

# Number theoretic properties of generating functions related to Dyson's rank for partitions into distinct parts

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## Abstract

Let  $Q(n)$  denote the number of partitions of  $n$  into distinct parts. We show that Dyson's rank provides a combinatorial interpretation of the well-known fact that  $Q(n)$  is almost always divisible by 4. This interpretation gives rise to a new false theta function identity that reveals surprising analytic properties of one of Ramanujan's mock theta functions, which in turn gives generating functions for values of certain Dirichlet  $L$ -functions at non-positive integers.

## 1 Introduction and statement of results

A *partition*  $\lambda$  of a positive integer  $n$  is a sequence  $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k)$  of positive integers, written in nonincreasing order, whose sum is  $n$ . Given a partition  $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k)$ , we say that  $\lambda_i$  is the  $i$ th *part* of the partition, and we write  $\ell(\lambda)$  to denote the number of parts of  $\lambda$ . The *rank* of  $\lambda$  is  $\lambda_1 - \ell(\lambda)$ . For instance, the rank of  $(5, 3, 1, 1)$  is  $5 - 4 = 1$ . The *Young diagram* of  $\lambda$  is the partial grid of squares consisting of  $k$  rows, aligned at the left, with the  $i$ th row containing  $\lambda_i$  squares for each  $i \leq k$ . (See Figure 1.)

Let  $p(n)$  denote the number of partitions of  $n$ . Ramanujan proved the following famous congruence identities for  $p(n)$ .

$$p(5n + 4) \equiv 0 \pmod{5} \tag{1.1}$$

$$p(7n + 5) \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \tag{1.2}$$

$$p(11n + 6) \equiv 0 \pmod{11} \tag{1.3}$$

Several infinite families of arithmetic congruences for  $p(n)$  have been discovered since Ramanujan's time, producing identities such as

$$p(157525693n + 111247) \equiv 0 \pmod{13}.$$

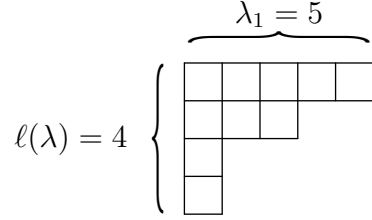


Figure 1: The partition  $(5, 3, 1, 1)$ . Notice that the rank of a partition is the difference between the width and the height of its Young diagram.

(See [16] for a detailed account of congruences for  $p(n)$ .)

Identities (1.1)-(1.3) simply begged for a combinatorial explanation. Dyson [11] conjectured that for any  $m$ , the number of partitions of  $5n + 4$  having rank congruent to  $m \pmod{5}$  is equal to  $\frac{1}{5}p(5n + 4)$ , and the number of partitions of  $7n + 5$  having rank congruent to  $m \pmod{7}$  is equal to  $\frac{1}{7}p(7n + 5)$ , thereby providing a combinatorial interpretation of (1.1) and (1.2) if true. Atkin and Swinnerton-Dyer proved these conjectures in [8]. Interestingly, equation (1.3) does not have a similar combinatorial interpretation given by the rank. Andrews and Garvan later discovered another combinatorial statistic, the crank, that classifies the partitions of  $11n + 6$  into 11 equal classes determined by the crank modulo 11. (See [6], [12].)

Let  $Q(n)$  denote the number of partitions of  $n$  into distinct parts. We call such partitions *strict* partitions. For instance,  $(5, 3, 2)$  is a strict partition of 10, but  $(5, 3, 1, 1)$  is not. Several infinite families of congruence identities have also been shown for  $Q$ . (See [14], [15], [18], [19].) In fact, it was shown in [15] that for any prime  $p$ , there exist positive integers  $a$  and  $b$  such that  $Q(an + b) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  for all positive integers  $n$ .

The nearly arithmetic congruence identities modulo 4, first discovered by Rødseth [18], rival (1.1)-(1.3) in their simplicity. The first few such identities are:

$$Q(5n + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \quad \text{if } n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{5} \quad (1.4)$$

$$Q(7n + 2) \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \quad \text{if } n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{7} \quad (1.5)$$

$$Q(11n + 5) \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \quad \text{if } n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{11} \quad (1.6)$$

$$Q(13n + 7) \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \quad \text{if } n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{13} \quad (1.7)$$

It turns out that  $Q(n)$  is also highly divisible by arbitrary powers of 2. Gordon and Ono [13] have shown that for any positive integer  $j$ ,

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{n < N \mid Q(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{2^j}\}}{N} = 1. \quad (1.8)$$

The proof of this fact depends on the theory of Galois representations and is not combinatorial. A simple combinatorial argument shows that  $Q(n)$  is divisible by 2 if and only if  $n \neq k(3k \pm 1)/2$  for any integer  $k$ , thus proving equation (1.8) in the case  $j = 1$ . Alladi [1] has provided combinatorial interpretations of (1.8) for  $j \leq 4$ .

Rank (mod 4)	Partitions of 12
0	(10, 2), (7, 4, 1), (7, 3, 2)
1	(11, 1), (8, 3, 1), (7, 5), (5, 4, 2, 1)
2	(9, 2, 1), (8, 4), (6, 3, 2, 1), (5, 4, 3)
3	(12), (9, 3), (6, 5, 1), (6, 4, 2)

Rank (mod 4)	Partitions of 16
0	(14, 2), (11, 4, 1), (11, 3, 2), (10, 6) (8, 5, 2, 1), (8, 4, 3, 1), (7, 6, 3), (7, 5, 4)
1	(15, 1), (12, 3, 1), (11, 5), (9, 4, 2, 1) (8, 7, 1), (8, 6, 2), (8, 5, 3), (6, 4, 3, 2, 1)
2	(13, 2, 1), (12, 4), (10, 3, 2, 1), (9, 6, 1) (9, 5, 2), (9, 4, 3), (6, 5, 4, 1), (6, 5, 3, 2)
3	(16), (13, 3), (10, 5, 1), (10, 4, 2) (9, 7), (7, 6, 2, 1), (7, 5, 3, 1), (7, 4, 3, 2)

Table 1: The strict partitions of 12 and of 16 sorted by rank.

We show that Dyson's rank also provides a combinatorial interpretation of (1.4)-(1.7), and more generally of (1.8) for  $j = 2$ , as follows. Define  $T(m, k; n)$  to be the number of strict partitions of  $n$  having rank congruent to  $m \pmod{k}$ .

**Theorem 1.1.** *Let  $n$  be a positive integer. We have*

$$T(0, 4; n) = T(1, 4; n) = T(2, 4; n) = T(3, 4; n)$$

*if and only if  $24n + 1$  has a prime divisor  $p \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{24}$ , and the largest power of  $p$  dividing  $24n + 1$  is  $p^e$  where  $e$  is odd.*

To illustrate Theorem 1.1, we sort the partitions of 12 and of 16 by rank in Table 1. Notice that  $24 \cdot 12 + 1 = 289 = 17^2$ , and so 12 does not satisfy the conditions of Theorem 1.1. On the other hand,  $24 \cdot 16 + 1 = 385 = 5 \cdot 77$ , so 16 satisfies the conditions with  $p = 5$ .

Notice that if  $n$  satisfies the conditions of Theorem 1.1 then  $Q(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ . It is easily shown that this set of integers contains those of the form  $pn + \frac{p^2-1}{24}$ ,  $n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , for all primes  $p > 3$  not congruent to 1  $\pmod{24}$ , thus proving (1.4)-(1.7) combinatorially via the rank.

Theorem 1.1 reveals fascinating properties of the generating functions related to the ranks of strict partitions. Let  $Q(n, r)$  denote the number of partitions of  $n$  into distinct parts with rank  $r$ , and define

$$G(z, q) = \sum_{n, r} Q(n, r) z^r q^n \tag{1.9}$$

where  $n$  and  $r$  range from 0 to  $\infty$ . The next theorem shows that the specializations of this series at fourth roots of unity  $z$  have elegant and useful  $q$ -series expansions.

**Theorem 1.2.** *Let  $z, q \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $|z| \leq 1$ ,  $|q| < 1$ . Then*

$$G(z, q) = 1 + \sum_{s=1}^{\infty} \frac{q^{s(s+1)/2}}{(1-zq)(1-zq^2)\cdots(1-zq^s)},$$

and we have

$$\begin{aligned} G(1, q) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Q(n)q^n = (1+q)(1+q^2)(1+q^3)\cdots \\ G(-1, q) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (T(n; 0, 2) - T(n; 1, 2))q^n \\ G(i, q) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} i^k q^{k(3k+1)/2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} i^{k-1} q^{k(3k-1)/2} \\ G(-i, q) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-i)^k q^{k(3k+1)/2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-i)^{k-1} q^{k(3k-1)/2} \end{aligned}$$

where we define  $Q(0) = 1$ .

The functions  $G(1, q)$  and  $G(-1, q)$  above have been studied rather extensively. Both of these functions are combinatorial generating functions that are related to automorphic forms, in the variable  $\tau$  where  $q = e^{2\pi i\tau}$  (we use this notation throughout). Since we have that

$$qG(1, q^{24}) = \frac{\eta(48\tau)}{\eta(24\tau)},$$

where  $\eta(\tau) = q^{1/24} \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 - q^n)$  is the usual classical weight 1/2 modular form of Dedekind, it follows that  $G(1, q)$  is essentially a weight 0 modular form. The series  $G(-1, q)$  was thoroughly investigated by Andrews, Dyson, and Hickerson [4]. Their work shows that  $G(-1, q)$  is related to the Fourier expansion of a Maass cusp form that has eigenvalue 1/4 with respect to the hyperbolic Laplacian operator  $\Delta = -y^2 \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right)$ , where  $\tau = x + iy$ . (See [10].)

This prompts one to ask if the functions the  $G(z, q)$  have interesting analytic properties for all roots of unity  $z$ . Theorem 1.2 shows that these series have a simple form when  $z = i$  and when  $z = -i$ . In fact, they are examples of *false theta functions*. To demonstrate this, we first recall some necessary background and notation. A *Dirichlet character* of order  $a$  is a map  $\chi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  satisfying

- $\chi(n + a) = \chi(n)$  for any integer  $n$ ,
- $\chi(mn) = \chi(m)\chi(n)$  for any integers  $m, n$ , and
- $\chi(n) = 0$  for any  $n$  such that  $\gcd(a, n) > 1$ .

The eight Dirichlet characters of order 24 are shown in Table 2.

A *theta function* is a function  $\theta(z; \tau)$ , where  $z$  is a fixed complex number and the domain of  $\tau$  is the complex upper half plane  $\mathcal{H}$ , of the form

$$\theta(z; \tau) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{2\pi inz} e^{2\pi in^2 \tau} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{2\pi inz} q^{n^2}.$$

Several variants of these functions are also called theta functions if they satisfy certain modular transformation laws. In particular, if  $\chi$  is an even Dirichlet character of order  $a$ , then

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \chi(n) q^{n^2}$$

is a modular form of weight  $1/2$  over the congruence subgroup  $\Gamma_0(4a^2)$  of the full modular group  $PSL_2(\mathbb{Z})$ . Moreover, these theta functions essentially form a basis of all modular forms of weight  $1/2$  by a classical theorem due to Serre and Stark [17].

Notice that, by Theorem 1.2,

$$qG(i, q^{24}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} i^k q^{(6k+1)^2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} i^{k-1} q^{(6k-1)^2}.$$

This closely resembles the theta functions described above, but the coefficients cannot be written as a linear combination of even Dirichlet characters. Thus, we have encountered a false theta function.

False theta function identities can be used to obtain generating functions for the values of Dirichlet  $L$ -functions at non-positive integers. This was first observed by Andrews, Ono and Urroz [5], and by Zagier [20]. Here we show that the identities in Theorem 1.2 also may be used in this way. We first recall the definition of  $L$ -functions. Given a Dirichlet character  $\chi$ , the corresponding Dirichlet  $L$ -function is a generalization of the Riemann  $\zeta$ -function defined by

$$L(\chi, s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\chi(n)}{n^s}. \tag{1.10}$$

$n$	1	5	7	11	13	17	19	23
$\chi_0(n)$	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
$\chi_1(n)$	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1
$\chi_2(n)$	1	-1	1	-1	-1	1	-1	1
$\chi_3(n)$	1	-1	-1	1	-1	1	1	-1
$\chi_4(n)$	1	-1	1	-1	1	-1	1	-1
$\chi_5(n)$	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1
$\chi_6(n)$	1	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1
$\chi_7(n)$	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	1

Table 2: The nonzero values of the 8 Dirichlet characters of order 24.

Each  $L$ -function has an analytic continuation to the entire complex plane. In Section 2.3, we use our expressions for  $G(\pm i, z)$  to obtain the following.

**Theorem 1.3.** *We have*

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} L(\chi_6, -2n)t^n = 2e^{-t} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-(12n^2+12n+1)t}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 - ie^{-24rt})} + \frac{e^{-(12n^2+12n+1)t}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 + ie^{-24rt})} \quad (1.11)$$

$$= e^{-t} + e^{-t} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-24nt}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 + e^{-48rt})} \quad (1.12)$$

and

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} L(\chi_7, -2n)t^n = i \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-(12n^2+12n+1)t}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 - ie^{-24rt})} - \frac{e^{-(12n^2+12n+1)t}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 + ie^{-24rt})} \quad (1.13)$$

The  $L$ -values at negative integers can also be obtained using generalized Bernoulli numbers. The Bernoulli numbers  $B_{n,\chi}$  associated with the Dirichlet character  $\chi$  of order  $a$  are defined by the generating function

$$\sum_{m=1}^a \chi(m) \frac{te^{mt}}{e^{at} - 1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_{n,\chi} \frac{t^n}{n!}.$$

It is well-known that

$$L(\chi, 1 - k) = -\frac{B_{k,\chi}}{k}$$

for any positive integer  $k$ . The right hand side of (1.11) is, as a power series in  $t$ ,

$$2 + 46t + 3985t^2 + \frac{1743623}{3}t^3 + \dots$$

which matches the values given by the Bernoulli numbers for  $\chi_6$ . As another illustration, the right hand side of (1.13) is

$$-48t - 3984t^2 - 581208t^3 - \dots$$

In addition to being a false theta function,  $G(i, q)$  is related to the famous mock theta functions of Ramanujan, which Bringmann and Ono [9] recently have established are the holomorphic parts of certain weight  $1/2$  harmonic Maass forms. One famous such function is

$$R(z, q) = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{q^{n^2}}{\prod_{k=1}^n (1 - zq^k)(1 - z^{-1}q^k)}. \quad (1.14)$$

The coefficient of  $z^m q^n$  in  $R(z, q)$  is the number of partitions of  $n$  having rank  $m$ . Thus, evaluating  $R(z, q)$  at roots of unity  $z$  is useful in obtaining congruence relations for  $p(n)$  via the rank.

Replacing  $q$  by  $1/q$  in (1.14), we obtain the following theorem.

**Theorem 1.4.** *We have*

$$R(i, 1/q) = R(-i, 1/q) = \frac{1-i}{2}G(i, q) + \frac{1+i}{2}G(-i, q)$$

or alternatively,

$$\begin{aligned} qR(i, 1/q^{24}) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \left( q^{(12n+1)^2} + q^{(12n+5)^2} + q^{(12n+7)^2} + q^{(12n+11)^2} \right) \\ &= q + q^{25} + q^{49} + q^{121} - q^{169} - q^{289} - q^{361} - q^{529} + q^{625} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the analytic behavior of the false theta functions  $G(\pm i, q)$  gives the behavior of  $R(\pm i; q)$  for  $q$  outside the unit disk! This is a remarkable connection between the rank generating functions of strict and unrestricted partitions.

## 2 Proofs

We now present the proofs of the main results.

### 2.1 $Q(n) \pmod 4$ via the rank

Let  $\mathcal{D}$  denote the set of all strict partitions (partitions having distinct parts), and let  $\mathcal{P}$  denote the set of all (unrestricted) partitions. Let  $\mathcal{D}_n$  denote the set of all strict partitions of  $n$ .

Define a *pentagonal partition* to be a partition of the form  $(2k, 2k-1, \dots, k+1)$  or  $(2k-1, 2k-2, \dots, k)$  for some positive integer  $k$ . The former is a partition of  $k(3k+1)/2$ , and the latter is a partition of  $k(3k-1)/2$ . Numbers of the form  $k(3k \pm 1)/2$  are called *pentagonal numbers*. An example of each type of pentagonal partition is shown in Figure 2.

Let  $\mathcal{D}'_n$  denote the set of all strict partitions of  $n$  that are not pentagonal partitions. For any partition  $\lambda$ , let  $m(\lambda)$  be the largest index  $m$  such that  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 + 1 = \lambda_3 + 2 = \dots = \lambda_m + m - 1$ . Also let  $s(\lambda)$  denote the smallest part of  $\lambda$ .

Given a partition  $\lambda$ , the *conjugate partition* of  $\lambda$ , denoted  $\lambda'$ , is the partition formed by interchanging the rows and columns of its Young diagram.

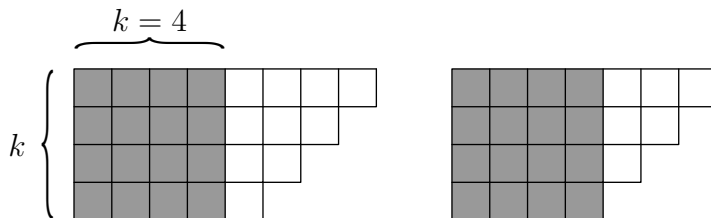


Figure 2: The two types of pentagonal partitions of length  $k$ , shown here for  $k = 4$ .

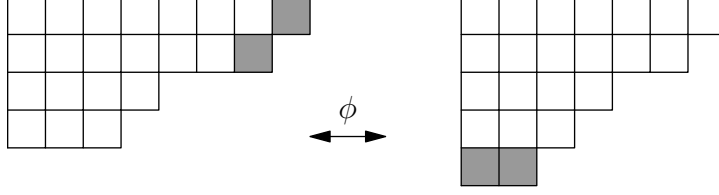


Figure 3: Franklin's Involution  $\phi : \mathcal{D}'_n \rightarrow \mathcal{D}'_n$ .

To prove Theorem 1.1, we first provide a necessary and sufficient condition for the equalities  $T(0, 4; n) = T(2, 4; n)$  and  $T(1, 4; n) = T(3, 4; n)$  to hold.

**Lemma 2.1.** *If  $n \neq k(3k \pm 1)/2$  for any  $k$ , we have*

$$T(1, 4; n) = T(3, 4; n) \text{ and } T(0, 4; n) = T(2, 4; n).$$

*Otherwise, if  $n = k(3k + 1)/2$ , then*

$$T(k, 4; n) = T(k + 2, 4; n) + 1 \text{ and } T(k + 1, 4; n) = T(k + 3, 4; n).$$

*If  $n = k(3k - 1)/2$ , then*

$$T(k - 1, 4; n) = T(k + 1, 4; n) + 1 \text{ and } T(k, 4; n) = T(k + 2, 4; n).$$

*Proof.* We require an involution  $\phi : \mathcal{D}'_n \rightarrow \mathcal{D}'_n$ , commonly known as *Franklin's Involution*, defined as follows. Let  $\lambda \in \mathcal{D}'_n$ , and let  $m = m(\lambda)$  and  $s = s(\lambda)$ . If  $s \leq m$ , define  $\phi(\lambda)$  to be the partition formed by removing the part  $s$  from the partition and increasing each of the first  $s$  parts by 1. If  $s > m$ , define  $\phi(\lambda)$  to be the partition formed by decreasing each of the first  $m$  parts of  $\lambda$  by 1 and inserting a part of size  $m$  into the partition. (See Figure 3.) Notice that these operations are not well defined on pentagonal partitions.

It is easily verified that  $\phi$  is an involution. Furthermore, for any non-pentagonal partition  $\lambda$ , the rank of  $\phi(\lambda)$  differs from the rank of  $\lambda$  by  $\pm 2$ . Thus, if  $n \neq k(3k \pm 1)/2$ , we have  $T(1, 4; n) = T(3, 4; n)$  and  $T(0, 4; n) = T(2, 4; n)$ .

If  $n = k(3k + 1)/2$ , there is one pentagonal partition of  $n$ , namely  $(2k, 2k - 1, \dots, k + 1)$ , and the rank of this partition is  $k$ . Thus  $T(k, 4; n) = T(k + 2, 4; n) + 1$  and  $T(k + 1, 4; n) = T(k + 3, 4; n)$ .

If  $n = k(3k - 1)/2$ , there is one pentagonal partition of  $n$ , namely  $(2k - 1, 2k - 2, \dots, k)$ , and the rank of this partition is  $k - 1$ . Thus  $T(k - 1, 4; n) = T(k + 1, 4; n) + 1$  and  $T(k, 4; n) = T(k + 2, 4; n)$ . This completes the proof.  $\square$

Now, notice that  $T(0, 4; n) + T(2, 4; n) = T(0, 2; n)$  and  $T(1, 4; n) + T(3, 4; n) = T(1, 2; n)$ . Thus, by Lemma 2.1, in order to find exactly when  $T(m, 4; n) = \frac{1}{4}Q(n)$  for  $m = 0, 1, 2, 3$  it suffices to find the difference between the number of partitions of  $n$  having even rank,  $T(0, 2; n)$ , and the number having odd rank,  $T(1, 2; n)$ . Let  $S(n) = T(0, 2; n) - T(1, 2; n)$  be this difference. An explicit formula for the function  $S(n)$  has already been obtained [4], and we state this result below.



**Theorem 2.2.** We have  $S(n) = T(24n + 1)$ , where the function  $T(m)$  is defined on the set of integers  $m \neq 1$  congruent to 1 (mod 6) as follows. Write  $m$  in the form  $p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$  where each  $p_i$  is either a prime congruent to 1 (mod 6) or the negative of a prime congruent to 5 (mod 6). Then  $T(m) = T(p_1^{e_1}) T(p_2^{e_2}) \cdots T(p_k^{e_k})$ , where

$$T(p^e) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \not\equiv 1 \pmod{24} \text{ and } e \text{ is odd} \\ 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 13 \text{ or } 19 \pmod{24} \text{ and } e \text{ is even} \\ (-1)^{e/2} & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{24} \text{ and } e \text{ is even} \\ e + 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{24} \text{ and } T(p) = 2 \\ (-1)^e (e + 1) & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{24} \text{ and } T(p) = -2. \end{cases}$$

It follows that  $S(n) = 0$  if and only if  $24n + 1$  has a prime divisor  $p \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{24}$ , and the largest power of  $p$  dividing  $24n + 1$  is  $p^e$  for some odd positive integer  $e$ . Suppose  $n$  is a pentagonal number. Then  $24n + 1 = 24(k(3k \pm 1)/2) + 1 = (6k \pm 1)^2$  for some  $k$ , so  $n$  does not satisfy the conditions of Theorem 2.2. Thus, if  $S(n) = 0$  then  $n$  is not a pentagonal number, and so by Lemma 2.1,  $T(0, 4; n) = T(2, 4; n)$  and  $T(1, 4; n) = T(3, 4; n)$ . Furthermore, if  $S(n) = 0$  then  $T(0, 4; n) + T(2, 4; n) = T(0, 2; n) = T(1, 2; n) = T(1, 4; n) + T(3, 4; n)$  by the definition of  $S(n)$ . Thus  $S(n) = 0$  if and only if  $T(0, 4; n) = T(1, 4; n) = T(2, 4; n) = T(3, 4; n)$ . This proves Theorem 1.1.

To analyze the generating functions that arise in studying  $S(n)$  and other functions related to the rank, we first recall some standard notation. For any positive integer  $n$ , we define

$$(a; q)_n = (1 - a)(1 - aq) \cdots (1 - aq^{n-1})$$

and

$$(a; q)_\infty = \prod_{k=0}^{\infty} (1 - aq^k).$$

The *Sylvester's triangle* of a partition  $\lambda$  is the largest partition of the form  $(s, s - 1, \dots, 3, 2, 1)$  such that  $s - i + 1 \leq \lambda_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, s$ . An example is shown in Figure 4. Notice that if  $\lambda$  is a strict partition,  $\lambda$  has the same number of parts as its Sylvester's triangle.

We proceed to prove Theorem 1.2, which we restate below. Recall that

$$G(z, q) = \sum_{n, r} Q(n, r) q^n z^r$$

where  $Q(n, r)$  denotes the number of strict partitions of  $n$  having rank  $r$ .

**Theorem 2.3.** Let  $z, q \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $|q| < 1$ . Then

$$G(z, q) = 1 + \sum_{s=1}^{\infty} \frac{q^{s(s+1)/2}}{(zq; q)_s}$$

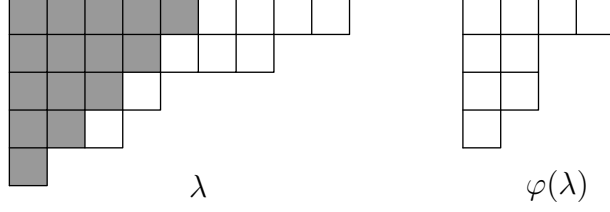


Figure 4: A partition  $\lambda$  with its Sylvester's triangle shaded and its image under  $\varphi$ .

and

$$\begin{aligned}
G(1, q) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Q(n)q^n = (-q; q)_{\infty} \\
G(-1, q) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} S(n)q^n \\
G(i, q) &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} i^k q^{k(3k+1)/2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} i^{k-1} q^{k(3k-1)/2} \\
G(-i, q) &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-i)^k q^{k(3k+1)/2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-i)^{k-1} q^{k(3k-1)/2}.
\end{aligned}$$

*Proof.* Let  $Q(n, r, s)$  denote the number of strict partitions with rank  $r$  and exactly  $s$  parts, and let  $p(n, r, s)$  denote the number of partitions of  $n$  with largest part at most  $s$  and exactly  $r$  parts. It is easily verified combinatorially that for any positive integer  $s$ ,

$$\sum_{n,r} p(n, r, s) q^n z^r = \frac{1}{(zq; q)_s} \quad (2.1)$$

We now define a map  $\varphi : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}$  as follows. Suppose  $\lambda$  is a partition of  $n$  into  $s$  distinct parts.

By removing the Sylvester's triangle from  $\lambda$ , we are left with a partition  $\nu = (\lambda_1 - s, \lambda_2 - (s-1), \dots, \lambda_s - 1)$  of  $n - s(s+1)/2$ . We define  $\varphi(\lambda)$  to be the conjugate partition  $\nu'$  of  $\nu$ . Notice that  $\nu'$  has at most  $s$  parts, and the number of parts of  $\nu'$  is equal to the rank of  $\lambda$ .

For each nonnegative integer  $s$ ,  $\varphi$  is a bijection from the set of partitions of  $n$  into exactly  $s$  distinct parts to the set of partitions  $\nu'$  having largest part at most  $s$ . Hence

$$\sum_{n,r,s} Q(n, r, s) q^n z^r = \sum_s q^{s(s+1)/2} \sum_{n,r} p(n, r, s) q^n z^r \quad (2.2)$$

where the variables range over all nonnegative integers. Note that

$$\sum_s Q(n, r, s) = Q(n, r). \quad (2.3)$$

By (2.1), (2.2), and (2.3), we have

$$\sum_{n,r} Q(n,r)q^n z^r = 1 + \sum_{s=1}^{\infty} q^{s(s+1)/2} \frac{1}{(zq; q)_s} = G(z, q).$$

Setting  $z = 1$ , we have

$$G(1, q) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Q(n)q^n,$$

and it is well-known that this summation is also equal to  $(-q; q)_{\infty}$ . (See [3], p. 5.)

Setting  $z = -1$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} G(i, q) &= \sum_{n,r} Q(n,r)(-1)^r q^n \\ &= \sum_n (T(0, 2; n) - T(1, 2; n))q^n \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} S(n)q^n. \end{aligned}$$

Setting  $z = i$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} G(i, q) &= \sum_{n,r} Q(n,r)i^r q^n \\ &= \sum_n [T(0, 4; n) + iT(1, 4; n) - T(2, 4; n) - iT(3, 4; n)]q^n \\ &= \sum_n [(T(0, 4; n) - T(2, 4; n)) + i(T(1, 4; n) - T(3, 4; n))]q^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} i^k q^{k(3k+1)/2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} i^{k-1} q^{k(3k-1)/2} \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality follows from Lemma 2.1. Analogously,

$$G(-i, q) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-i)^k q^{k(3k+1)/2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-i)^{k-1} q^{k(3k-1)/2}.$$

This completes the proof. □

## 2.2 The relation between $R(\pm i, q)$ and $G(\pm i, q)$

To prove Theorem 1.4, we require the following identity given in Ramanujan's "lost" notebook:

$$1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{q^n}{(-aq; q)_n (-a^{-1}q; q)_n} = (1+a) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a^{3n} q^{\frac{n(3n+1)}{2}} (1-a^2 q^{2n+1}) - \frac{a \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n a^{2n} q^{\frac{n(n+1)}{2}}}{(-aq; q)_{\infty} (-a^{-1}q; q)_{\infty}}. \quad (2.4)$$

Andrews [2] noted that by substituting  $a = i$  in (2.4) and taking the real part of both sides, we obtain the identity

$$1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{q^n}{(-q^2; q^2)_n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n q^{n(6n+1)} (1+q^{4n+1}) + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n q^{(2n+1)(3n+2)} (1+q^{4n+3}). \quad (2.5)$$

Notice that the left hand side of (2.5) is equal to  $R(i, 1/q)$ . Replacing  $q$  by  $q^{24}$  in 2.5 and multiplying by  $q$ , we obtain, by Theorem 1.2,

$$\begin{aligned} qR(i, 1/q^{24}) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \left( q^{(12n+1)^2} + q^{(12n+5)^2} + q^{(12n+7)^2} + q^{(12n+11)^2} \right) \\ &= \frac{1-i}{2} qG(i, q^{24}) + \frac{1+i}{2} qG(-i, q^{24}) \end{aligned}$$

and the result follows.

## 2.3 Exponential generating functions for Dirichlet L-values

In order to prove Theorem 1.3, we first prove the following.

**Lemma 2.4.** *Let  $\chi_6$  and  $\chi_7$  denote the Dirichlet characters of order 24 given in Table 2, and let  $0 \leq t < 1$ . We have*

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \left( \frac{1+i}{2} L(\chi_6, -2n) + \frac{1-i}{2} L(\chi_7, -2n) \right) t^n = e^{-t} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-(12n^2+12n+1)t}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 - ie^{-24rt})} \quad (2.6)$$

and

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \left( \frac{1-i}{2} L(\chi_6, -2n) + \frac{1+i}{2} L(\chi_7, -2n) \right) t^n = e^{-t} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-(12n^2+12n+1)t}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 + ie^{-24rt})}. \quad (2.7)$$

*Proof.* Define  $H : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by

$$H(t) = e^{-t} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-(12n^2+12n+1)t}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 - ie^{-24rt})}.$$

By Theorem 1.2, for  $t > 0$ ,

$$H(t) = e^{-t} G(i, e^{-24t}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} i^k e^{-(6k+1)^2 t} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} i^{k-1} e^{-(6k-1)^2 t}. \quad (2.8)$$

Notice that  $\frac{(1+i)}{2}\chi_6(6k+1) + \frac{(1-i)}{2}\chi_7(6k+1) = i^k$  and  $\frac{(1+i)}{2}\chi_6(6k-1) + \frac{(1-i)}{2}\chi_7(6k-1) = i^{k-1}$ , and that  $\chi_6(n) = \chi_7(n) = 0$  when  $n$  is not of the form  $6k+1$  or  $6k-1$ . Thus (2.8) becomes

$$H(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{(1+i)}{2}\chi_6(n) + \frac{(1-i)}{2}\chi_7(n) \right) e^{-n^2 t}.$$

Now, let  $F : \{s \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re}(s) > 0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by  $F(s) = \int_0^{\infty} H(t)t^{s-1}dt$ . For any  $s$  with  $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 0$ , we have

$$F(s) = \int_0^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{(1+i)}{2}\chi_6(n) + \frac{(1-i)}{2}\chi_7(n) \right) e^{-n^2 t} t^{s-1} dt \quad (2.9)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{(1+i)}{2}\chi_6(n) + \frac{(1-i)}{2}\chi_7(n) \right) \int_0^{\infty} e^{-n^2 t} t^{s-1} dt \quad (2.10)$$

since the integral and sum are absolutely convergent for  $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 0$ . Recall that the  $\Gamma$  function is commonly defined as  $\Gamma(s) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{s-1} dt$ . Substituting  $u = n^2 t$  in the integral in each summand in (2.10), we find

$$\begin{aligned} F(s) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{(1+i)}{2}\chi_6(n) + \frac{(1-i)}{2}\chi_7(n) \right) \frac{1}{n^{2s}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} u^{s-1} dt \\ &= \Gamma(s) \left( \frac{(1+i)}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\chi_6(n)}{n^{2s}} + \frac{(1-i)}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\chi_7(n)}{n^{2s}} \right) \\ &= \Gamma(s) \left( \frac{(1+i)}{2} L(\chi_6, 2s) + \frac{(1-i)}{2} L(\chi_7, 2s) \right) \end{aligned}$$

It is well-known ([7], p. 250) that  $\Gamma$  has an analytic continuation to  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{n \in \mathbb{Z} : n \leq 0\}$ , with poles of order 1 at the nonpositive integers, defined as follows. For any negative integer  $n$  and any  $s$  with  $n < \operatorname{Re}(s) \leq n+1$ ,  $\Gamma(s) = \frac{1}{s(s+1)\cdots(s+n-1)}\Gamma(s+n)$ . It is easily verified that the residue of  $\Gamma$  at the negative integer  $k$  is  $(-1)^n/n!$ .

Using the analytic continuations of  $L(\chi_6, s)$  and  $L(\chi_7, s)$ , we can extend  $F(s)$  to a meromorphic function on  $\mathbb{C}$  that has poles of order 1 at the nonpositive integers and is analytic elsewhere. Moreover, the residue at the pole  $s = -n$  of  $F(s)$  is

$$\frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \left( \frac{(1+i)}{2} L(\chi_6, -2n) + \frac{(1-i)}{2} L(\chi_7, -2n) \right).$$

Define the complex numbers  $a(n)$  by

$$H(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a(n)t^n,$$

since  $H$  is analytic. Then, for any positive integer  $N$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^\infty H(t)t^{s-1}dt &= \int_0^1 \sum_{n=0}^\infty a(n)t^{n+s-1}dt + \int_1^\infty H(t)t^{s-1}dt \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{a(n)}{n+s} + \sum_{n=N+1}^\infty \frac{a(n)}{n+s} + \int_1^\infty H(t)t^{s-1}dt.\end{aligned}$$

Since  $\sum_{n=N+1}^\infty \frac{a(n)}{n+s} + \int_1^\infty H(t)t^{s-1}dt$  is an analytic function of  $s$  in the half plane  $\operatorname{Re}(s) > N$ , the residue of the pole at  $s = -n$  is  $a(n)$ . Thus

$$a(n) = \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \left( \frac{(1+i)}{2} L(\chi_6, -2n) + \frac{(1-i)}{2} L(\chi_7, -2n) \right)$$

for all  $n$ , and equation (2.6) follows.

The proof of equation (2.7) is analogous. □

Adding and subtracting equations (2.6) and (2.7), we obtain

$$\sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} L(\chi_6, -2n)t^n = 2e^{-t} + \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{e^{-(12n^2+12n+1)t}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 - ie^{-24rt})} + \frac{e^{-(12n^2+12n+1)t}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 + ie^{-24rt})}$$

and

$$\sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} L(\chi_7, -2n)t^n = i \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{e^{-(12n^2+12n+1)t}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 - ie^{-24rt})} - \frac{e^{-(12n^2+12n+1)t}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 + ie^{-24rt})},$$

which are equations (1.11) and (1.13) of Theorem 1.3.

To prove equality (1.12) of Theorem 1.3, note that by Theorem 1.4,

$$qR(i, 1/q^{24}) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \chi_6(n)q^{n^2}.$$

Replacing  $q$  by  $e^{-t}$ , an argument identical to that for Lemma 2.4 shows that

$$\sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} L(\chi_6, -2n)t^n = e^{-t} + e^{-t} \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{e^{-24nt}}{\prod_{r=1}^n (1 + e^{-48rt})}$$

as desired.

### 3 Future Work

Given the fascinating properties of the functions  $G(z, q)$  and  $R(z, q)$  when  $z$  is a fourth root of unity, it is natural to ask whether Theorems 1.2 and 1.4 are specializations of a more general phenomenon that occurs when  $z$  is an arbitrary root of unity. Understanding

the behavior of the coefficients of these functions at  $m$ th roots of unity may also unlock more information about the distribution of the rank function modulo  $m$ , for both strict and unrestricted partitions.

Dyson's rank does not provide a combinatorial interpretation of the fact that  $Q(n)$  is usually divisible by 8 in the same manner as it does for 2 and 4. Thus, it may also be fruitful to investigate generalizations of Dyson's rank in order to find a partition statistic that, when taken modulo  $2^j$ , classifies the partitions of  $n$  into  $2^j$  equal classes. More generally, perhaps an analog of the crank function that applies to  $Q(n)$  is waiting to be discovered.

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