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Partitions and the pentagonal number theorem

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Reading Classics

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A partition of a positive integer n is a way to write n as a sum of positive integers. For example:

$$6 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$$

$$= 2 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$$

$$= 2 + 2 + 1 + 1$$

$$= 2 + 2 + 2$$

$$= 3 + 1 + 1 + 1$$

$$= 3 + 2 + 1$$

$$= 3 + 3$$

$$= 4 + 1 + 1$$

$$= 4 + 2$$

$$= 5 + 1$$

$$= 6$$

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Leibniz first considered the problem of determining the number of partitions of n in a 1674 paper to J. Bernoulli.

Later, Euler was asked in 1740 by Philippe Naudé to determine the number of partitions of n. Euler's results laid the basis for the theory of partitions.

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Partitions can be represented graphically via Ferrers diagrams:

$$13 = 7 + 3 + 2 + 1 \Rightarrow \bullet \bullet$$

These diagrams can be used to derive interesting results about partition, such as the following:

Theorem (Adams 1847, Ferrers, Sylvester 1853)

Let m and n be positive integers. Then the number of partitions of n into m parts is equal to the number of partitions of n into parts the largest of which is m.

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Theorem

Let m and n be positive integers. Then the number of partitions of n into m parts is equal to the number of partitions of n into parts the largest of which is m.

Proof.

We associate a partition with its conjugate partition:

$$13 = 7 + 3 + 2 + 1$$

$$13 = 4 + 3 + 2 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$$

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A generating function is a way of encoding a sequence (a_n) as a formal power series:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n.$$

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For example, if we take (a_n) to be the sequence (0,1,1,2,3,5,...) of Fibonacci numbers, we can compute

$$f(x) = 0 + x + x^{2} + 2x^{3} + 3x^{4} + 5x^{5} + \cdots$$

$$= x + (x^{2} + x^{3} + 2x^{4} + 3x^{5} + \cdots)$$

$$+ (x^{3} + x^{4} + 2x^{5} + \cdots)$$

$$= x + xf(x) + x^{2}f(x),$$

SO

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{1 - x - x^2}.$$

Open-ended question

Why does the fact that the denominator of f(x) have a zero at $x = 1/\varphi$ mean that the *n*th Fibonacci number is approximately φ^n ?

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Reference:

Given a positive integer n, the partition function p(n) is the number of partitions of n. For example:

$$5 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$$

$$= 2 + 1 + 1 + 1$$

$$= 2 + 2 + 1$$

$$= 3 + 1 + 1$$

$$= 3 + 2$$

$$= 4 + 1$$

$$= 5$$

$$p(5) = 7$$

We take as convention that p(0) = 1. (Why is this the most reasonable decision?)

Theorem (Euler, 1751)

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Let
$$f(x)$$
 denote the generating function of $p(n)$. Then

$$f(x) = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 - x^n}.$$

The generating function of the partition function

Proof.

Expand f(x) using the geometric series:

$$f(x) = (1 + x^{1} + x^{2 \cdot 1} + x^{3 \cdot 1} + \cdots) \cdot (1 + x^{2} + x^{2 \cdot 2} + x^{3 \cdot 2} + \cdots)$$
$$\cdot (1 + x^{3} + x^{2 \cdot 3} + x^{3 \cdot 3} + \cdots) \cdots$$

Each way to get x^n when expanding this corresponds to a partition of n: the term from the first pair of parentheses tells you the number of parts of size 1; the term from the second tells you the number of parts of size 2; and so on.

Reference

Let $p_d(n)$ denote the number of partitions of n into distinct parts, and let $p_o(n)$ denote the number of partitions of n into odd parts. For example:

$$\underbrace{1+1+1+1}_{p_d(4)=p_o(4)=2} = \underbrace{2+2}_{p_o(4)=2} = \underbrace{3+1}_{p_o(4)=2}$$

Exercise

Let $f_d(x)$ denote the generating function of $p_d(n)$ and let $f_o(x)$ denote the generating function of $p_o(n)$. Use the technique of the previous theorem to show that

$$f_d(x) = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 + x^n)$$
 and $f_o(x) = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 - x^{2n-1}}$.

Theorem (Euler, 1748)

 $p_d(n) = p_o(n)$ for every positive integer n.

Proof.

The following calculation shows that $f_d(x) = f_o(x)$:

$$f_d(x) = (1+x)(1+x^2)(1+x^3)(1+x^4)\cdots$$

$$= \frac{1-x^2}{1-x} \cdot \frac{1-x^4}{1-x^2} \cdot \frac{1-x^6}{1-x^3} \cdot \frac{1-x^8}{1-x^4}\cdots$$

$$= \frac{1}{1-x} \cdot \frac{1}{1-x^3} \cdot \frac{1}{1-x^5}\cdots$$

$$= f_o(x).$$

Exercise

Can you find a combinatorial proof?

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Theorem (Sylvester, 1882)

The number of partitions of n into odd parts, where exactly k distinct parts appear, is equal to the number of partitions of n into distinct parts, where exactly k sequences of consecutive integers appear.

Theorem (Glaisher, 1883)

The number of partitions of n into parts not divisible by d is equal to the number of partitions $n = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \cdots + \lambda_k$ where $\lambda_i \geqslant \lambda_{i+1}$ and $\lambda_i > \lambda_{i+d-1}$.

Theorem (Rogers-Ramanujan, 1894)

The number of partitions of n into parts differing by at least 2 is equal to the number of partitions of n into parts which are congruent to 1 or 4 modulo 5.

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Theorem (Euler, 1760)

$$\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-x^n) = 1 - x - x^2 + x^5 + x^7 - x^{12} - x^{15} + x^{22} + x^{26} - \cdots,$$
where the exponents on the right hand side are $k(3k-1)/2$ for

where the exponents on the right-hand side are k(3k-1)/2 for $k = 0, 1, -1, 2, -2, 3, -3, \dots$

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Proof. Note that if

$$(1-x)(1-x^2)(1-x^3)(1-x^4)\cdots = 1 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \cdots,$$

then a_n is

the number of partitions of *n* into an **even number of distinct parts**

minus

the number of partitions of *n* into an **odd number of distinct parts.**

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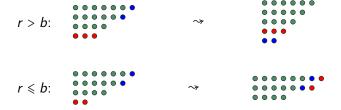
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even number of distinct parts \iff odd number of distinct parts

Consider the following operation on Ferrers diagrams with distinct parts:



This operation switches the parity of the number of parts, preserves distinctness of the number of parts, and is reversible!

The

pentagonal number

Almost...

Consider the following exceptional cases:

$$r = b + 1$$
: \Rightarrow !!?
$$r = b$$
: \Rightarrow !??

These occur only when the blue and red dots overlap, and only when r = b + 1 or r = b. The sizes of these exceptional cases are k(3k-1)/2 and k(3k+1)/2 — exactly where the terms in the Euler function are!

Euler's pentagonal number recurrence

Theorem (Euler, 1760)

For every positive integer n,

 $p(n) = p(n-1) + p(n-2) - p(n-5) - p(n-7) + p(n-12) + \cdots$

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Proof. Recall that, if f(x) is the generating function of p(n), then

$$f(x) = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 - x^n}.$$

Hence, by the pentagonal number theorem,

 $(1-x-x^2+x^5+x^7-\cdots)\cdot(1+p(1)x+p(2)x^2+p(3)x^3+\cdots)=1.$

Thus the coefficient on x^n on the left side must equal zero.

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