

# A Prelude to Euler's Pentagonal Number Theorem

August 15, 2007

## Preliminaries: Partitions

In this paper we intend to explore the elementaries of partition theory, taken from a mostly graphic perspective, culminating in a theorem key in the proof of Euler's Pentagonal Number Theorem.

A *partition*  $\lambda = (\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \dots \lambda_r)$  of a positive integer  $n$  is a nonincreasing sequence of positive integers whose sum is  $n$ . As each  $n$  is finite, it follows trivially that each sequence is finite. Elements of a partition are called *parts*. As it is common for a given partition of  $n$  to have an inconvenient amount of repetition (for example,  $n$  may be written as a sum of  $n$  1's), it will sometimes be useful to write a partition as a series of distinct integers, with subscripts denoting the number of repetitions of each integer. Thus, for example,  $3+3+2+2+2+2+1+1 = 16$  will be written  $(3_2 2_4 1_2)$ .

Many problems in partition theory deal with the number of partitions of  $n$ . In this spirit, we define the partition function  $p(n)$  as the number of partitions of  $n$ . As an illustration of the aforementioned concepts, we list the first six values of  $p(n)$ , and enumerate the corresponding partitions in lexicographical order.

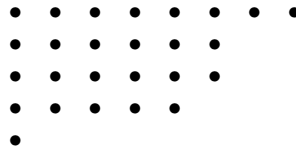
$p(1) = 1: 1=(1);$   
 $p(2) = 2: 2=(2), 1+1=(1_2);$   
 $p(3) = 3: 3=(3), 2+1=(21), 1+1+1=(1_3);$   
 $p(4) = 5: 4=(4), 3+1=(31), 2+2=(2_2), 2+1+1=(21_2), 1+1+1+1=(1_4);$   
 $p(5) = 7: 5=(5), 4+1=(41), 3+2=(32), 3+1+1=(31_2), 2+2+1=(2_2 1), 2+1+1+1=(21_3),$   
 $1+1+1+1+1=(1_5);$   
 $p(6) = 11: 6=(6), 5+1=(51), 4+2=(42), 4+1+1=(41_2), 3+3=(3_2), 3+2+1=(321),$   
 $3+1+1+1=(31_3), 2+2+2=(2_3), 2+2+1+1=(2_2 1_2), 2+1+1+1+1=(21_4), 1+1+1+1+1+1=(1_6);$

The partition function continues to increase rapidly with  $n$ . For example,  $p(10) = 42$ ,  $p(20) = 627$ ,  $p(50) = 204,226$ ,  $p(100) = 190,596,292$ ,  $p(200) = 3,972,999,029,388$  (!).

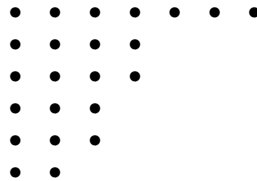
One useful tool for analysing partitions is a generating function for  $p(n)$ , however in this paper we will endeavor to use a graphical means of analysis, as it is simple, yet achieves non-intuitive and surprising results- and is hence most elegant.

## Graphical Representation of Partitions

We introduce the Ferrers diagram (or graph, as it is also called), named for British mathematician Norman Macleod Ferrers (1829-1903), who created them to uniquely represent partitions of  $n$ . A Ferrers diagram consists of a stack of rows of dots or squares, each row representing a part of the partition, and the number of dots in the row the size of the part. For example, the Ferrers diagram of  $(86_251)$  is:



Similarly, we have  $(74_23_22)$

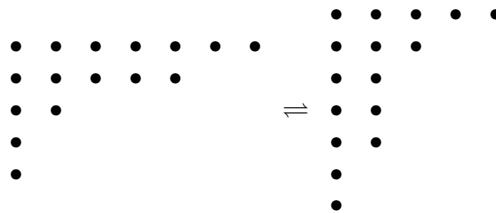


To illustrate the usefulness of the Ferrers diagram, and to further explore partitions, we introduce some problems along with their solutions.

## Examples

### Claim 1

**The number of partitions of  $n$  into no more than  $k$  parts is equal to the number of partitions of  $n$  in which no part is greater than  $k$ .** Integral to the proof of this claim is the quite natural concept of the *conjugate* of a Ferrers diagram, which is easily described if we think of the diagram as a matrix. Let us consider the Ferrers diagram as analagous to an  $N \times M$  matrix with  $a_{ij}$  equal to 1 if the corresponding location in the diagram contains a dot, and 0 otherwise for all  $1 \leq i \leq N, 1 \leq j \leq M$ . This being the case, the conjugate of a diagram would be analogous to the transposed matrix. We note it is fairly obvious that  $D^{c^c} = D$ , since for all matrices  $M, M^{t^t} = M$ .



### Proof of claim 1

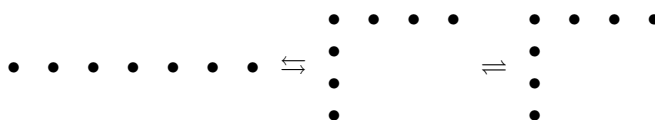
Now, using conjugates, the proof is relatively trivial. Suppose we let  $S$  be the set of all partitions of  $n$  with no more than  $k$  parts, and  $T$  be the set of all partitions of  $n$  with parts at most  $k$  (in value). We now form a bijection between the two sets, associating with each member of  $S$  the partition represented by the conjugate of its Ferrers diagram, which we claim is a member of  $T$ . Since a partition with no more than  $k$  parts will be represented by a diagram of no more than  $k$  rows, the conjugate of which will have no more than  $k$  columns, and hence represent a partition whose greatest part is at most  $k$ , and noting the process is reversible, the bijection is valid. ■

### Claim 2

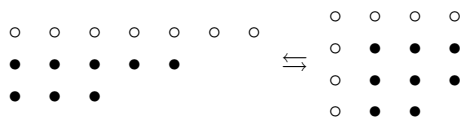
**The number of partitions of  $n$  that are composed of distinct odd parts is equal to the number of partitions of  $n$  whose Ferrers diagrams are self-conjugate.**

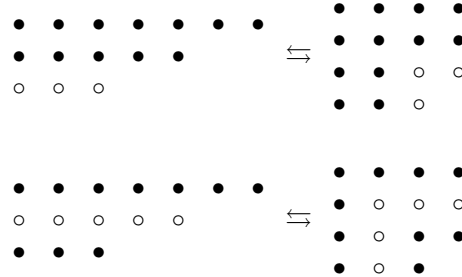
### Proof of Claim 2

We again shall attempt to create a bijection between the two sets,  $S$  containing all partitions of with distinct odd parts,  $T$  containing all partitions whose Ferrers diagrams are self-conjugate. Note the elements of  $S$  and  $T$  are not associated with any particular  $n$ - we simply are creating a bijection between the two kinds of partitions. We proceed by induction on the number of distinct odd parts in a partition  $\lambda$  in  $S$ . First, we let  $\lambda$  be composed of one odd part. In this case, we take the ferrers diagram, and fold it, like so:



This process is clearly reversible, and so we insert the double sided arrow. We use the  $\rightleftharpoons$  to show the second diagram is the conjugate of the third, and vice a versa. By the inductive hypothesis, we may do so with  $k$  odd distinct parts. Suppose now that we add one more distinct odd part,  $\lambda_i$  to  $\lambda$ , making  $\lambda'$ . Either  $\lambda_i$  is the largest part of  $\lambda'$ , the smallest, or neither. In all three cases, the diagram of  $\lambda'$  is still self-conjugate:





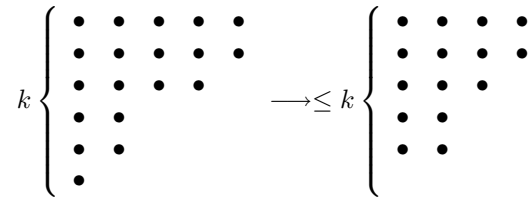
Let  $H(n)$  be the set of all partitions of  $n$ . Since we have a bijection between  $S$  and  $T$ , we clearly have a bijection between  $S \cap H(n)$  and  $T \cap H(n)$  ■

### Claim 3

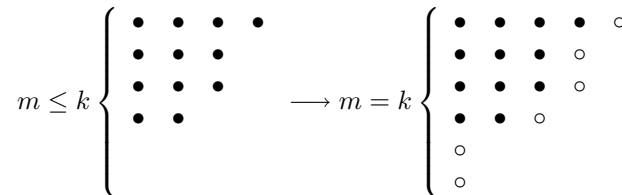
**The number of partitions of  $n$  with number of parts at most  $k$  is equal to the number of partitions of  $n+k$  with number of parts exactly  $k$ .**

### Proof of Claim 3

Once again, we will form a bijection between the two sets of partitions. Let  $S$  be the set of all partitions of  $n$  with number of parts at most  $k$ , and let  $T$  be the set of partitions of  $n+k$  with number of parts exactly  $k$ . Suppose we begin with  $\lambda \in T$ . We will then take its Ferrers diagram, and subtract one dot from each row (part) of  $\lambda$ .



Since  $\lambda$  has  $k$  parts, its diagram has  $k$  rows, and hence we may subtract  $k$  from the partition by taking a dot from each row. The resulting diagram has at most  $k$  rows (it will have less if it had any rows with only one dot), and hence represents a partition of  $(n+k) - k = n$ , since the diagram now has only  $n$  dots in it. Therefore the resulting diagram represents an element of  $S$ . In the other direction, we may take  $\lambda \in S$  with  $m \leq k$  parts. We add one dot to each of its rows, plus  $k - m$  rows, with one dot in each row.

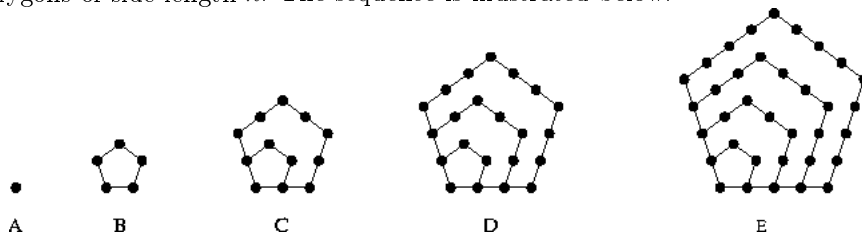


We have now added to the original  $m$  rows  $m - k$  rows, making  $k$  rows, and  $k$  dots to the original  $n$ , making the new diagram representative of a partition of  $n + k$  with exactly  $k$  parts. ■

Now that we are thoroughly comfortable with ferrers diagrams, we move on to the pentagonal number theorem.

## The Pentagonal numbers

The pentagonal numbers are polygonal numbers, i.e. generated by constructing polygons of side length  $n$ . The sequence is illustrated below.



The sequence begins, as we observe from the illustration, 1, 5, 12, 22, 35... (Sloane's A000326), and is generated by

$$P_m = \frac{m(3m - 1)}{2}$$

It is interesting though of little use to this paper to note that  $3P_n$  is the  $n$ th triangular number. The generalised pentagonal numbers, which seem to have little geometric interpretation, are obtained by letting the minus sign in the formula above become a  $\pm$ . This sequence is 1, 2, 5, 7, 12, 15, 22... (Sloane's A001318). We now present a theorem.

## Theorem

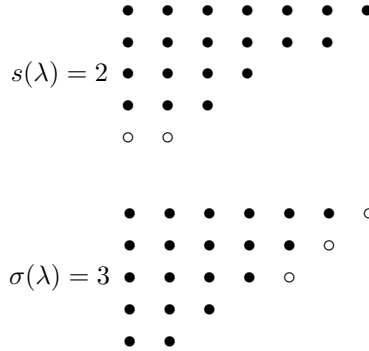
Let  $S$  be the set of all partitions of  $n$  into an even number of distinct parts. Let  $T$  be the set of all partitions of  $n$  into an odd number of distinct parts. Then

$$|S| - |T| = \begin{cases} (-1)^m & \text{if } n = \frac{1}{2}m(3m \pm 1) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Proof

For this proof, we will again attempt to form a bijection between  $S$  and  $T$ . The bijection will hold rather well, except of course when  $n$  is a generalised pentagonal number, where there will be one more of one kind than the other.

To begin with, we note that since for all partitions  $\lambda \in T, S$   $\lambda$  is composed of distinct parts, there is a smallest part of  $\lambda$ . We let the smallest part of  $\lambda$  be  $s(\lambda)$ . Also, the largest part of  $\lambda$  is the first in a subsequence of parts  $a_i$ , where  $a_{i+1} = a_i - 1$ . We denote the length of this sequence (which may be =1)  $\sigma(\lambda)$ . To further illustrate what each of these numbers represent, we provide the following figures:

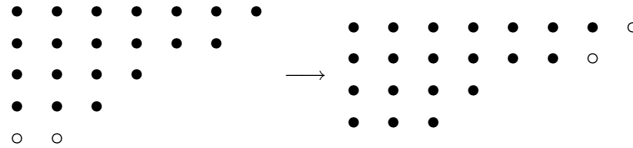


We will now describe a transformation on these diagrams that will establish a correspondence between partitions of  $n$  with even and odd number of parts, respectively.

**Case 1:**  $s(\lambda) \leq \sigma(\lambda)$  In this case, we delete the smallest part of  $\lambda$ , and add one dot to each of the  $s(\lambda)$  largest parts of  $\lambda$ . Thus

$$\lambda = (76432) \longrightarrow \lambda' = (8743)$$

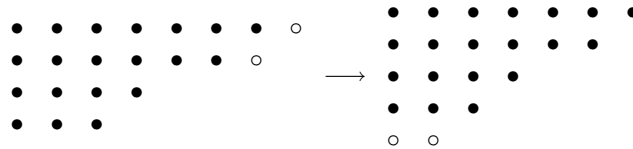
or



**Case 2:**  $s(\lambda) > \sigma(\lambda)$  In this case, we perform the reverse operation- we delete one dot from the  $\sigma(\lambda)$  largest parts of  $\lambda$ , and add a smallest part of size  $\sigma(\lambda)$  to the partition. Thus

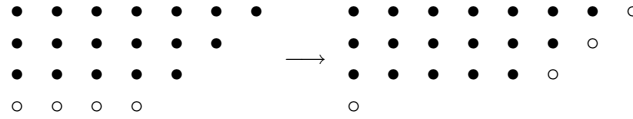
$$\lambda = (8743) \longrightarrow \lambda' = (76432)$$

or



In either case, the parity of the number of parts in  $\lambda$  is changed by the transformation, yet the number of dots stays the same. Hence, we still have a partition of  $n$ . Also, it is simple to see that this transformation is an involution, and that for any  $\lambda$ , exactly one case is applicable. Hence, it would seem we have a bijection between  $S$  and  $T$ . However, both cases break down for certain classes of partitions. Case 1 breaks down when  $\lambda$  has  $r$  parts,  $\sigma(\lambda) = r = s(\lambda)$ . In this case, the partition is no longer composed of distinct parts:

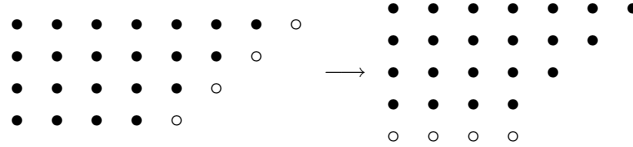
$$\lambda = (7654) \longrightarrow \lambda' = (8761)$$



In this case,  $n = r + (r + 1) + (r + 2) \cdots (2r - 1) = \frac{1}{2}r(3r - 1)$  by Gauss' formula for arithmetic sums.

On the other hand, Case 2 breaks down when  $\lambda$  has  $r$  parts,  $\sigma(\lambda) = r$ , and  $s(\lambda) = r + 1$ . In this case, the parity of the number of parts in  $\lambda$  is not changed by the transformation:

$$\lambda = (8765) \longrightarrow \lambda' = (76544)$$



Now, the number being partitioned is of the form  $n = (r + 1) + (r + 2) \cdots (2r) = \frac{1}{2}r(3r + 1)$ .

Consequently, we have that if  $n$  is not a generalised pentagonal number,  $|S| - |T| = 0$ . On the other hand, if  $n = \frac{m(3m-1)}{2}$ ,  $|S| - |T| = (-1)^m$ . ■

## Corollary: Euler's Pentagonal Number Theorem

$$\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 - q^n) = 1 + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} (-1)^m q^{\frac{1}{2}m(3m-1)} (1 + q^m) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} (-1)^m q^{\frac{1}{2}m(3m-1)}$$

We will not prove this theorem, as it takes an explanation of the generating function for  $p(n)$  to truly understand, but we present it here to satisfy the curiosity this paper has undoubtedly aroused in the reader.