18.S66 PROBLEMS #3

Spring 2003

Beginning with this assignment we will (subjectively) indicate the difficulty level of each problem as follows:

- [1] easy
- [2] moderately difficult
- [3] difficult.

In general, these difficulty ratings are based on the assumption that the solutions to the previous problems are known.

A partition λ of $n \geq 0$ (denoted $\lambda \vdash n$ or $|\lambda| = n$) is an integer sequence $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots)$ satisfying $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq 0$ and $\sum \lambda_i = n$. Trailing 0's are often ignored, e.g., (4, 3, 3, 1, 1) represents the same partition of 12 as (4, 3, 3, 1, 1, 0, 0) or $(4, 3, 3, 1, 1, 0, 0, \ldots)$. The terms $\lambda_i > 0$ are called the parts of λ . The conjugate partition to λ , denoted λ' , has $\lambda_i - \lambda_{i+1}$ parts equal to i for all $i \geq 1$. The (Young) diagram of λ is a left-justified array of squares with λ_i squares in the ith row. Notation such as $u = (2,3) \in \lambda$ means that u is the square of the diagram of λ in the second row and third column.

69. [1] Let λ be a partition. Then

$$\sum_{i} (i-1)\lambda_i = \sum_{i} {\lambda_i' \choose 2}.$$

70. [1] Let λ be a partition. Then

$$\sum_{i} \left[\frac{\lambda_{2i-1}}{2} \right] = \sum_{i} \left[\frac{\lambda'_{2i-1}}{2} \right]$$

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- 71. [1] The number of partitions of n with largest part k equals the number of partitions of n with exactly k parts.
- 72. [2] Fix $k \geq 1$. Let λ be a partition. Define $f_k(\lambda)$ to be the number of parts of λ equal to k, e.g., $f_3(8,5,5,3,3,3,3,2,1,1) = 4$. Define $g_k(\lambda)$ to be the number of integers i for which λ has at least k parts equal to i, e.g., $g_3(8,8,8,8,6,6,3,2,2,2,1) = 2$. Then

$$\sum_{\lambda \vdash n} f_k(\lambda) = \sum_{\lambda \vdash n} g_k(\lambda).$$

- 73. [2] The number of partitions of n with odd parts equals the number of partitions of n with distinct parts.
- 74. [2] Let $\sigma(n)$ denote the sum of all (positive) divisors of $n \in \mathbb{P}$; e.g., $\sigma(12) = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 6 + 12 = 28$. Let p(n) denote the number of partitions of n (with p(0) = 1). Then

$$n \cdot p(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma(i) p(n-i).$$

- 75. [2] The number of self-conjugate partitions of n equals the number of partition of n into distinct odd parts.
- 76. [3] Let f(n) be the number of partitions of n into an even number of parts, all distinct. Let g(n) be the number of partitions of n into an odd number of parts, all distinct. For instance, f(7) = 3, corresponding to 6+1=5+2=4+3, and g(7)=2, corresponding to 7=4+2+1. Then

$$f(n) - g(n) = \begin{cases} (-1)^k, & \text{if } n = k(3k \pm 1)/2 \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{N} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

NOTE. This result is usually stated in generating function form, viz.,

$$\prod_{n\geq 1} (1-x^n) = 1 + \sum_{k\geq 1} (-1)^k \left(x^{k(3k-1)/2} + x^{k(3k+1)/2} \right),$$

and is known as Euler's pentagonal number formula.

77. [2] Let f(n) (respectively, g(n)) be the number of partitions $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots)$ of n into distinct parts, such that the largest part λ_1 is even (respectively, odd). Then

$$f(n) - g(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = k(3k+1)/2 \text{ for some } k \ge 0\\ -1, & \text{if } n = k(3k-1)/2 \text{ for some } k \ge 1\\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

78. [3] For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ let f(n) (respectively, g(n)) denote the number of partitions of n into distinct parts such that the smallest part is odd and with an even number (respectively, odd number) of even parts. Then

$$f(n) - g(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n \text{ is a square} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- 79. (a) (*) The number of partitions of n into parts $\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{5}$ is equal to the number of partitions of n whose parts differ by at least 2.
 - (b) (*) The number of partitions of n into parts $\equiv \pm 2 \pmod{5}$ is equal to the number of partitions of n whose parts differ by at least 2 and for which 1 is not a part.

NOTE. This is the combinatorial formulation of the famous *Rogers-Ramanujan identities*. One of the known proofs of this result has been converted into a complicated recursive bijection. What is wanted is a "direct" bijection whose inverse is easy to describe.

- 80. [3] The number of partitions of n into parts $\equiv 1$, 5, or 6 (mod 8) is equal to the number of partitions into parts that differ by at least 2, and such that odd parts differ by at least 4.
- 81. [3] A lecture hall partition of length k is a partition $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k)$ (some of whose parts may be 0) satisfying

$$0 \le \frac{\lambda_k}{1} \le \frac{\lambda_{k-1}}{2} \le \dots \le \frac{\lambda_1}{k}.$$

The number of lecture hall partitions of n of length k is equal to the number of partitions of n whose parts come from the set $\{1, 3, 5, \ldots, 2k-1\}$ (with repetitions allowed).

82. (*) The Lucas numbers L_n are defined by $L_1 = 1$, $L_2 = 3$, $L_{n+1} = L_n + L_{n-1}$ for $n \geq 2$. Let f(n) be the number of partitions of n all of whose parts are Lucas numbers L_{2n+1} of odd index. For instance, f(12) = 5, corresponding to

Let g(n) be the number of partitions $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ...)$ such that $\lambda_i/\lambda_{i+1} > \frac{1}{2}(3+\sqrt{5})$ whenever $\lambda_{i+1} > 0$. For instance, g(12) = 5, corresponding to

$$12, \quad 11+1, \quad 10+2, \quad 9+3, \quad 8+3+1.$$

Then f(n) = g(n) for all $n \ge 1$.

83. [2.5] Let A(n) denote the number of partitions $(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k) \vdash n$ such that $\lambda_k > 0$ and

$$\lambda_i > \lambda_{i+1} + \lambda_{i+2}, \quad 1 \le i \le k-1$$

(with $\lambda_{k+1} = 0$). Let B(n) denote the number of partitions $(\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_j) \vdash n$ such that

• Each μ_i is in the sequence $1, 2, 4, \ldots, g_m, \ldots$ defined by

$$g_1 = 1$$
, $g_2 = 2$, $g_m = g_{m-1} + g_{m-2} + 1$ for $m \ge 3$.

• If $\mu_1 = g_m$, then every element in $\{1, 2, 4, \dots, g_m\}$ appears at least once as a μ_i .

Then A(n) = B(n) for all $n \ge 1$.

Example. A(7) = 5 because the relevant partitions are (7), (6,1), (5,2), (4,3), (4,2,1), and B(7) = 5 because the relevant partitions are (4,2,1), (2,2,2,1), (2,2,1,1,1), (2,1,1,1,1,1), (1,1,1,1,1,1).

84. (*) Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{P}$ and let p(S, n) denote the number of partitions of n whose parts belong to S. Let

$$S = \pm \{1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 19 \pmod{40}\}$$

$$T = \pm \{1, 3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19 \pmod{40}\},$$

where

$$\pm \{a, b, \dots \pmod{m}\} = \{n \in \mathbb{P} : n \equiv \pm a, \pm b, \dots \pmod{m}\}.$$

Then p(S, n) = p(T, n - 1) for all $n \ge 1$.

NOTE. In principle the known proof of this result and of Problem 85 below can be converted into a complicated recursive bijection, as was done for Problem 79. Just as for Probem 79, what is wanted is a "direct" bijection whose inverse is easy to describe. To my knowledge no one has tried to give a bijective solution to this problem and the next, so perhaps they are not so difficult.

85. (*) Let

$$S = \pm \{1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 13, 16, 21, 23, 28 \pmod{66}\}$$

$$T = \pm \{1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 14, 16, 17, 27, 29 \pmod{66}\}.$$

Then p(S, n) = p(T, n) for all $n \ge 1$ except n = 13 (!).

86. [1.5] Prove the following identities by interpreting the coefficients in terms of partitions.

$$\prod_{i\geq 1} \frac{1}{1-qx^{i}} = \sum_{k\geq 0} \frac{x^{k}q^{k}}{(1-x)(1-x^{2})\cdots(1-x^{k})}$$

$$\prod_{i\geq 1} \frac{1}{1-qx^{i}} = \sum_{k\geq 0} \frac{x^{k^{2}}q^{k}}{(1-x)\cdots(1-x^{k})(1-qx)\cdots(1-qx^{k})}$$

$$\prod_{i\geq 1} (1+qx^{i}) = \sum_{k\geq 0} \frac{x^{\binom{k+1}{2}}q^{k}}{(1-x)(1-x^{2})\cdots(1-x^{k})}$$

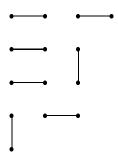
$$\prod_{i\geq 1} (1+qx^{2i-1}) = \sum_{k\geq 0} \frac{x^{k^{2}}q^{k}}{(1-x^{2})(1-x^{4})\cdots(1-x^{2k})}.$$

87. [3] Show that

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x^n q^{n^2} = \prod_{k>1} (1 - q^{2k}) (1 + xq^{2k-1}) (1 + x^{-1}q^{2k-1}).$$

This famous result is Jacobi's triple product identity.

88. [3] Let f(n) be the number of partitions of 2n whose Ferrers diagram can be covered by n edges, each connecting two adjacent dots. For instance, (4, 3, 3, 3, 1) can be covered as follows:



Then f(n) is equal to the number of ordered pairs (λ, μ) of partitions satisfying $|\lambda| + |\mu| = n$.

89. (*) Given a partition λ and $u \in \lambda$, let a(u) (called the arm length of u) denote the number of squares directly to the right of u (in the diagram of λ), counting λ itself exactly once. Similarly let l(u) (called the leg length of u) denote the number of squares directly below u, counting u itelf once. Thus if u = (i, j) then $a(u) = \lambda_i - j + 1$ and $l(u) = \lambda'_j - i + 1$. Define

$$\gamma(\lambda) = \#\{u \in \lambda : a(u) - l(u) = 0 \text{ or } 1\}.$$

Then

$$\sum_{\lambda \vdash n} q^{\gamma(\lambda)} = \sum_{\lambda \vdash n} q^{\ell(\lambda)},$$

where $\ell(\lambda)$ denotes the length (number of parts) of λ .

90. [2.5] If $0 \le k < \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$, then $\binom{n}{k} \le \binom{n}{k+1}$.

NOTE. To prove an inequality $a \leq b$ combinatorially, find sets A, B with #A = a, #B = b, and either an injection (one-to-one map) $f: A \to B$ or a surjection (onto map) $g: B \to A$.

- 91. [2.5] Let $1 \le k \le n-1$. Then $\binom{n}{k}^2 \ge \binom{n}{k-1}\binom{n}{k+1}$. Note that this result is even stronger than Problem 90 above (assuming $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$) [why?].
- 92. [1] Let p(j, k, n) denote the number of partitions of n with at most j parts and with largest part at most k. Then p(j, k, n) = p(j, k, jk n).

Note. A standard result in enumerative combinatorics states that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{jk} p(j, k, n) q^n = \begin{bmatrix} j+k \\ j \end{bmatrix},$$

where $\binom{m}{i}$ denotes the *q-binomial coefficient*:

$${m \brack i} = \frac{(1-q^m)(1-q^{m-1})\cdots(1-q^{m-i+1})}{(1-q^i)(1-q^{i-1})\cdots(1-q)}.$$

93. [3] Continuing the previous problem, if n < jk/2 then $p(j, k, n) \le p(j, k, n + 1)$.

NOTE. A (difficult) combinatorial proof is known. What is really wanted, however, is an injection $f: A_n \to A_{n+1}$, where A_m is the set of partitions counted by p(j, k, m), such that for all $\lambda \in A_n$, $f(\lambda)$ is obtained from λ by adding 1 to a single part of λ . It is known that such an injection f exists, but no explicit description of f is known.

94. [1] Let $\bar{p}(k, n)$ denote the number of partitions of n into distinct parts, with largest part at most k. Then

$$\bar{p}(k,n) = \bar{p}(k, \binom{k+1}{2} - n).$$

NOTE. It is easy to see that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\binom{k+1}{2}} \bar{p}(k,n)q^n = (1+q)(1+q^2)\cdots(1+q^k).$$

95. (*) Continuing the previous problem, if $n < \frac{1}{2} {k+1 \choose 2}$ then $\bar{p}(k,n) \leq \bar{p}(k,n+1)$.

NOTE. As in Problem 93 it would be best to give an injection $g: B_n \to B_{n+1}$, where B_m is the set of partitions counted by $\bar{p}(k, m)$, such that for all $\lambda \in B_n$, $f(\lambda)$ is obtained from λ by adding 1 to a single part of λ . It is known that such an injection g exists, but no explicit description of g is known. However, unlike Problem 93, no explicit injection $g: B_n \to B_{n+1}$ is known.

96. [2] A partition π of a set S is a collection of nonempty pairwise disjoint subsets (called the blocks of π) of S whose union is S. Let B(n) denote the number of partitions of an n-element set. B(n) is called a Bell number. For instance, B(3) = 5, corresponding to the partitions (written in an obvious shorthand notation) 1-2-3, 12-3, 13-2, 1-23, 123. The number of partitions of [n] for which no block contains two consecutive integers is B(n-1).