## $3 x+1$ Minus the +

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received Aug 10, 2001, accepted April 9, 2002.

We use Conway's Fractran language to derive a function $R: \mathbb{Z}^{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{+}$of the form

$$
R(n)=r_{i} n \text { if } n \equiv i \bmod d
$$

where $d$ is a positive integer, $0 \leq i<d$ and $r_{0}, r_{1}, \ldots r_{d-1}$ are rational numbers, such that the famous $3 x+1$ conjecture holds if and only if the $R$-orbit of $2^{n}$ contains 2 for all positive integers $n$. We then show that the $R$-orbit of an arbitrary positive integer is a constant multiple of an orbit that contains a power of 2 . Finally we apply our main result to show that any cycle $\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{m-1}\right\}$ of positive integers for the $3 x+1$ function must satisfy

$$
\sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}}\left\lfloor\frac{x_{i}}{2}\right\rfloor=\sum_{i \in \mathcal{O}}\left\lfloor\frac{x_{i}}{2}\right\rfloor+k
$$

where $O=\left\{i: x_{i}\right.$ is odd $\}, \mathcal{E}=\left\{i: x_{i}\right.$ is even $\}$, and $k=|O|$. The method used illustrates a general mechanism for deriving mathematical results about the iterative dynamics of arbitrary integer functions from Fractran algorithms.

Keywords: Collatz conjecture, $3 x+1$ problem, Fractran, discrete dynamical systems

## 1 Introduction and Main Results

The famous $3 x+1$ conjecture (cf. [3],[4]) states that for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$such that $T^{k}(n)=1$ where

$$
T(n)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2} n & \text { if } n \text { is even } \\ \frac{3}{2} n+\frac{1}{2} & \text { if } n \text { is odd. }\end{cases}
$$

and $T^{k}=\underbrace{T \circ T \circ \cdots \circ T}_{k}$ denotes the $k$-fold composition of $T$ with itself. If we let $T_{0}(x)=\frac{x}{2}$ and $T_{1}(x)=$ $\frac{3}{2} x+\frac{1}{2}$, then for any $n$ and $k, T^{k}(n)=T_{v_{k-1}} \circ T_{v_{k-2}} \circ \cdots \circ T_{v_{0}}(n)$ for some $v_{0}, \ldots v_{k-1} \in\{0,1\}$ and $v_{i} \equiv$ $T^{i}(n) \bmod 2$. Several authors (cf. [3]) have given explicit formulas for this composition, e.g.

$$
T_{v_{k-1}} \circ T_{v_{k-2}} \circ \cdots \circ T_{v_{0}}(n)=\frac{3^{m}}{2^{k}} n+\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} v_{i} \frac{3^{v_{i+1}+\cdots+v_{k-1}}}{2^{k-i}} \text { where } m=\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} v_{i}
$$

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Compare this somewhat unwieldy expression with the much simpler one

$$
R_{v_{k-1}} \circ R_{v_{k-2}} \circ \cdots \circ R_{v_{0}}(n)=\frac{3^{m}}{2^{k}} n
$$

when $R_{0}(n)=\frac{1}{2} n$ and $R_{1}(n)=\frac{3}{2} n$. With this example in mind, it is natural to ask if there is some function of the form

$$
R(n)= \begin{cases}r_{0} n & \text { if } n \equiv 0 \bmod d  \tag{1.1}\\ r_{1} n & \text { if } n \equiv 1 \bmod d \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ r_{d-1} n & \text { if } n \equiv d-1 \bmod d\end{cases}
$$

where $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{d-1}$ are rational numbers and $d \geq 2$ such that knowledge of certain $R$-orbits would settle the $3 x+1$ problem, i.e. is there an addition-free variant of the $3 x+1$ function whose dynamics encode the conjecture? We answer this question in the affirmative with the following result
Theorem 1 There are infinitely many functions $R$ of the form (I.I) having the property that the $3 x+1$ conjecture is true if and only if for all positive integers $n$ the $R$-orbit of $2^{n}$ contains 2 . In particular,

$$
R(n)=\left\{\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{11} n & \text { if } 11 \mid n  \tag{1.2}\\
\frac{136}{15} n & \text { if } 15 \mid n \text { and NOTA } \\
\frac{5}{17} n & \text { if } 17 \mid n \text { and NOTA } \\
\frac{4}{5} n & \text { if } 5 \mid n \text { and NOTA } \\
\frac{26}{21} n & \text { if } 21 \mid n \text { and NOTA } \\
\frac{7}{13} n & \text { if } 13 \mid n \text { and NOTA } \\
\frac{1}{7} n & \text { if } 7 \mid n \text { and NOTA } \\
\frac{33}{4} n & \text { if } 4 \mid n \text { and NOTA } \\
\frac{5}{2} n & \text { if } 2 \mid n \text { and NOTA } \\
7 n & \text { otherwise }
\end{align*}\right.
$$

(where NOTA means "None of the Above" conditions hold) is one such function. Furthermore, for any nonnegative integer $n$ the $R$-orbit of $2^{n}$ contains the subsequence

$$
2^{n}, 2^{T(n)}, 2^{T^{2}(n)}, 2^{T^{3}(n)} \cdots
$$

and these are the only powers of two that occur.
Note that the function $R$ given in the theorem is of the form (I.I) if we take

$$
d=\operatorname{lcm}(11,15,17,5,21,13,7,4,2)=1021020
$$

since the first condition satisfied by $n$ will also be the first condition satisfied by $n+d j$ for any $j$.
Proof: The proof is a straightforward application of Conway's Fractran language and its mathematical consequences. We refer the reader to [2] for details. A Fractran program consists of a finite list of positive rational numbers, $\left[r_{1}, \ldots r_{t}\right]$. The state of a Fractran machine consists of a single positive integer
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$S$. The exponents of the primes in the prime factorization of $S$ are used as registers for storing nonnegative integers. The program is executed by multiplying $S$ by the first rational number in the list for which the product is a nonnegative integer (and halts if no such integer exists). Thus, each Fractran program corresponds to a function of the form (I.1) where execution of the program corresponds to iteration of the function.

The Fractran program

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\frac{1}{11}, \frac{136}{15}, \frac{5}{17}, \frac{4}{5}, \frac{26}{21}, \frac{7}{13}, \frac{1}{7}, \frac{33}{4}, \frac{5}{2}, 7\right] \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

when started with $S=2^{n}$, will produce $S=2^{T(n)}$ as the next $S$ power of 2 in the orbit. To see this, consider the flowchart for this program indicated in Figure 11. (In what follows we will only be concerned with an initial state that is a power of 2 , as required.)


Fig. 1: A Fractran program for $T$

The edges of the flowchart are labeled in order of decreasing priority using a single arrow, double arrow, and triangle respectively. At a given node, the current state $S$ is multiplied by the fraction labeling the edge of highest priority for which the product is a positive integer. The powers of the primes $5,7,11,13,17$ in $S$ correspond to the nodes $o, q, n, r, p$ respectively, a positive exponent of one of the primes indicating the program is at that node (and it is at node $m$ if it is at no other node). The exponents of 2 and 3 in $S$ are used as registers to compute $T$. We will refer to these exponents as $\alpha$ and $\beta$ respectively.
When the program is started with $S=2^{n}$ at node $m$, it will execute the loop between nodes $m$ and $n$ exactly $q=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$ times, each time decreasing $\alpha$ by 2 and incrementing $\beta$. This results in $S=2^{n \bmod 2} 3^{q}$.

If $n$ is odd then $n=2 q+1$ for some positive integer $q$ and execution proceeds to node $o$ where the state becomes $S=3^{q} 5$. The loop between nodes $o$ and $p$ then produces $S=2^{3 q} 5$ which is then multiplied by
$\frac{2^{2}}{5}$ to produce

$$
S=2^{3 q+2}=2^{(6 q+4) / 2}=2^{(6 q+3+1) / 2}=2^{(3(2 q+1)+1) / 2}=2^{(3 n+1) / 2}=2^{T(n)}
$$

as required.
If $n$ is even, then upon completion of the $m n \operatorname{loop} S$ is multiplied by 7 moving execution to node $q$. The loop between nodes $q$ and $r$ produces $S=2^{q} 7$ which is then multiplied by $1 / 7$ to produce

$$
S=2^{q}=2^{n / 2}=2^{T(n)}
$$

as required.
Iteration of the function $R$ given in the theorem starting with seed $2^{n}$ corresponds exactly to execution of this Fractran program (the sequence of states being the $R$-orbit of $2^{n}$ ). Since the choice of primes and algorithm used in this program was arbitrary, there are infinitely many such programs, and thus infinitely many such functions. This completes the proof.
Theorem $\rrbracket$ shows the relationship between the $R$-orbits of two powers and the $3 x+1$ problem. One might ask for its own sakef how the iterates of $R$ behave for arbitrary positive integer inputs. We answer this question with the following result.

Theorem 2 Let $R$ be defined as in (I.2). Then for all $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h \in \mathbb{N}$

1. for all $m \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$with $\operatorname{gcd}(m, 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 17)=1$,

$$
R\left(2^{a} 3^{b} 5^{c} 7^{d} 11^{e} 13^{f} 17^{g} m\right)=m \cdot R\left(2^{a} 3^{b} 5^{c} 7^{d} 11^{e} 13^{f} 17^{g}\right)
$$

and
2. there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $R^{k}\left(2^{a} 3^{b} 5^{c} 7^{d} 11^{e} 13^{f} 17^{g}\right)=2^{j}$ for some $j$.

Thus if we iterate $R$ starting with an arbitrary positive integer $n$, the prime factors of $n$ that are greater than 17 are left unchanged, and the iterates of the remaining factor eventually reach a two power (after which the behavior proceeds as indicated in Theorem (I).
Proof: The proof of part (1) follows immediately from the definition of $R$, since prime factors greater than 17 are not affected when a positive integer is multiplied by any of the rational numbers listed in (1.3).

To prove part (2), let $S$ be the set of positive integers that are not divisible by a prime greater than 17 . Since no prime greater than 17 is a factor of the numerator of any fraction in (I.3), $R$ maps elements of $S$ to elements of $S$.
Let $S^{\prime}$ be the subset of $S$ consisting of integers of the form $2^{a} 3^{b}$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$. By the definition of $R, R^{2}\left(2^{a+2} 3^{b}\right)=2^{a} 3^{b+1}$ so that $R^{2 b}\left(2^{a+2 b}\right)=2^{a} 3^{b}$. Thus any element of $S^{\prime}$ is in the $R$-orbit of a power of two. Since the $R$-orbit of $2^{a+2 b}$ contains infinitely many terms that are powers of two by Theorem 1, so does the $R$-orbit of $2^{a} 3^{b}$ for any $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus it suffices to show that the $R$-orbit of any element of $S$ contains an element of $S^{\prime}$.
Define $\alpha: S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ by $\alpha\left(2^{e_{1}} 3^{e_{2}} 5^{e_{3}} 7^{e_{4}} 11^{e_{5}} 13^{e_{6}} 17^{e_{7}}\right)=\sum_{i=2}^{7} e_{i}$. We argue by contradiction, and suppose that we have an element $n$ of $S$ so that all iterates $R^{k}(n) \notin S^{\prime}$. Then all terms in the $R$-orbit of $n$ are divisible

[^0]by some prime in $\{5,7,11,13,17\}$. Thus by the definition of $R$, for all $k \geq 1, R^{k}(n)=r_{k} R^{k-1}(n)$ for some $r_{k} \in\left\{\frac{1}{11}, \frac{136}{15}, \frac{5}{17}, \frac{4}{5}, \frac{26}{21}, \frac{7}{13}, \frac{1}{7}\right\}$. For any $k \in \mathbb{N}$, if $r_{k+1} \in\left\{\frac{1}{11}, \frac{136}{15}, \frac{4}{5}, \frac{26}{21}, \frac{1}{7}\right\}$ then
$$
\alpha\left(R^{k+1}(n)\right)=\alpha\left(r_{k+1} R^{k}(n)\right)<\alpha\left(R^{k}(n)\right)
$$
and if $r_{k+1} \in\left\{\frac{5}{17}, \frac{7}{13}\right\}$ then
$$
\alpha\left(R^{k+1}(n)\right)=\alpha\left(r_{k+1} R^{k}(n)\right)=\alpha\left(R^{k}(n)\right) .
$$

So the $R$-orbit of $n$ has nonincreasing values of $\alpha$, i.e. the sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha(n), \alpha(R(n)), \alpha\left(R^{2}(n)\right), \ldots \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a nonincreasing. Since none of the terms are a two power (by our assumption), (1.4) is a nonincreasing sequence of positive integers whose terms are all less than or equal to $\alpha(n)$. Thus there must be some $h \geq 0$ such that $\alpha\left(R^{k}(n)\right)=\alpha\left(R^{h}(n)\right)$ for all $k \geq h$. So $r_{k} \in\left\{\frac{5}{17}, \frac{7}{13}\right\}$ for all $k \geq h$. But multiplication by these values of $r_{k}$ decreases the exponent of either 13 or 17 in the prime factorization of an integer, so that repeated multiplication by these fractions eventually produces a non-integer value. This contradicts our assumption and completes the proof.

Conway [1] used an argument similar to the proof of Theorem $\mathbb{1}$ to show that there exist functions of the form (I.I) for which the fate of the orbit of an arbitrary positive integer is algorithmically undecidable. In Theorem $\square$ we turn this method around to obtain a positive result, and now illustrate how this result can be used to obtain mathematical results about the conjecture itself.

## 2 An Application

Let $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ be positive integers such that $x_{i}=T\left(x_{i-1}\right)$ for $0<i<n$ and $x_{0}=T\left(x_{n-1}\right)$. In this situation we say $\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right\}$ is a $T$-cycle. If the $3 x+1$ conjecture is true, then the only $T$-cycle of positive integers is $\{1,2\}$ (the existence of any other positive integer in a $T$-cycle being a counterexample). Thus it is of interest to study the properties of positive integer $T$-cyles.

Suppose $\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right\}$ is a $T$-cycle of positive integers with $x_{i}=T\left(x_{i-1}\right)$ for $0<i<n$ and $x_{0}=$ $T\left(x_{n-1}\right)$. Then by Theorem 1 the $R$-orbit of $2^{x_{0}}$ is also cyclic and contains $\left\{2^{x_{0}}, \ldots, 2^{x_{n-1}}\right\}$ as a subset. Thus there exists some positive integer $t$ such that $R^{t}\left(x_{0}\right)=x_{0}$. But each application of $R$ is simply multiplication by one of the rational numbers in $\left\{\frac{1}{11}, \frac{136}{15}, \frac{5}{17}, \frac{4}{5}, \frac{26}{21}, \frac{7}{13}, \frac{1}{7}, \frac{33}{4}, \frac{5}{2}, 7\right\}$ so that we must have

$$
x_{0}=R^{t}\left(x_{0}\right)=\left(\frac{1}{11}\right)^{a}\left(\frac{136}{15}\right)^{b}\left(\frac{5}{17}\right)^{c}\left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^{d}\left(\frac{26}{21}\right)^{e}\left(\frac{7}{13}\right)^{f}\left(\frac{1}{7}\right)^{g}\left(\frac{33}{4}\right)^{h}\left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^{i} 7^{j} x_{0}
$$

for some nonnegative integers $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j$ with $a+b+c+d+e+f+g+h+i+j=t$. Collecting prime factors on the right hand side and dividing by $x_{0}$ gives us

$$
2^{3 b+2 d+e-2 h-i} 3^{-b-e+h} 5^{-b+c-d+i} 7^{-e+f-g+j} 11^{-a+h} 13^{e-f} 17^{b-c}=1 .
$$

This yields the system of linear equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
3 b+2 d+e-2 h-i & =0 \\
-b-e+h & =0 \\
-b+c-d+i & =0 \\
-e+f-g+j & =0 \\
-a+h & =0 \\
e-f & =0 \\
b-c & =0
\end{aligned}
$$

which is equivalent to the system

$$
\begin{align*}
a & =2 c+i  \tag{2.1}\\
b & =c \\
d & =i \\
e & =c+i \\
f & =c+i \\
g & =j \\
h & =2 c+i .
\end{align*}
$$

Now define $O=\left\{i: x_{i}\right.$ is odd $\}$ and $\mathcal{E}=\left\{i: x_{i}\right.$ is even $\}$ and let $k=|O|$ so that $|\mathcal{E}|=n-k$. Then as explained in the proof of Theorem 1 we see that

$$
\begin{align*}
i & =k  \tag{2.2}\\
j & =n-k \\
c & =\sum_{i \in O}\left\lfloor\frac{x_{i}}{2}\right\rfloor \\
a & =\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}\left\lfloor\frac{x_{i}}{2}\right\rfloor
\end{align*}
$$

Substituting (2.2) into $a=2 c+i$ from (2.1) we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}\left\lfloor\frac{x_{i}}{2}\right\rfloor=2 \sum_{i \in O}\left\lfloor\frac{x_{i}}{2}\right\rfloor+k \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

But $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}\left\lfloor\frac{x_{i}}{2}\right\rfloor=\sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}}\left\lfloor\frac{x_{i}}{2}\right\rfloor+\sum_{i \in O}\left\lfloor\frac{x_{i}}{2}\right\rfloor$. Substituting this into (2.3) and simplifying proves
Corollary 1 If $\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right\}$ is a $T$-cycle of positive integers and

$$
O=\left\{i: x_{i} \text { is odd }\right\} \text { and } \mathcal{E}=\left\{i: x_{i} \text { is even }\right\}
$$

then

$$
\sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}}\left\lfloor\frac{x_{i}}{2}\right\rfloor=\sum_{i \in O}\left\lfloor\frac{x_{i}}{2}\right\rfloor+k
$$

It should be noted that this formula can be proven directly from the known relationship

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}} x_{i}=\sum_{i \in O} x_{i}+k \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

(obtained by noticing that $\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right\}=\left\{T\left(x_{0}\right), \ldots, T\left(x_{n-1}\right)\right\}$ so that $\sum x_{i}=\sum T\left(x_{i}\right)$ and thus $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}} x_{i}+$ $\sum_{i \in O} x_{i}=\sum_{i \in O} \frac{3 x_{i}+1}{2}+\sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}} \frac{x_{i}}{2}$ which can be solved to obtain (2.4). However, the method used here reveals the results of the Corollary without specifically searching for those results. Thus this method provides a general approach for discovering new mathematical results by simply coding different algorithms for computing $T$ (or any other computable integer function) and solving a simple linear system.

## References

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[^0]:    $\dagger$ Thanks to the anonymous referee of an earlier draft of this paper for suggesting this line of inquiry.

