Strictly chained (p, q)-ary partitions

Laurent Imbert

Joint work with Fabrice Philippe, Montpellier, France

CNRS, PIMS, University of Calgary

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Outline

- Quick introduction to integer partitions
- Strictly chained (p, q)-ary partitions
 - Encoding
 - Generating
 - Counting
- Applications
- Shortest (p, q)-ary partitions
- Open problems

Integer partitions

A *partition* of an integer *n* is a nonincreasing sequence of positive integers a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k whose sum is *n*. Each a_i is called a *part*.

For example, here are the 5 partitions of the integer 4:

$$4 = 4$$

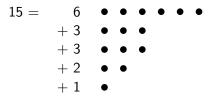
= 3 + 1
= 2 + 2
= 2 + 1 + 1
= 1 + 1 + 1 + 1

The partitions of *n* correspond to the set of solutions $(k_1, k_2, ..., k_n)$ in nonnegative integers to the Diophantine equation

$$1k_1+2k_2+3k_3+\cdots+nk_n=n$$

Ferrers diagrams

A nice and useful way to visualize partitions:



p(n, k): The number of partitions of *n* whose largest part is *k* is equal to the number of partitions of *n* with *k* parts.

p(n): The number of (unrestricted) partitions of n, where the order is not significant (p(n) = 0 for all n < 0 and p(0) = 1).

$$\mathcal{P}(4) = \{(4), (3, 1), (2, 2), (2, 1, 1), (1, 1, 1, 1)\}, \quad p(4) = 5.$$

Euler's partition function

Consider the product

$$(1 + x + x^{2} + x^{3} + \cdots)(1 + x^{2} + x^{4} + x^{6} + \cdots)(1 + x^{3} + x^{6} + \cdots)\cdots$$
 (1)

What is the coefficient of x^n in (1)?

Each contribution (of 1) to the coefficient of x^n is of the form

$$x^{1k_1} \cdot x^{2k_2} \cdot x^{3k_3} \cdots = x^{1k_1 + 2k_2 + 3k_3 + \cdots}$$

Thus, the coefficient of x^n is the number of ways of writing n as $1k_1 + 2k_2 + 3k_3 + \cdots + nk_n$, where $k_i \ge 0$. This is exactly p(n).

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n)x^n = \frac{1}{1-x} \cdot \frac{1}{1-x^2} \cdot \frac{1}{1-x^3} \cdots = \mathcal{E}(x)$$

Example 1

Let f(n) denote the number of partitions of n with no part 1.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f(n)x^n = x^0 \cdot \frac{1}{1-x^2} \cdot \frac{1}{1-x^3} \cdots \\ = \frac{1-x}{1-x} \cdot \frac{1}{1-x^2} \cdot \frac{1}{1-x^3} \cdots \\ = (1-x)\mathcal{E}(x)$$

This generating function yields the following result:

Lemma:
$$f(n) = p(n) - p(n-1)$$
.

Bijective proof: if a partition of n contains at least one part equal to 1, then removing one of these yields a partition of n - 1.

Example 2

q(n) is the number of partitions of n with disctinct parts.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} q(n)x^n = (1+x)(1+x^2)(1+x^3)\cdots$$
$$= \frac{1-x^2}{1-x} \cdot \frac{1-x^4}{1-x^2} \cdot \frac{1-x^6}{1-x^3} \cdot \frac{1-x^8}{1-x^4}\cdots$$
$$= \frac{1}{1-x} \cdot \frac{1}{1-x^3} \cdot \frac{1}{1-x^5}\cdots$$

Theorem: The number of partitions of n with distinct parts is equal to the number of partitions with odd parts.

Bijective proof: uses the fact that each part can be written as a power of 2 times an odd number.

More examples

- Partitions into primes (Goldbach conjecture)
- *m*-ary partitions: partitions as a sum of powers of *m* for a fixed *m* ≥ 2. (e.g. binary partitions)
- Partitions with parts occurring at most thrice [A. Fink, R. Guy, M. Krusemeyer 2008]

 $(1 + x + x^{2} + x^{3})(1 + x^{2} + x^{4} + x^{6})(1 + x^{3} + x^{6} + x^{12})\cdots$

- = Partitions with no part a multiple of 4
- = Partitions with no even parts repeated
- Chain, umbrella partitions: partitions constrained by divisibility conditions

Chain partitions

A *(strictly) chain partition* is a partition of the form $n = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_k$ into (distinct) positive integers such that $a_k |a_{k-1}| \dots |a_2| a_1$.

$$873 = 512 + 256 + 64 + 32 + 8 + 1$$

= 720 + 120 + 24 + 6 + 2 + 1
= 696 + 174 + 3

[Erdös-Loxton 1979]

- # partitions of this type: $p(n) \ge \log_2 n$ for $n \ge 6$
- # partitions of this type whose smallest part is 1: p₁(n) ≥ ½ log₂ n for n ≥ 27 and n − 1 not a prime
- $P(x) = \sum_{1 \le n \le x} p(n) \approx cx^{\rho}$, where c is an unknown constant and ρ is the unique root of $\zeta(s) 2$, where ζ is the Riemann zeta function.

Strictly chained (p, q)-ary partition

Strictly chained (p, q)-ary partitions are chain partitions with distinct parts of the form $p^a q^b$, where $p, q \ge 2$ and (p, q) = 1.

Notations:

- $\Omega(U)$: The set of all strictly chained (p,q)-ary partitions of U
- $\Omega^*(U)$: The subset of partitions $\omega \in \Omega(U)$ with no part 1
- $W(U) = \#\Omega(U)$
- $W^*(U) = \#\Omega^*(U)$

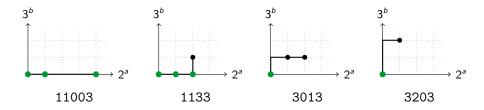
Special cases of interest:

- $\min(p,q) = 2$
- (p,q) = (2,3)

Graphic representation and encoding

Example with (p, q) = (2, 3).

 $\Omega(19) = \{(16,2,1), (12,4,2,1), (12,6,1), (18,1)\}$



The couples of exponents (a, b) form a chain in \mathbb{N}^2 . They can be encoded with words in $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}^*$. (Conventions: words end with '3', we go North before going East) If min(p, q) = 2, the *binary amount* of a partition is equal to the sum of all its binary parts (• parts) or 0 if none.

Complete generation, maps

We define embeddings from subsets $\Omega \subset \Omega(U)$ to \mathcal{P} , the set of all unrestricted partitions (sequences of positive integers whose sum is finite)

Let
$$\omega = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k) \in \Omega$$
 .

• Mult. by
$$p: \omega \longmapsto (pa_1, pa_2, \dots, pa_k) \in {}^p\Omega$$

• Mult. by
$$q: \omega \longmapsto (qa_1, qa_2, \dots, qa_k) \in {}^q\Omega$$

• Add. 1:
$$\omega \longmapsto \begin{cases} (a_1, \dots, a_k, 1) & \text{if } \min(p, q) > 2 \\ \text{binary amount} + 1 & \text{if } \min(p, q) = 2 \end{cases}$$

In both cases, the resulting set of partitions is denoted ${}^{1}\Omega$.

Remark: the number of parts never increases by more than 1 and may be reduced due to carry propagation.

Complete generation, maps' properties

- ${}^{p}\Omega(U)\subset \Omega(pU)$
- ${}^q\Omega(U)\subset \Omega(qU)$
- ¹Ω(U) ⊄ Ω(U + 1) in general
 If min(p, q) > 2, the part 1 may appear twice in ¹Ω
 The strictly chained (2,3)-ary partition (6,2,1) is turned into (6,4) ∉ Ω(10)
- If min(p, q) = 2, the set Ω(U) contains at least the binary partition of U.
- By convention $\Omega(0) = \{()\}$

Some formulæ

Lemma: (+ denotes union of disjoint sets) $\Omega(U) = \Omega^*(U) + {}^{1}\Omega^*(U-1), \qquad \Omega^*(U) = {}^{p}\Omega(U/p) \cup {}^{q}\Omega(U/q)$ Corollary:

$$\begin{split} \Omega(pqU) &= {}^{p}\Omega(qU) + {}^{q}(\Omega(pU) \setminus {}^{p}\Omega(U)), \\ \Omega(pqU+1) &= {}^{1p}\Omega(qU) + {}^{1q}(\Omega(pU) \setminus {}^{p}\Omega(U)) \end{split}$$

and for 1 < r < pq

$$\Omega(pqU+r) = \Omega^*(pqU+r) + {}^1\Omega^*(pqU+r-1)$$
(2)

Both sets Ω^* in the rhs of (2) are non empty if and only if: r = kp and $r - 1 = \ell q$, or $r = \ell q$ and r - 1 = kp.

Let $k_0 = p^{-1} \mod q$ and $\ell_0 = q^{-1} \mod p$. Then, $(k_0, p - \ell_0)$ is the unique positive solution to the equation $kp - \ell q = 1$. Therefore:

if
$$r = k_0 p$$
, $\Omega(pqU+r) = {}^p\Omega(qU+k_0) + {}^{1q}\Omega(pU+p-\ell_0)$

Simpler relations

The complete formula:

$$\Omega(pqU+r) = \begin{cases} {}^{p}\Omega(qU+k_{0}) + {}^{1q}\Omega(pU+p-\ell_{0}) & \text{if } r = k_{0}p \\ {}^{q}\Omega(pU+\ell_{0}) + {}^{1p}\Omega(qU+q-k_{0}) & \text{if } r = \ell_{0}q \\ {}^{p}\Omega(qU+k) & \text{if } r = kp, \ k \neq k_{0} \\ {}^{1p}\Omega(qU+k) & \text{if } r = kp+1, \ k \neq q-k_{0} \\ {}^{q}\Omega(pU+\ell) & \text{if } r = \ell q, \ \ell \neq \ell_{0} \\ {}^{1q}\Omega(pU+\ell) & \text{if } r = \ell q+1, \ \ell \neq p-\ell_{0} \\ \emptyset & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The case (p, q) = (2, 3) allows for some simplifications: $\Omega(3U) = {}^{3}\Omega(U) + {}^{1}\Omega(3U - 1)$ $\Omega(6U - 1) = {}^{12}\Omega(3U - 1)$ $\Omega(6U + 1) = {}^{13}\Omega(2U) + {}^{11}\Omega(6U - 1)$ $\Omega(6U + 2) = {}^{2}\Omega(3U + 1)$ $\Omega(6U + 4) = {}^{13}\Omega(2U + 1) + {}^{2}\Omega(3U + 2)$

Examples

 $\Omega(217) = \{3000133, 30001003, 322033, 3220003, 3200013, 10011013, 1001333, 10013003\}$

$$\begin{split} \Omega(95) &= \{1111103\} \\ \Omega(6143) &= \{111111111103\} \end{split}$$

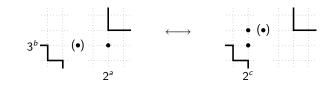
$$\begin{split} \Omega(575) &= \{111110003, \ 11111033\} \\ \Omega(959) &= \{1111110113, \ 111110303\} \end{split}$$

Transitions

• 1+2=3

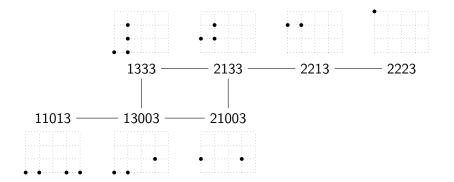


• $2(2^m - 1 + 2^{m+1}) = 3(2^{m+1} - 1) + 1$ (generalizes 4 = 3 + 1)



Random walk

The transition graph is symmetric and connected. E.g: G(27) for (p, q) = (2, 3)



Computing W(U)

Let $W_p(U) \in \{0, 1\}$ be the number of partitions of U with distinct parts taken in $\{p^n, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. In other words, can U be written in base p with digits $\{0, 1\}$ only?

$$W(U) = W_{p}(U) + W\left(\frac{U}{q}\right) + \sum_{c=0}^{\lfloor \log_{p}\left(\frac{U}{q+1}\right) \rfloor} \delta_{p,q}(c, U) W\left(\left\lfloor \frac{U}{p^{c}q} \right\rfloor\right),$$
$$\delta_{p,q}(c, U) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \lfloor U/p^{c} \rfloor \equiv 1 \pmod{q} \text{ and } W_{p}(U \mod p^{c}) = 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

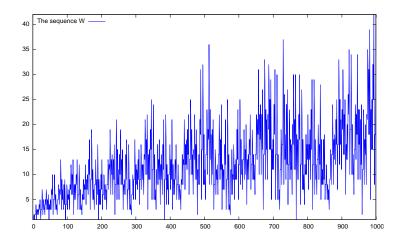
Sketch of proof: Order the partitions in $\Omega(U)$ w.r.t *p*-ary amount

$$W(U) = W(U/q) + \sum_{n=1}^{U} W_p(n) W\left(\frac{U-n}{p^{c_n}q}\right).$$

and remark that many summands vanish.

The sequence W

For any pair (p, q), the sequence W behaves rather irregularly.

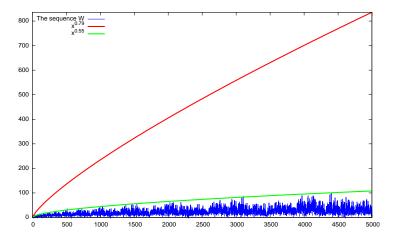


Properties of W

- W takes infinitely often the value 0
- If min(p, q) = 2, then W takes infinitely often the value 1
- If (p,q) = (2,3), we have W(U) = 1 iff either $U \in \{0,1\}$ of $U = 2^a 3 1$ for some $a \in \mathbb{N}$. Also, W(U) = 2 iff either $U \in \{3,5,6,7\}$ or $U = 2^a 9 1$ or $U = 2^a 15 1$ for some $a \in \mathbb{N}$. Conjecture: all values in \mathbb{N} are taken
- Theorem: The sequence W is either {0,1}-valued or unbounded.
 Note: We are not aware of any pair (p, q) for which W is {0,1}-valued.

Asymptotical behaviour of $\max W$

Max value: Let $\beta \in (0,1)$ be the unique solution of $1/p^{\beta} + 1/q^{\beta} = 1$. Then $W(U) \leq U^{\beta}$ for $U \geq 1$. For (p,q) = (2,3), we can (only) prove $W(U) \leq U^{0.79}$, whereas our numerical experiment suggest $U^{0.55}$.



Average value of W

Let
$$S(x) = \sum_{1 \le U \le \lfloor x \rfloor} W(U).$$

 $S(x) = \sum_{U=1}^{\lfloor x \rfloor} (W^*(U) + W^*(U-1))$
 $= W^*(0) - W^*(\lfloor x \rfloor) + 2 \sum_{U=1}^{\lfloor x \rfloor} (W(U/p) + W(U/q) - W(U/pq))$

Then, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$ we have

$$S(x) = 2(S(x/p) + S(x/q) - S(x/pq)) + 1 - W^*(\lfloor x \rfloor)$$

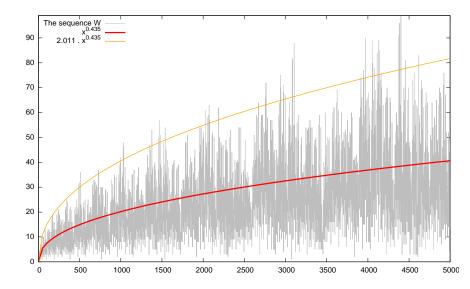
Therefore, if $S(x) \approx x^{\alpha}$, then α satisfies

$$1/p^{lpha} + 1/q^{lpha} - 1/(pq)^{lpha} = 1/2$$

which also reads

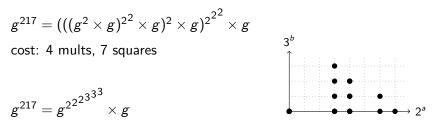
$$(1-p^{-\alpha})^{-1}(1-q^{-\alpha})^{-1}=2$$

Average value of W



Applications

Fast exponentiation: given $g \in G$ and $e \ge 0$ compute g^e



cost: 1 mult, 3 squares, 3 cubes

Requires: fast cubing (e.g. elliptic curves, quadratic fields), and a fast conversion algorithms into strictly chained (2, 3)-ary partitions.

Conversion algorithms

- Right-to-left: divide by 3 and by 2 as much as possible; add or subtract 1 to make the resulting value divisible by 3
- Left-to-right: find the closest number of the form 2^a3^b from e; subtract and continue until reaching 0
- None of these algorithm give a chain of minimal length.
- Can we find a shortest partition, or at least, compute its length?

Shortest partitions

Let |w| the number of parts of a partition $w \in \Omega(U)$. We define $\sigma(U) = \min_{w \in \Omega(U)} |w|$, the length of a shortest partition in $\Omega(U)$.

$$egin{aligned} \Omega(pqU) &= {}^p\Omega(qU) + {}^q(\Omega(pU) \setminus {}^p\Omega(U)), \ \Omega(pqU+1) &= {}^{1p}\Omega(qU) + {}^{1q}(\Omega(pU) \setminus {}^p\Omega(U)) \end{aligned}$$

The mappings ${}^{p}\Omega$ and ${}^{q}\Omega$ do not change the number of parts.

$$\sigma(pqU) = \min(\sigma(qU), \sigma(pU))$$

 $\sigma(pqU+1) = 1 + \sigma(pqU)$

Similarly, the relations in (2) can be adapted for numbers of the form pqU + r for 1 < r < pq.

Computing shortest partitions

For (p,q) = (2,3) the following Maple code can be used to compute the first 500000 values of σ in approximately 1 second.

```
s := proc(U)
option remember;
local r;
if U <= 2 then 1 else
r := irem(U,6);
if r=0 then \min(s(U/3), s(U/2))
elif r=1 then 1 + s(U-1)
elif r=2 then s(U/2)
elif r=3 then \min(s(U/3), 1+s((U-1)/2))
elif r=4 then \min(s(U/2), 1+s((U-1)/3))
elif r=5 then 1 + s((U-1)/2)
fi: fi: end:
```

Remark: numercal experiments suggest $\sigma(U) \approx (\log_2 U)/4$ on average

Open questions

• When computing g^{-1} in G is easy, one may want to consider signed chained partitions, where the largest part in w is less than f(U) for some function f (e.g f(U) = U + 1), while allowing the other parts to be either added or subtracted.

Example: $314159 = \dots$ Right-to-left: [1,9,6][-1,8,5][1,7,3][-1,5,2][-1,4,1][-1,0,0]Left-to-right: [1,4,9][-1,0,6][-1,0,3][-1,0,2][-1,0,1][-1,0,0]

- Generating, random walk, etc?
- How many are there?
- Shortest signed partition?
- Optimal choice of f?
- Many other questions related to numbers composed of small primes (density of various sequences)

Thanks!

http://www.lirmm.fr/~imbert