in them. They also divide integers into **tree partitions**. This theory studies the structure of cyclical sequences. One of the obstacles to proving Collatz's conjecture has been the lack of sufficient knowledge about the Collatz sequence. This article provides a new and complete understanding of Collatz's conjecture, in which, we have also redefined the collatz sequence with a parameter.

Keywords: arithmetic algorithm; geometric algorithm; cyclical sequences; tree partition; isocyclic partition

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1 Introduction

In the reaserch, we introduce a new subject of numerical sequences called cyclical sequences, in which, the Collatz sequence is classified. This theory studies the structure of cyclical sequences. One of the important obstacles to prove Collatz's conjecture² was the complete lack of knowledge of the Collatz sequence.[1] study of this paper is necessary to understand Collatz's conjecture. We also redefine the Collatz sequence by a parameter, based on which, the collatz conjecture is proved. In the section 4, by extending the division algorithm, sequences similar to the Collatz sequence are created, which also reach a cycle. Such sequences and the Collatz sequences are placed in a new mathematical subject which are called cyclical sequences . We also create new partitions of rational number and integers by recursive algorithms which are in the form of tree.

We have used the following sets of numbers in this article:

Naturals $N = \{1, 2, \dots\}$; arithmetics $W = \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid 1 = f_0; 1; 2; \dots\}$;

integers $Z = \{\dots; -2; -1; 0; 1; 2; \dots\}$; rationals $Q = \{f/a$

$b : a; b \in \mathbb{Z}; b \neq 0\}$.

An unsolved open problem in mathematics which Lothar Collatz introduced in 1937 and during research that lasted 6 years, we completed its proof on May 12, 2024 after 87 years.

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2 Cyclical sequences

You should be familiar with properties of sequences. In a sequence, repetition is allowed and order is important. In view of these evidences, it is better a sequence is denoted by symbols $\{$ and $\}$.

Definition 2.1 (Periodic sequence and cycle). A sequence consists of a finite and ordered set of numbers that repeats indefinitely. [2] [3]

Each Periodic sequence is denoted by all members respectively as follows:

$$C_p = \{C_i; i \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

$$i=1 = \{C_1; C_2; \dots; C_p; C_{p+1}; C_{p+2}; \dots; C_{2p}; \dots\}; \text{ so that } C_{i+k \cdot p} = C_i; k \in \mathbb{N};$$

where $p \in \mathbb{N}$ is the **base period**.

Thus by definition, a Periodic sequence can be represented by a **cycle**. Each cycle is also denoted with all element, respectively, between two symbols $_$ and $_$.

Let $C_3 = \{a; b; c; a; b; c; \dots\}$ be a periodic sequence which has period

$p = 3$ then, it is represented by these forms: by symbols of cycle

$_a; b; c_$, and by directed cycle graph, $a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow a$ or like this figure:

a

b

c

Definition 2.2. The sequence that eventually reaches (falls into) a cycle are called a **cyclical sequence**, the final cycle is called **stop cycle**.

Cyclical sequences are created by **special functions** or **recursive algorithms**.

Let $r_{00} = a$ be the starter term,⁴ then a cyclical sequence is represented as follows:

$$\{r_m; m \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

$$m=00 = \{r_{00}; r_0; r_1; r_2; \dots; r_m; r_{m+1}; r_{m+2}; \dots; r_{m+p}; r_{m+p+1}; r_{m+p+2}; \dots\}; \text{ Where, } r_m = r_{m+k \cdot p}; k \in \mathbb{N};$$

therefore, its stop cycle is $C_p = \{r_m; r_{m+1}; r_{m+2}; \dots; r_{m+p-1}\}$, in which, p is the base period.

Definition 2.3. The cyclical sequence from a point onwards are placed in a cycle, the value of the first stop from which the cycle begins, is called **stop value**. The number of generated terms up to the stop point is called **stop time** which is denoted by M . Thus, the stop time $M = m + p - 1$, the **stop value** $r_M = r_{m+p-1}$. See example 4.2, 4.1.

Thus by definition, final cycle with some different starter point is as follows:

$$C_p = \{r_{M-p+1}; r_{M-p+2}; r_{M-p+3}; \dots; r_M; r_{M+1}; r_{M+2}; \dots; r_{M+p-1}\}$$

3 Regular algorithms

Definition 3.1 (Regular algorithm). A relation that has a specific mathematical formula and its output variables have one or more conditions is called a **regular algorithm**.

Based on breaking an integer into a certain number or dividing it by a certain value and whether we want the remainder to be a positive or negative value, we can propose two arithmetic algorithm theorems which are also proved by the **well-order principle** of natural numbers and integers.

Notation 3.1. The normal state is that negative integer have a negative remainder and positive integer have a positive remainder, but theoretically, the remainder can be positive or negative, that is, the remainder condition optional.

3A cycle is a path in which only the first and last vertice is equal.

4The starter term a may not be the same as the initial term r_0 . we can denote a starter term by r_0 when it is out of the condition.

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Example 3.2. Breaking the number 13 into 3 equal pices: $13 =$

$\{ \begin{matrix} 3 \\ \text{equal pieces } Z \end{matrix} \}$

$4 + 4 + 4 + 1 : 0 \leq 1 < 4$, and if we

want its remainder to be negative, we can write: $13 =$

$\{ \begin{matrix} 4 \\ \text{equal pieces } Z \end{matrix} \}$

$4 + 4 + 4 + 4 \square 3 : \square 4 < \square 3 \leq 0$.

Breaking the number $\square 13$ into 3 equal pices: $\square 13 =$

$\{ \begin{matrix} 3 \\ \text{equal pieces } Z \end{matrix} \}$

$\square 4 \square 4 \square 4 \square 1 : \square 4 < \square 1 \leq 0$, and if we want

its remainder to be positive, we can write: $\square 13 =$

$\{ \begin{matrix} 4 \\ \text{equal pieces } Z \end{matrix} \}$

$\square 4 \square 4 \square 4 \square 4 + 3 : 0 \leq 3 < 4$.

Definition 3.2 (Critical quotient). Let $a; d \in \mathbb{Z}; d \neq 0$ and let $n \in \mathbb{W}; a _ n _ d _ 0$ or $a _ n _ d _ 0,5$

then the maximum value of n that does not violate one of these inequalitys is called **critical quotient** of d respect to a , for that inequality. We denoted by symbols $[_ ; _]$ as: $[_ a; _ d] = n$. We can get the value of the critical quociont by the lemma 3.3.

Lemma 3.3. Let $[_ a; _ d]$ be the critical quociont in which $a; d \in \mathbb{Z}; d \neq 0$ and let $n \in \mathbb{W}$ then we have:

$a _ n _ d _ 0; a _ (n + 1) _ d > 0 \implies [_ a; _ d] = n$ or $a _ n _ d _ 0; a _ (n + 1) _ d < 0 \implies [_ a; _ d] = n :$

Notation 3.4. Holding the main inequality according to the sign of the integers $a; d$ determines which of the $+$ or \square operators to use.

Intuitive proof. We consider the following successive inequalities:

$a _ 0 _ d _ 0; a _ 1 _ d _ 0; a _ 2 _ d _ 0; \dots; a _ n _ d _ 0; a _ (n + 1) _ d > 0; a _ (n+2) _ d > 0; \dots;$

$a _ 0 _ d _ 0; a _ 1 _ d _ 0; a _ 2 _ d _ 0; \dots; a _ n _ d _ 0; a _ (n + 1) _ d < 0; a _ (n+2) _ d < 0; \dots;$

because n is the largest value that does not violate inequality, thus by definition 3.2, it is equal to the critical quotient, then we can write: $[_ a; _ d] = n$.

Corollary 3.5. Given that the inequality is violated by an infinite well-ordered sequence of natural numbers, then the critical quotient n is unique.

Theorem 3.6 (Arithmetic algorithm theorem with positive remainder⁶). For any two integer $a; d \neq 0$, we can find two unique numbers $q \in \mathbb{W}$ and integer r such that:

$a _ q _ d = r : q \in \mathbb{W}; 0 \leq r < |d|$ [4]

Theorem 3.7 (Arithmetic algorithm theorem with negative remainder). For any two integer $a; d \neq 0$, we can find two unique numbers $q \in \mathbb{W}$ and integer r such that:

$a _ q _ d = r : q \in \mathbb{W}; \square |d| < r \leq 0$:

Proof. Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let $n \in \mathbb{W}$ be the value of the critical quotient $[_ a; _ d]$, thus by Lemma 3.3

and properties of inequalities, we can get following relations.

$[_ a; _ d] = n \implies a _ n _ d _ 0 \implies a _ n _ d = r : r \in \mathbb{Z}; r \leq 0$; thus, it must be $q = n$; then; $q \in \mathbb{W}$:

Since, $a _ (n + 1) _ d > 0 \implies a _ n _ d _ d > 0 \implies r _ d > 0 \implies r > _ d$, on the other hand, $r \leq 0$,

thus, it follows that, $\square |d| < r \leq 0$.

Suppos we have another remainder r_0 , such that, $a = _ q _ d + r_0 : \square |d| < r_0 \leq 0$.

thus by corollary 3.5, the critical quotient q is unique, then $_ q _ d + r_0 = _ q _ d + r \implies r_0 = r$,

therefore, the remainder is also unique. In this way, the theorem is proved.

⁵Because we want to use theorems by natural counting, we assume $n \in \mathbb{W}$, which is the reason for the appearance of $+$ and \square signs, otherwise we can assume that $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

⁶This theorem is the same division algorithm theorem which has been proved

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Corollary 3.8. Holding the remainder condition according to the sign of the integers $a; d$ determines which of the $+$ or \square operators to use.

Remark 3.1. The **congruence theorem** is actually the same arithmetic algorithm theorem regardless

of the remainder condition, which is as follows: $a _ q _ d = r$, a

d
 $r : q \ 2 \ W; r \ 2 \ Z$

Definition 3.3 (critical power). Let $a; d \ 2 \ Z; j d j _ 2$ and let $n \ 2 \ W; d_n j \ a$, then the maximum value of n that does not violate this divisibility relation is called **critical power** of d respect to a or **divisibility degree** of a respect to d . We denoted by symbols $d;)$ as: $da; d) = n$. We can get the critical power value by the lemma 3.9.

Lemma 3.9. Let $da; d)$ be the critical power in which $a; d \ 2 \ Z; j d j _ 2$ and let $-$ be the indivisibility symbol. Let $n \ 2 \ W$, then we have:

$d_n j \ a; d_{n+1} - a, da; d) = n$:

Intuitive proof. We consider the following successive divisibility and indivisibility relations:

$do j \ a; d_1 j \ a; d_2 j \ a; d_3 j \ a; \dots; d_n j \ a; d_{n+1} - a; d_{n+2} - a; d_{n+3} - a; \dots$

because n is the largest value that does not violate divisibility, thus by definition 3.3, it is equal to the divisibility degree, then we can write: $da; d) = n$.

Corollary 3.10. Given that the divisibility relation is violated by an infinite well-ordered sequence of natural numbers, then the critical power n is unique.

Theorem 3.11 (Geometric algorithm theorem). The geometric algorithm states that given any two integers or fractionals a and integer d so that $j d j _ 2$, we can find two unique numbers $q \ 2 \ W$ and integer or fractional number r such that:

a
 $dq = r$ or $a _ dq = r : q \ 2 \ W; d - r$:

Proof. Let $a \ 2 \ Z$ and let $n \ 2 \ W$ be the value of the critical power $da; d)$, thus by Lemma 3.9 and the definition of the divisibility, we can get following relations.

$da; d) = n) d_n j \ a) a = d_n _ r : r \ 2 \ Z$; thus, it must be $q = n$; then; $q \ 2 \ W$: (3.2)

we assume that $d j \ r$, then, $d_n _ d j \ d_n _ r) d_{n+1} j \ a$, but this result is a contradiction, since, according to the lemma 3.9 $d_{n+1} - a$, therefore, it follows that: $d - r$.

Suppos we have another remainder r_0 , such that, $a = b_q _ r_0 : d - r_0$.

Thus by corollary 3.10, the critical power q is unique, then $b_q r_0 = b_q r) r_0 = r$,

therefore, the remainder is also unique.

Notation 3.12. The condition of undivisibility $d - r$ is the same to inequivalency relation r

d
 $6 _ 0$.

4 Recursive forms of regular algorithms

To expand a regular algorithm, we must rewrite its relation recursively, then we change the previous remainder with a suitable function, so that the value of the function is outside the condition of the remainder. The expansion function can be any form and must be such that using it one or more times violates the remainder condition.

Cyclical sequences can be created by the recursive algorithms. For any integer r_0 , two cyclical sequences are created together by a recursive algorithm.

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4.1 Recursive arithmetic algorithm with positive remainder

Definition 4.1 (Sequences created by recursive arithmetic algorithm). For any two integer $r_0 = a$ and $d \neq 0$, two sequences are created by the mapping $A : N \rightarrow Z$ and the recursive arithmetic algorithm as follow:

$r_m = _ (r_{m-1}) _ q_m _ d : q_m \ 2 \ W; 0 _ r_m < j d j; m \ 2 \ N$;

If $a < 0$ or $a _ j d j$ then, $r_0 = a _ q_0 _ d : q_0 \ 2 \ W; 0 _ r_0 < j d j$; else $r_0 = a$; i.e. $0 _ a < j d j$;

where d is called **quoteint modulo of the algorithm**, $_ (r) \ 2 \ Z$ is called **expansion function**.

The inequality $0 _ r < j d j$ is called **remainder condition**.

The expansion function must be such that using it one or more times violates the remainder condition, i.e. $\exists n \ 2 \ N : _ (n)(r) < 0$ or $_ (n)(r) _ j d j$, which is its condition

In this algorithm, q is the number of steps "minus or plus d " which is **quoteint** of modulo.

The q value and its sign must be such that the result of $_ (r_{m-1}) _ q _ d$ is in the interval $[0; j d j)$.

The m value is the number of steps to use $_ (r)$, which is the indice of the next term.

Thus by the recursive arithmetic algorithm, two cyclical sequences are created together, $[r_m g_{m+1}]_{m=0}$,

which is called **remainders sequence** and $[q_m g_{m+1}]_{m=0}$,

which is called **quotients sequence**.

Two cyclical sequences $[q_m g_{m+1}]$ and $[r_m g_{m+1}]$ are created by recursive algorithm can be represent by a **weight path**, such that its vertices are elements of the sequence $[r_m g_{m+1}]$ and its edges weight are element of $[q_m g_{m+1}]$.

Each cyclical sequence can be denoted by its starter term and last vertice, between two simbols

as $a; r_m$, when its algorithm is known. the last vertex is often in the final cycle. Hence, we can also represent both resulting sequences by a matrix. See the graph 4.1 and example 4.1.
 Thus by definitions, in the graph 4.1, the path $a; r_m =$

—
 q_m
 r_m

$\frac{+1}{m=00}$

; the stop value $r_m = r_6$ and

the stop time $M = 6$, since $r_7 = r_2$, then the period $p = 7 - 2 = 5$, therefore, the final cycles are

$C_5 = r_2; r_3; r_4; r_5; r_6$; C_0

$5 = q_3; q_4; q_5; q_6; q_7$:

r_{00}
 q_0

/ r_0
 q_1

/ r_1
 q_2

/ r_2

q_3

) r_3

q_4

) r_4

q_5

) r_5

q_6

) r_6

q_7

$r_7 = r_2 = d - q_7 = r_2$

i : (4.1)

Example 4.1. If we start with: $r_0 = 73$; $d = 47$ and $_(r) = 7 - r_2 + 79$, then the remainders and

quotients sequences and its path graph are as follows:

73 1

/ 26 102

/ 17 44

/ 34 173

/ 40

239

)

46

316

)

39

228

)

10

16

)

27

110

)

12

23

1 6

7

& 2

2

)

13

26

$7 \cdot 13 + 79 = 47 \cdot 26 = 40$

k

$73; r_m =$

2

4

q

r
 m
 $9 =$
 $;$
 $+1$
 $m=0$
 $=$
 2
 4
 $0\ 1\ 102\ 44\ 173\ 239\ 316\ 228\ 16\ 110\ 23\ 7\ 2\ 26\ :::$
 $73\ 26\ 17\ 34\ 40\ 46\ 39\ 10\ 27\ 12\ 6\ 2\ 13\ 40\ :::$
 $0\ 0\ 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9\ 10\ 11\ 12\ :::$
 $9 =$
 $;$

A weight path is a walk in which all vertices and edges are distinct and every its edge has a weight, where a value is relayed to a vertex.

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Thus, the stop time $M = 11$, the stop value $r_M = 13$; $q_M = 2$, since $r_3 = r_{12} = 40$, then the period $p = 12 \square 3 = 9$, the final cycles are as follow:

$C_9 = _40; 46; 39; 10; 27; 12; 6; 2; 13_;$ C_0

$_9 = _239; 316; 228; 16; 110; 23; 7; 2; 26_;$

4.1.1 Recursive division algorithm

The recursive division algorithm is a special case of the recursive arithmetic algorithm with positive remainder, in which the expansion function is $_ (r) = b _ r$, where $b \in \mathbb{N}$; $b _ 2$ is the **numerical base**.

Modulo $d \in \mathbb{Z}$; $d \neq 0$ and remainder condition is $0 _ r < |d|$.

A familiar example for us in this case, the decimal expansion of a numerical fraction is done by division algorithm.

The decimal expansions of rational numbers always reaches periodic sequences which is a numerical cycle.

Example 4.2. If a division algorithm is started with $r_{00} = 81; 59$, modulo $d = 13$, and $_ (r) = b _ r = 10 _ r$ then the result sequences and their path graph are as follows:

$r_{00} = 81 _ 6$

$/ r_0 = 3$

2

) 4

3

' 1

$q_3=0$

) 10

7

(9

6

-

$r_5 = 12$

9

$r_6=10_12\square13_9=3$

k ;

Thus by the path graph, remainders and quotients sequence are as follow:

$[81; r_{mg} = [81; 3; 4; 1; 10; 9; 12; 3; 4; 1; 10; 9; 12; :: :g$

fall into

$\square! C_6 = _3; 4; 1; 10; 9; 12_;$

$[q_{mg} = [0; 6; 2; 3; 0; 7; 6; 9; 2; 3; 0; 7; 6; 9; :: :g$

final cycle

$\square! C_0$

$_6 = _2; 3; 0; 7; 6; 9_;$

therefore, the stop value $r_M = r_5 = 12$, the stop time $M = 5$, since $r_6 = r_0 = 3$, then the period

$p = 6 \square 0 = 6$.

$r_{00} = 59$

4

$/ r_0 = 7$

5

) 5

3

) 11

q₄=8
 (6
 4
 (8
 6

r₅ = 2 = r_M

r₆=10_2 □ 13_1=7

k :

By matrix form: _59; r_M _ =

2

4

q

r

m

9=

;

+1

m=0

=

2

4

0 4 5 3 8 4 6 1 5 3 8 4 6 1 :::

59 7 5 11 6 8 2 7 5 11 6 8 2 7 :::

0 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 :::

9=

;

Thus, the stop time M = 5, the stop value r_M = 2; q_M = 2, since r₆ = r₀ = 7, then the period

p = 6 □ 0 = 6, the final cycles (stop cycles) are as follow:

remainders stop cycle C₆ = _7; 5; 11; 6; 8; 2_, quotients stop cycle C₀

₆ = _5; 3; 8; 4; 6; 1_.

Corollary 4.3. The quotients sequence is the same decimal expansion of a fraction so that its terms

are decimal digits of the fraction.

For example: ₈₁

13 = 6:

z } {

230769

z } {

230769 :::, ₄₃

13 = 3:

z } {

307692

z } {

307692 :::, ₅₉

13 = 4:

z } {

538461

z } {

538461 :::, ₉₇

13 = 7:

z } {

461538

z } {

461538 :::, □₁₉

13 = □1:

z } {

461538

z } {

461538 :::, see the figure 1.

Corollary 4.4. All cyclical sequences that is created by a division algorithm with r₀₀ = a 2 Z, the modulo d = 13, and the expansion function _(r) = 10_r, can only reach one of the quocient cycles in the figure 1.

3
 0 7
 6
 2 9
 5
 3 8
 4
 1 6

Figure 1: The quotient stop cycles in the form of a cycle graph for a 13, where, a ∈ Z.

4.2 Recursive geometric algorithm

Definition 4.2 (sequences created by recursive geometric algorithm). For any two integer $r_{00} = a$, $d \in \mathbb{Z}$, two sequence are created by the mapping $G : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ and the recursive geometric algorithm as follows:

$r_m =$
 $\lfloor \frac{r_{m-1}}{d} \rfloor$
 d_{q_m}
 $: q_m \in \mathbb{W}; d - r_m; 8m \in \mathbb{N}$
 If $d \nmid a$ then, $r_0 =$
 a
 d_{q_0}
 $: q_0 \in \mathbb{W}; d - r_0$; else $r_0 = a$:

Similarly, $d \in \mathbb{N}$ is called **power modulo** and $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor \in \mathbb{Z}$ is called **expansion function** and $9n \in \mathbb{N} : d \nmid \lfloor \cdot \rfloor(r)$ is its condition. $d - r$ is the remainder condition.

In this algorithm, q is the number of steps "divided by d " which is the power of the modulo for one step and m is the number of steps to use $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor(r)$, which is the indice value of the next term. Here we can assume that $d > 0$.

Thus by the recursive geometric algorithm, two cyclical sequences are created, $\{r_m\}_{m=0}^{\infty}$, that is called **remainders sequence** and $\{q_m\}_{m=0}^{\infty}$, which is called **powers sequence**.

Definition 4.3. The number of steps "divided by d ", to generate the term r_m is called its **shrinkage parameter** and denoted by s_m .

Let $\{r_m\}_{m=0}^{\infty}$ be a Collatz sequence then, all shrinkage parameters create the sequence $\{s_m\}_{m=0}^{\infty}$ so that $s_m =$

P_m
 $i=0 \dots q_i$. In a stop cycle $s_p =$
 P_p
 $i=1 \dots q_i$.

Definition 4.4. the shrinkage parameter of the first stop is called **stop parameter of cyclical sequence**, and denoted by S . If M is the **stop time**; then $s_M = S$. The stop value r_M doesn't depend on starter value $r_{00} = a$.

Example 4.5. If we start the recursive geometric algorithm by $r_0 = 93$, with modulo $d = 2$ and expansion function $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor(r) = \lfloor \cdot \rfloor 7$, then the cyclical sequences and its weight path are as follows:

$r_0 = 93$
 \downarrow
 $/ 43_2$
 $/ 9_1$
 $/ 1$
 $q_4 = 1$
 $/ \square 3$
 \downarrow
 $* 2 \square 5$
 $r_6 = \square 5 \cdot 7$
 $22 = \square 3$
 \downarrow
 $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor 93; r_M =$

```

2
4
qm
rm
m
9=
;
+1
m=0
=
2
4
0 1 2 1 1 1 2 1 2 :: :
93 43 9 1 □3 □5 □3 □5 □3 :: :
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 :: :
9=
;

```

Thus, the stop time $M = 5$, the stop values $r_M = \square 5$; $q_M = 2$, since $r_4 = r_6 = \square 3$, then the period $p = 6 \square 4 = 2$, the stop cycles are: $C_2 = _ \square 3; \square 5 _$; $C_0 = _ 1; 2 _$; $s_p = 3$:

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Corollary 4.6. In the subject of cyclical sequences, both Sequences created by recursive arithmetic algorithm in integers Z and created by recursive geometric algorithm in rationals Q eventually reach (fall into) a cycle from a term onwards.

Therefore, Collatz's sequence is a special case of sequences created by geometric algorithm with $_ (r) = 3r + 1$ and $d = 2$ in naturals N , which reaches to stop cycle $_ 4; 2; 1 _$.

Definition 4.5. The final part of any cyclical sequence is a periodic sequence in which the terms with index $m = M + k _ p$ lie on a straight line, here, we call it **extension line of the sequence**. Since $r_M = r_{M+k_p}$, then its equation is $y = r_M$. see figure 3

4.3 Partition by recursive algorithms

By running a recursive algorithm with known expansion function and modulo on integers, each time it is used, it creates a remainder and after a few uses it reaches the stop remainder and from this remainder onward, the recursive algorithm falls into the final cycle.

For all integers, a finite number of cycles is created, so we can part the integers based on.

The set of integers that reach the same stop remainder form a **tree**, so each stop remainder is equivalent to a tree and denoted by $[r_M]$.

Each cyclical sequence is a path of the tree so that this path is from vertex r_0 to the final cycle, and is denoted by $_ r_0; r_M _$.

Each stop remainder belong to a final cycle so the cycle C_p has precisely p tree, hence, the set of all trees is a partition on Z .

Definition 4.6. We can define an isocyclic on Z , when Two elements $x; y \in Z$ create the same cycle by a recursive algorithm. Thus isocyclic class of a is called the set of all element of Z which are isocycle to a , this class is denoted by dac . Two elements $x; y \in Z$ are isocycle if and only if they belong to the same isocyclic class, thus we can write: $dxc = dyc$.

The set of isocyclic classes is a partition of Z . The smallest element of an cycle may be chosen as a representative of the isocyclic class as $d_{C_{min}C}$.

The stop value of the arithmetic sequences resulting from the division algorithm with modulo d is precisely one of the integers in the complete set of stop remainders F_n as follows: the remaining condition of the algorithm tell us that,

$$0 \leq r < d \Rightarrow F_{n=d} = \{0; 1; 2; \dots; d \square 1\}g:$$

This means that each integer is the vertex of precisely one of the trees in the following partition. Let n be the number of the subset in partition P_n then,

$$P_{n=d} = \{f[0]; [1]; [2]; \dots; [d \square 1]g\}$$

In example 4.2, division algorithm with modulo $d = 13$ and $_ (r) = 10r$ create two partitions on Z as follows:

the set of stop remainders $F_{13} = \{0; 1; 2; 3; 4; 5; 6; 7; 8; 9; 10; 11; 12\}g;$

thus, the tree partition is $P_{13} = \{f[0]; [1]; [2]; [3]; [4]; [5]; [6]; [7]; [8]; [9]; [10]; [11]; [12]g\}$

Let H_n be the complete set of final cycles which are created by the division algorithm then,

$$H_3 = \{f_0 _ ; _ 1; 10; 9; 12; 3; 4 _ ; _ 2; 7; 5; 11; 6; 8 _ g\}$$

a tree is a graph in which any two vertices are connected by exactly one path.

that is created by a recursive algorithm

value a , which is also $m = 0$ for the initial term r_0 .

Remark 5.1. In view of the new definition, for proof of Collatz's conjecture we have to prove which any Collatz sequence with a $2N$ eventually reaches the stop cycle $_1_$, in other word, it converges to $r_M = 1$. see the graph(B) in figure 2.

Example 5.3. The Collatz jump sequence and its **weight path** with $r_{00} = 28$ is as follows: we can use program code in the listing 1,

```

r00 = 28
q0=2
28
22=7
/ 7 1
3_7+1
21=11
/ 11 1
/ 17 2
/ 13 3
/ 5
q5=4
3_5+1
24=1
/ 1 >
3_1+1
22=1

```

g 2

Thus by this graph, $_28; r_M = [28; r_{Mg+1}$

$m=0 = [28; 7; 11; 17; 13; 5; 1; 1; 1; \dots; g; r_5 = 1;$

$M = 5$, then the stop cycle $C_1 = _1_$. $[q_{mg} = [0; 2; 1; 1; 2; 3; 4; 2; 2; 2; \dots; g) C_0$

$1 = _2_$.

By running program code in the listing 1 for a $2Z$, all terms of the Collatz sequence, $[r_{mg}$ and their parameters sequences, $[q_{mg}, [s_{mg}$ are calculated.

In the table 1, the stop parameters $M; S; T$ of collatz's sequence with a $2Z$, so that $r_M = _1$, which are created by program code in the listing 1. Always $T = M + S$.

Lemma 5.4. Let $[r_{mg+1}$

$m=0$ be a Collatz sequence with $r_0 \in 2Z$. If $m _1) 3 - r_m$.

Proof. $3 _ r_{m+1} + 1 = 2q_{mf} m) 2q_{mf} m$

$3 _$
 $1; 2$

$3 _$
 $(1) r_m$

$3 _$
 $(1) 3 - r_m$.

By the Collatz algorithm with $_r) = 3r + 1; d = 2$, two partitions on Z with the composition sizes $111; 12 + 21 + 71$ are created.

The complete set of stop remainder on integer Z is as follows:

$F_{11} = f_1; [1; [5; [7; [17; [25; [37; [41; [55; [61; [91]g;$

hence, the tree partition by assuming that zero is odd, as follows:

$P_{11} = f[1]; [1]; [5]; [7]; [17]; [25]; [37]; [41]; [55]; [61]; [91]g = Z;$

The complete set of the stop cycles on Z is as follows:

$H_4 = f_1; _1; _5; [7; _17; [25; [37; [55; [41; [61; [91]g;$

thus, the isocyclic partition $P_4 = fd1c; d1c; d5c; d17cg = Z$,

in which $P_1 = fd1cg = Z; P_3 = fd1c; d5c; d17cg = Z$.

Lemma 5.5. Let $[r_{mg+1}$

$m=0$ be Collatz's sequence. If r_0 is positive, negative or fractional, so is r_m .

In other words, $r_0 \in 2Z; r_m \in 2Z; r_0 \in 2Z; r_m \in 2Z; r_0 \in 2Q; r_m \in 2Q$.

5.2 Symmetric sequences

The difference of the symmetric sequence algorithm is in their expansion function, But the parameters of both are the same.

A sequence with $_r) = 3r + 1, r_0 \in 2Z$ and A sequence with $_r) = 3r - 1, r_0 \in 2Z$ are symmetrical. Let $_r) = 3r - 1; d = 2$ then its recursive algorithm is as follows:

$r_m = L(r_{m+1}) =$

$3r_{m+1} - 1$

$2q_m$

$: q_m \in 2N; 2 - r_m; 8m \in 2N; r_0 =$

a

$2q_0$

: qo2 W; 2 - r_m:

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0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24

1

10

23

35

53

70

80

106

160

23

70

35

106

53

160

80

40

20

10

5

16

8

4 2 1

4 2 1

4 2 1

4 2 1

23

35

53

5

1 1 1 1

time t

Data r

Old definition (A)

$y = r_t$

$y = r_m$

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1 5

23

35

53

23

35

53

5

1 1 1 1

pulse m

Data r

New definition (B)

$y = r_m$

Figure 2: Graphs of the Collatz sequence with $r_0 = 23$ on based both definition.

Example 5.6. If we start a recursive geometric algorithm with: $r_0 = 63$; $d = 2$ and $_(r) = 3 _ r \square 1$,

then the remainders and parameters sequences are as follows:

we can use program code in the listing 1.

$_63$; $r_m _ =$

2

4

q_m

r_m

m

9=

;

+1

m=0

=

2
 4
 0 2 2 3 1 3 2 1 2 1 :::
 63 47 35 13 19 7 5 7 5 7 :::
 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 :::

9=
 ;; see figure 3,
 therefore, the stop time $M = 6$, the stop remainder $r_M = 5$; $s_M = 13$, since, $r_5 = r_7 = 7$, then the period $p = 7 \square 5 = 2$, the final cycles are $C_2 = _7; 5_;$ C_0
 $2 = _2; 1_.$

By this algorithm with $_(r) = 3r \square 1$; $d = 2$, two partitions on Z with the composition sizes 1_{11} ; $1_2 + 2_1 + 7_1$ are created.

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0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
 □70
 □50
 □30
 □10
 10
 30
 50
 70
 y = 5
 y = □5
 63
 47
 35
 13
 19
 7 5 7 5 7 5 7 5 7 5
 □63
 □47
 □35
 □13
 □19
 □7 □5 □7 □5 □7 □5 □7 □5 □7 □5 □7 □5

pulse m

Data r

The Collatz jump sequence and its extension line

y = rm by r0 = 63
 y = rm by r0 = □63
 Extension lines

Figure 3: Symmetric sequences by $_(r) = 3r \square 1$; $r_0 = 63$ and $_(r) = 3r + 1$; $r_0 = \square 63$.

The complete set of the stop remainder is as follows:

$F_{11} = f \square 1; 1; 5; 7; 17; 25; 37; 41; 55; 61; 91g$;

hence, the tree partition is as follows:

$P_{11} = f[\square 1]; [1]; [5]; [7]; [17]; [25]; [37]; [41]; [55]; [61]; [91]g = Z$:

The complete set of the stop cycles is as follows:

$H_4 = f \square 1_; _1_; _5; 7_; _17; 25; 37; 55; 41; 61; 91_g$;

thus, the isocyclic partition $P_4 = fd \square 1c$; $d1c$; $d5c$; $d17cg = Z$,

in which $P_1 = fd \square 1cg = Z$; $P_3 = fd1c$; $d5c$; $d17cg = Z$.

6 Conclusion

This reaserch introduces a new subject of number theory called **cyclical sequences theory**, which is still in its early stages of development and new concepts and theorems can be discovered by continuing the research.

Collatz's conjecture falls within the scope of this theory. Two of its results are the proof of Collatz's conjecture¹² after 87 years and new tree partitions of rational number and integers.

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Appendix A Calculator codes and tables

Here, we used a program code that can be executed in Texas Ti-84 calculator.

Listing 1: Calculate the Collatz sequence r_m and its parameters q_m ; s_m for a $2 \in \mathbb{Z}$.

```
a=?; m=0; q=0; s=0; Print (a, " ", m, " ", q, " ", s);
r=a; If(Mod(r,2)==0, While (Mod(r,2)==0, r/=2; q++;s ++);
Print (" ", r, " ", m, " ", q, " ", s);
While (r !=1&& r!=-1&&r=-5&&r!=-17, m++; r=3*r+1; q=0;
While (Mod(r,2)==0, r/=2; q++; s ++);
Print (" ", r, " ", m, " ", q, " ", s))
```

Table 1: The stop parameters of a Collatz sequence for a $2 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so that the stop value $r_m = -1$.

starter value Stop parameters

a M S T

27 41 70 111

63728127 357 592 949

670617279 370 616 986

9780657630 424 707 1131

9780657631 425 707 1132

75128138247 461 767 1228

989345275647 506 842 1348

-989345275637 50 119 169

-63728119 60 121 181

-7512813821 91 177 268

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Appendix B Non-stop geometric algorithms

Theorem B.1 (Logarithm algorithm theorem). The logarithm theorem states that given any two real numbers a ; $d > 0$ so that $d \neq 1$, we can find two unique numbers $q \in \mathbb{W}$ and real number r such that:

$a \cdot d_q = r$ or a

$d_q = r : q \in \mathbb{W}; 1 \leq r < d$:

Definition B.1 (sequences created by recursive logarithm algorithm). For any two real numbers $r_0 = a$; $d > 0$, $d \neq 1$, two sequence are created by the mapping $G : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and the recursive logarithm algorithm as follows:

$r_m = \lfloor (r_{m-1}) \rfloor \cdot d_{q_m}$ OR $r_m =$

$\lfloor (r_{m-1})$

d_{q_m}

: $q_m \in \mathbb{W}; 1 \leq r_m < d$; $8m \in \mathbb{N}$:

If $a \geq d$; then, $r_0 =$

a

d_{q_0}

: $q_0 \in \mathbb{W}; 1 \leq r_0 < d$;

and If $a < 1$; then, $r_0 = a \cdot d_{q_0} : q_0 \in \mathbb{W}; 1 \leq r_0 < d$; else $r_0 = a$; i.e. $1 \leq a < d$:

Similarly, $d \in \mathbb{R}$ is called **power base** and $\lfloor (r) \in \mathbb{Z}$ is called **expansion function** and

$9n \in \mathbb{N} : \lfloor (n)(r) < 1$ or $\lfloor (n)(r) \geq d$ is its condition. $1 \leq r < d$ is the remainder condition.

In this algorithm, q is the number of steps "divided by d " or "multiplied by d " which is the power value in one step. The m value is the number of steps to use $\lfloor (r)$, which is the indice value of the next term. The condition 1

$\lfloor (r) < r - 1$ is also an option for this algorithm.

By logarithm recursive algorithm, we can calculate $\log_b(a)$ up to billions of decimal digits, without using series or operator factorial !. This algorithm created non-stop sequences. We will provide its full article in the near future.

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