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▶ To cite this version:

D D Somashekara, K N Vidya. On-Regular Bipartitions Modulom.Hardy-Ramanujan Journal, 2019, Atelier Digit_Hum, pp.50 - 57. 10.46298/hrj.2019.5106 . hal-01986071

HAL Id: hal-01986071 https://hal.science/hal-01986071v1

Submitted on 18 Jan 2019

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On ℓ -Regular Bipartitions Modulo m

D. D. Somashekara and K. N. Vidya

In memory of Professor S. Srinivasan

Abstract. Let $b_{\ell}(n)$ denote the number of ℓ -regular partitions of n and $B_{\ell}(n)$ denote the number of ℓ -regular bipartitions of n. In this paper, we establish several infinite families of congruences satisfied by $B_{\ell}(n)$ for $\ell \in \{2, 4, 7\}$. We also establish a relation between $b_9(2n)$ and $B_3(n)$.

Keywords. Congruence, partition, regular partition, regular bipartition, theta functions 2010 Mathematics Subject Classification. 11P83, 05A17.

1. Introduction and Notations

A partition of a positive integer n is any non-increasing sequence of positive integers whose sum is n. The number of such partitions is denoted by p(n), and the number of partitions where the summands are distinct is denoted by q(n). Let $b_{\ell}(n)$ denote the number of ℓ -regular partitions of n, where an ℓ -regular partition of n is a partition of n such that none of its parts is divisible by ℓ . It is known that $b_2(n) = q(n)$. The generating function for the number of ℓ -regular partitions of n is given by

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_{\ell}(n)q^n = \frac{f_{\ell}}{f_1}$$

where f_k is defined by $f_k := \prod_{m=1}^{\infty} (1 - q^{km}), k$, a positive integer.

In 1997 Gordon and Ono [GoOn97] obtained some divisibility properties of $b_{\ell}(n)$ by powers of certain special primes. In fact they have proved the following results:

1. Let $\ell = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_m^{\alpha_m}$ be the prime factorization of a positive integer ℓ and let $b_\ell(n)$ denote the number of ℓ -regular partitions of n. If $p_i^{\alpha_i} \ge \sqrt{\ell}$, then for every positive integer j

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{S_{\ell}(N; p_i^j)}{N} = 1,$$

where $S_{\ell}(N; M)$ is the number of positive integers $n \leq N$ for which $b_{\ell}(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{M}$. In other words the set of those positive integers n for which $b_{\ell}(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{p_i^j}$ has arithmetic density one. In fact there exists a positive constant α depending on p_i , j and ℓ such that there are at most $O(\frac{N}{\log^a N})$ many integers $n \leq N$ for which $b_{\ell}(n)$ is not divisible by p_i^j .

2. Let $\ell = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_m^{\alpha_m}$ be the prime factorization of a positive integer ℓ and let $b_\ell(n)$ denote the number of ℓ -regular partitions of n. If $p_i^{\alpha_i} \ge \sqrt{\ell}$, then there are infinitely many integers n for which

$$b_{\ell}(n) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p_i}.$$

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These results have strongly influenced many authors to study the arithmetic properties of $b_{\ell}(n)$, its divisibility and the distribution. In fact Andrews, Hirschhorn and Sellers [AnHiSe10] derived some infinite families of congruences for $b_4(n)$ modulo 2. Hirschhorn and Sellers [HiSe10] obtained many Ramanujan-type congruences for $b_5(n)$ modulo 2. Webb [We11] established an infinite family of congruences for $b_{13}(n)$ modulo 3. Xia and Yao [XiYa14a] established several infinite families of congruences for $b_9(n)$ modulo 2. Cui and Gu [CuGu13] derived congruences for $b_{\ell}(n)$ modulo 2 for certain values of ℓ by employing the *p*-dissection formulas of Ramanujan's theta functions. In [Xi14], Xia found congruences for $b_4(n)$ modulo 8. Keith [Ke14] obtained the following conjecture which was proved by Xia and Yao in [XiYa14b]:

Theorem 1.1. For $k = 0, 2, 3, 4, \alpha \ge 1$ and $n \ge 0$,

$$b_9\left(5^{2\alpha}n + \frac{(3k+2)5^{2\alpha-1} - 1}{3}\right) \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$$

Dandurand and Penniston [DaPe09] gave the exact criteria for the divisibility of $b_{\ell}(n)$ for $\ell \in \{5, 7, 11\}$. Xia [Xi15] showed that $b_{\ell}(A(k)n + B(k)) \equiv C(k)b_{\ell}(n) \pmod{\ell}$, where A(k), B(k) and C(k) are functions in k and $\ell \in \{13, 17, 19\}$ and derived several strange congruences for $b_{\ell}(n) \mod{\ell}$. Wang [Wa17a][Wa17b] established several infinite families of congruences modulo powers of 5 for $b_5(n)$. Recently, in [AdRa18], Adiga and Ranganatha proved Ramanujan-type congruences modulo powers of 7 for $b_7(n)$ and $b_{49}(n)$.

An ℓ -regular bipartition of n is an ordered pair of ℓ -regular partitions (λ_1, λ_2) such that the sum of all the parts equals n. Denote the number of ℓ -regular bipartitions of n by $B_{\ell}(n)$. Then, the generating function of $B_{\ell}(n)$ is given by

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_{\ell}(n)q^n = \frac{f_{\ell}^2}{f_1^2}.$$
(1.1)

Using Ramanujan's two modular equations of degree 7, Lin [Li15] established an infinite family of congruences for $B_7(n)$ modulo 3 and in [Li16], he established infinite families of congruences for $B_{13}(n)$ modulo 3. In [KaFa17], Kathiravan and Fathima proved several infinite families of congruences satisfied by $B_\ell(n)$ for $\ell \in \{5, 7, 13\}$. They showed that for all $\alpha > 0$,

$$B_{5}\left(4^{\alpha}n + \frac{5 \times 4^{\alpha} - 2}{6}\right) \equiv 0 \pmod{5},$$

$$B_{7}\left(5^{8\alpha}n + \frac{5^{8\alpha} - 1}{2}\right) \equiv 3^{\alpha}B_{7}(n) \pmod{7} \text{ and}$$

$$B_{13}\left(5^{12\alpha}n + 5^{12\alpha} - 1\right) \equiv B_{13}(n) \pmod{13}.$$

A (k, ℓ) -regular bipartition of n is a bipartition (λ, μ) of n such that λ is a k-regular partition and μ is an ℓ -regular partition. Let $B_{k,\ell}(n)$ denote the number of (k, ℓ) -regular bipartitions of n. Then the generating function of $B_{k,\ell}(n)$ is given by

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_{k,\ell}(n)q^n = \frac{f_k f_\ell}{f_1^2}.$$

Dou [Do16] proved an infinite family of congruences modulo 11: for $\alpha \geq 2$ and $n \geq 0$

$$B_{3,11}\left(3^{\alpha}n + \frac{5 \cdot 3^{\alpha-1} - 1}{2}\right) \equiv 0 \pmod{11}.$$

She stated two conjectures:

Conjecture 1: For any $n \ge 0$, $B_{5,7}(7n+6) \equiv 0 \pmod{7}$. Conjecture 2: For any $n \ge 0$,

$$\begin{array}{rcl} B_{3,7}(An+B) &\equiv & 0 \pmod{2}, \\ B_{3,7}(Cn+D) &\equiv & 0 \pmod{3}, \\ B_{3,7}(En+F) &\equiv & 0 \pmod{9}, \end{array}$$

where $(A, B) \in \{(14, 4), (14, 10), (16, 1), (28, 6), (32, 21)\}$, (C, D) = (4, 3), and $(E, F) \in \{(7, 3), (7, 4), (14, 13), (21, 6), (21, 20), (25, 3), (25, 13), (25, 18), (25, 23)\}$. In [Wa16], Wang studied the arithmetic properties of $B_{3,\ell}(n)$ and $B_{5,\ell}(n)$ and confirmed the conjectures proposed by Dou. Xia and Yao [XiYa18] also confirmed the conjectures of Dou and proved several infinite families of congruences for $B_{s,t}(n)$ modulo 3, 5 and 7. Adiga and Ranganatha [AdRa17] provided a simple proof for Ramanujan type congruence for the (3, 7)-regular bipartitions modulo 3 which was conjectured by Dou and also found some new infinite families of congruences for (3, 7)-regular bipartitions modulo 3.

In this sequel, we establish an infinite family of congruences modulo m for ℓ -regular bipartitions, where $\ell \in \{2, 4, 7\}$. Also, we establish a relation between $b_9(2n)$ and $B_3(n)$.

2. Preliminary Lemmas

Ramanujan's [Ber91] [Ra57] general theta function f(a, b) is given by

$$\begin{split} f(a,b) &:= 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (ab)^{n(n-1)/2} (a^n + b^n) \\ &= \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} (ab)^{n(n+1)/2} (b)^{n(n-1)/2}, \quad |ab| < 1. \end{split}$$

The special cases of f(a, b) are given by

$$\varphi(q) := f(q,q) = 1 + 2\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} q^{k^2} = \frac{(-q;q^2)_{\infty}(q^2;q^2)_{\infty}}{(q;q^2)_{\infty}(-q^2;q^2)_{\infty}},$$
(2.2)

$$\psi(q) := f(q, q^3) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} q^{k(k+1)/2} = \frac{(q^2; q^2)_{\infty}}{(q; q^2)_{\infty}},$$
(2.3)

$$f(-q) := f(-q, -q^2) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} (-1)^k q^{k(3k-1)/2} = (q;q)_{\infty},$$
(2.4)

$$\chi(q) := (-q; q^2)_{\infty}.$$
 (2.5)

Cui and Gu[CuGu13] found the following *p*-dissections of $\psi(q)$ and f(-q).

Lemma 2.1. (Cui and Gu[CuGu13, Theorem(2.1)])For any odd prime p,

$$\psi(q) = \sum_{k=0}^{\frac{p-3}{2}} q^{\frac{k^2+k}{2}} f(q^{\frac{p^2+(2k+1)p}{2}}, q^{\frac{p^2-(2k+1)p}{2}}) + q^{\frac{p^2-1}{8}} \psi(q^{p^2}),$$
(2.6)

where $\frac{k^2+k}{2}$ and $\frac{p^2-1}{8}$ are not in the same residue class modulo p for $0 \le k \le (p-3)/2$.

Lemma 2.2. (Cui and Gu[CuGu13, Theorem(2.2)])For any prime $p \ge 5$,

$$f(-q) = \sum_{\substack{k=-\frac{p-1}{2}\\k\neq\pm\frac{p-1}{6}}}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (-1)^k q^{\frac{3k^2+k}{2}} f(-q^{\frac{3p^2-(6k+1)p}{2}}, -q^{\frac{3p^2+(6k+1)p}{2}}) + (-1)^{\pm\frac{p-1}{6}} q^{\frac{p^2-1}{24}} f(-q^{p^2}),$$
(2.7)

where \pm depends on the conditions that $(\pm p - 1)/6$ should be an integer. Moreover, note that $(3k^2 + k)/2 \not\equiv (p^2 - 1)/24 \pmod{p}$ as k runs through the range of the summation.

3. Main Results

Theorem 3.1. We have

$$b_9(2n) \equiv B_3(n) \pmod{3}.$$
 (3.8)

Proof. By the binomial theorem, it is easy to see that for any prime ℓ ,

$$f_{\ell} \equiv f_1^{\ell} \pmod{\ell}. \tag{3.9}$$

Putting l = 3 in (3.9) and then changing q to q^3 in the resulting identity, we obtain

$$f_9 \equiv f_3^3 \pmod{3}. \tag{3.10}$$

Changing q to q^2 in (3.10) we obtain

$$f_{18} \equiv f_6^3 \pmod{3}. \tag{3.11}$$

Xia and Yao[XiYa12] proved that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_9(n)q^n = \frac{f_{12}^3 f_{18}}{f_2^2 f_6 f_{36}} + q \frac{f_4^2 f_6 f_{36}}{f_2^3 f_{12}}.$$

Extracting those terms in which the power of q is congruent to 0 modulo 2 in the above equation and then changing q^2 to q, we obtain

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_9(2n)q^n = \frac{f_6^3 f_9}{f_1^2 f_3 f_{18}} \equiv \frac{f_3^2}{f_1^2} \pmod{3}$$
$$\equiv \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_3(n)q^n \pmod{3},$$

on using (3.10) and (3.11). This gives (3.8) on comparing coefficients of q^n .

Theorem 3.2. For any prime $p \ge 5$ and non negative integers α and n, we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_2\left(p^{2\alpha}n + \frac{p^{2\alpha} - 1}{12}\right)q^n \equiv f^2(-q) \pmod{2}.$$
(3.12)

Proof. We prove the Theorem by induction on α . When $\alpha = 0$, we have by definition,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_2(n)q^n = \frac{(q^2; q^2)_{\infty}^2}{(q; q)_{\infty}^2} = (-q; q)_{\infty}^2 \equiv f^2(-q) \pmod{2}.$$
(3.13)

Suppose that the result is true for $\alpha > 0$. Then we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_2\left(p^{2\alpha}n + \frac{p^{2\alpha} - 1}{12}\right)q^n \equiv f^2(-q) \pmod{2}.$$
(3.14)

Now we prove the case for $\alpha + 1$. Squaring both the sides of (2.7), substituting the resulting identity to the right of (3.14), extracting those terms in which the power of q is congruent to $\frac{p^2-1}{12}$ modulo p in the resulting identity and then changing q^p to q, we obtain

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_2\left(p^{2\alpha}\left(pn + \frac{p^2 - 1}{12}\right) + \frac{p^{2\alpha} - 1}{12}\right)q^n \equiv f^2(-q^p) \pmod{2}.$$
(3.15)

Changing n to pn and then changing q^p to q in the above identity, we obtain

$$\begin{split} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_2 \left(p^{2\alpha} \left(p^{2\alpha} + \frac{p^2 - 1}{12} \right) + \frac{p^{2\alpha} - 1}{12} \right) q^n \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_2 \left(p^{2\alpha+2} n + \frac{p^{2\alpha+2} - 1}{12} \right) q^n \equiv f^2(-q) \pmod{2}. \end{split}$$

Therefore, the result is true for $\alpha + 1$ and hence for all $\alpha \ge 0$.

Corollary 3.3. For any prime $p \ge 5$, non negative integers α and n and for $i = 1, 2, \dots, p-1$, we have

$$B_2\left(p^{2\alpha+2}n + \frac{(12i+p)p^{2\alpha+1}-1}{12}\right) \equiv 0 \pmod{2}.$$
(3.16)

Proof. From (3.15), we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_2\left(p^{2\alpha+1}n + \frac{p^{2\alpha+2} - 1}{12}\right)q^n \equiv f^2(-q^p) \pmod{2}.$$

Since there are no terms on the right of the above equation in which the powers of q are congruent to $1, 2, \dots, p-1$ modulo p, (3.16) follows.

Theorem 3.4. For any odd prime p and for non negative integers α and n, we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_4\left(p^{2\alpha}n + \frac{p^{2\alpha} - 1}{4}\right)q^n \equiv \psi^2(q) \pmod{2}.$$
(3.17)

Proof. When $\alpha = 0$, we have by definition,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_4(n)q^n = \frac{(q^4; q^4)_{\infty}^2}{(q; q)_{\infty}^2} \equiv [(q; q)_{\infty}^3]^2 \pmod{2}.$$
(3.18)

From [Ja1881] we recall Jacobi's identity

$$(q;q)_{\infty}^{3} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{n} (2n+1) q^{n(n+1)/2}.$$
(3.19)

Hence we have

$$(q;q)_{\infty}^{3} \equiv \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} q^{n(n+1)/2} \equiv \psi(q) \pmod{2}.$$

Therefore from (3.18) we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_4(n)q^n = \psi^2(q) \pmod{2},$$
(3.20)

which is the case $\alpha = 0$ of (3.17). Suppose the result holds for $\alpha > 0$. Then we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_4\left(p^{2\alpha}n + \frac{p^{2\alpha} - 1}{4}\right)q^n \equiv \psi^2(q) \pmod{2}.$$
(3.21)

Now we prove the case for $\alpha + 1$. Squaring both the sides of (2.6), substituting the resulting identity to the right of (3.21), extracting those terms in which the power of q is congruent to $\frac{p^2-1}{4}$ modulo p in the resulting identity and then changing q^p to q, we obtain

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_4\left(p^{2\alpha}\left(pn + \frac{p^2 - 1}{4}\right) + \frac{p^{2\alpha} - 1}{4}\right)q^n \equiv \psi^2(q^p) \pmod{2}.$$
 (3.22)

On changing n to pn and then changing q^p to q, we obtain

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_4\left(p^{2\alpha}\left(p^2n + \frac{p^2 - 1}{4}\right) + \frac{p^{2\alpha} - 1}{4}\right)q^n \equiv \psi^2(q) \pmod{2}$$

which is same as

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_4\left(p^{2(\alpha+1)}n + \frac{p^{2(\alpha+1)} - 1}{4}\right)q^n \equiv \psi^2(q) \pmod{2}.$$

Therefore, the result is true for $\alpha + 1$ and hence for all $\alpha \ge 0$.

Corollary 3.5. For any odd prime p, non negative integers α and n, and for $i = 1, 2, \dots, p-1$, we have

$$B_4\left(p^{(2\alpha+1)}n + \frac{(4i+p)p^{(2\alpha+1)} - 1}{4}\right) \equiv 0 \pmod{2}.$$
(3.23)

Proof. From (3.22) we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_4\left(p^{(2\alpha+1)}n + \frac{p^{2\alpha+2} - 1}{4}\right)q^n \equiv \psi^2(q^p) \pmod{2}.$$

Since there are no terms on the right of the above equation in which the powers of q are congruent to $1, 2, \dots, p-1$ modulo p, (3.23) follows.

Theorem 3.6. For $\alpha \geq 1$, we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_7 \left(3^{(2\alpha-1)}n + \frac{3^{2\alpha}-1}{2} \right) q^n \equiv 3^{4\alpha} f_3^{12} \pmod{7}.$$
(3.24)

Proof. We have by (3.19)

$$\begin{aligned} (q;q)_{\infty}^{3} &= \sum_{k=0}^{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{3n+k} (2(3n+k)+1) q^{\frac{(3n+k)((3n+k)+1)}{2}} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{2} (-1)^{k} q^{k(k+1)/2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{n} (6n+2k+1) q^{3n \cdot \frac{3n+2k+1}{2}} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{k=0\\k\neq 1}}^{2} (-1)^{k} q^{k(k+1)/2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{n} (6n+2k+1) q^{3n \cdot \frac{3n+2k+1}{2}} - 3q(q^{9};q^{9})^{3}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have

$$(q;q)_{\infty}^{6} = \left[\sum_{\substack{k=0\\k\neq 1}}^{2} (-1)^{k} q^{k(k+1)/2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{n} (6n+2k+1) q^{3n \cdot \frac{3n+2k+1}{2}} - 3q(q^{9};q^{9})^{3}\right]^{2}.$$
 (3.25)

Now we have by definition,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_7(n)q^n = \frac{(q^7; q^7)_{\infty}^2}{(q; q)_{\infty}^2} \equiv (q; q)_{\infty}^{12} \pmod{7}.$$
(3.26)

From (3.25), we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_7\left(3n + \frac{3^2 - 1}{2}\right)q^n \equiv 3^4(q^3; q^3)_{\infty}^{12} \pmod{7},\tag{3.27}$$

which is the case $\alpha = 1$ of (3.24). Changing n to 3n in (3.27) and then changing q^3 to q in the resulting identity, we obtain

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_7\left(3^2n + \frac{3^2 - 1}{2}\right)q^n \equiv 3^4(q;q)_{\infty}^{12} \pmod{7}.$$
(3.28)

From (3.26) and (3.28), we deduce that

$$B_7\left(3^2n + \frac{3^2 - 1}{2}\right)q^n \equiv 3^4B_7(n) \pmod{7}.$$
(3.29)

The theorem then follows from (3.27), (3.29) and induction on α .

Corollary 3.7. For $\alpha \geq 1$ and i = 1, 2, we have

$$B_7\left(3^{2\alpha}n + \frac{(2i+3)3^{2\alpha-1} - 1}{2}\right) \equiv 0 \pmod{7}.$$
(3.30)

Proof. The result follows directly from the fact that the right-hand side of (3.24) is a power series in q^3 .

Acknowledgements: The authors are thankful to the refree for his/her valuable suggestions which has considerably improved the quality of the paper. The second author is thankful to UGC for awarding the Basic Science Research Fellowship, No.F.25-1/2014-15(BSR)/No.F.7-349/2012(BSR).

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