DYSON'S CRANK OF A PARTITION

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1. Introduction. In [3], F. J. Dyson defined the rank of a partition as the largest part minus the number of parts. He let N(m, t, n) denote the number of partitions of n of rank congruent to m modulo t, and he conjectured

(1.1)
$$N(m, 5, 5n+4) = \frac{1}{5}p(5n+4), \quad 0 \le m \le 4;$$

(1.2)
$$N(m,7,7n+5) = \frac{1}{7}p(7n+5), \quad 0 \le m \le 6,$$

where p(n) is the total number of partitions of n [1, Chapter 1]. These conjectures were subsequently proved by Atkin and Swinnerton-Dyer [2].

Dyson [3] went on to observe that the rank did not separate the partition of 11n + 6 into 11 equal classes even though Ramanujan's congruence

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

holds. He was thus led to conjecture the existence of some other partition statistic (which he called the crank); this unknown statistic should provide a combinatorial interpretation of $\frac{1}{11}p(11n+6)$ in the same way that (1.1) and (1.2) treat the primes 5 and 7.

In [4, 5], one of us was able to find a crank relative to vector partitions as follows:

For a partition π , let $\#(\pi)$ be the number of parts of π and $\sigma(\pi)$ be the sum of the parts of π (or the number π is partitioning) with the convention $\#(\phi) = \sigma(\phi) = 0$ for the empty partition ϕ , of 0. Let

 $V = \{(\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3) | \pi_1 \text{ is a partition into distinct parts}, \}$

 π_2, π_3 are unrestricted partitions $\}$.

We shall call the elements of V vector partitions. For $\vec{\pi} = (\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3)$ in V we define the sum of parts, s, a weight, ω , and a crank, r, by

(1.4)
$$s(\vec{\pi}) = \sigma(\pi_1) + \sigma(\pi_2) + \sigma(\pi_3),$$

(1.5)
$$\omega(\vec{\pi}) = (-1)^{\#(\pi_1)},$$

(1.6)
$$r(\vec{\pi}) = \#(\pi_2) - \#(\pi_3).$$

We say $\vec{\pi}$ is a vector partition of *n* if $s(\vec{\pi}) = n$. For example, if

 $\vec{\pi} = (5+3+2, 2+2+1, 2+1+1)$

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then $s(\vec{\pi}) = 19$, $\omega(\vec{\pi}) = -1$, $r(\vec{\pi}) = 0$ and $\vec{\pi}$ is a vector partition of 19. The number of vector partitions of n (counted according to the weight ω) with crank m is denoted by $N_V(m, n)$, so that

(1.7)
$$N_V(m,n) = \sum_{\substack{\vec{\pi} \in V \\ s(\vec{\pi}) = n \\ r(\vec{\pi}) = m}} \omega(\vec{\pi}).$$

The number of vector partitions of n (counted according to the weight ω) with crank congruent to k modulo t is denoted by $N_V(k, t, n)$, so that

(1.8)
$$N_V(k,t,n) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} N_V(mt+k,n) = \sum_{\substack{\vec{\pi} \in V \\ s(\vec{\pi})=n \\ r(\vec{\pi}) \equiv k \pmod{t}}} \omega(\vec{\pi}).$$

By considering the transformation that interchanges π_2 and π_3 we have

$$(1.9) N_V(m,n) = N_V(-m,n)$$

so that

(1.10)
$$N_V(t-m,t,n) = N_V(m,t,n).$$

We have the following generating function for $N_V(m, n)$:

(1.11)
$$\sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}N_V(m,n)z^mq^n = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{(1-q^n)}{(1-zq^n)(1-z^{-1}q^n)}.$$

By putting z = 1 in (1.11) we find

(1.12)
$$\sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} N_V(m,n) = p(n).$$

VECTOR-CRANK THEOREM (GARVAN [4, 5]).

 $N_V(0,5,5n+4) = N_V(1,5,5n+4) = \dots = N_V(4,5,5n+4) = \frac{p(5n+4)}{5},$ (1.14)

$$N_V(0,7,7n+5) = N_V(1,7,7n+5) = \dots = N_V(6,7,7n+5) = \frac{p(7n+5)}{7},$$

(1.15) $N_V(0,11,11n+6) = \dots = N_V(10,11,11n+6) = \frac{p(11n+6)}{11}.$

The above still leaves open the question of whether there is a crank for ordinary partitions. The answer is "yes" when the crank is defined as follows:

DEFINITION. For a partition π , let $l(\pi)$ denote the largest part of π , $\omega(\pi)$ denote the number of ones in π , and $\mu(\pi)$ denote the number of parts of π larger than $\omega(\pi)$. The crank $c(\pi)$ is given by

$$c(\pi) = \begin{cases} l(\pi) & \text{if } \omega(\pi) = 0, \\ \mu(\pi) - \omega(\pi) & \text{if } \omega(\pi) > 0. \end{cases}$$

Our main result is the following.

THEOREM 1. The number of partitions π of n with $c(\pi) = m$ is $N_V(m, n)$ for all n > 1.

Obviously, in light of the Vector-Crank Theorem, we see that Theorem 1 supplies the crank asked for by Dyson.

2. PROOF OF THEOREM 1. We shall require the standard notation of q-series:

(2.1)
$$(A;q)_n = (A)_n = \prod_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1-Aq^j)}{(1-Aq^{j+n})}$$

 $(= (1 - A)(1 - Aq) \cdots (1 - Aq^{n-1})$ when n is a positive integer), and

(2.2)
$$(A;q)_{\infty} = (A)_{\infty} = \prod_{j=0}^{\infty} (1 - Aq^j)$$

We now transform (1.11): ---

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(2.3)

$$\sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} N_V(m,n) z^m q^n = \frac{(1-q)}{(zq)_{\infty}} \cdot \frac{(q^2;q)_{\infty}}{(q/z)_{\infty}}$$

$$= \frac{(1-q)}{(zq)_{\infty}} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(zq)_j (q/z)^j}{(q)_j} \quad (by \ [1, p. 17])$$

$$= \frac{(1-q)}{(zq)_{\infty}} + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{q^j z^{-j}}{(q^2;q)_{j-1} (zq^{j+1})_{\infty}}.$$

As was noted in (1.12), when we set z = 1 the series on the left of (2.3) reduces to the generating function for p(n). For j > 0, the *j*th term in the sum on the right is

$$\frac{z^{-j}q^{\overset{j \text{ times}}{1+1+\dots+1}}}{(1-q^2)(1-q^3)\cdots(1-q^j)(1-zq^{j+1})(1-zq^{j+2})\cdots}$$

The standard techniques of partition theory [1, Chapter 1] show that this expression generates partitions with $\omega(\pi) = j$ and the exponent on z is clearly $\mu(\pi) - \omega(\pi)$, i.e. $c(\pi)$, since j > 0.

Thus we must interpret

$$\frac{(1-q)}{(1-zq)(1-zq^2)(1-zq^3)\cdots}$$

as the generating function for partitions without ones. By considering conjugate partitions, we note that

$$\frac{1}{(1-zq)(1-zq^2)(1-zq^3)\cdots}$$

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generates all partitions with the exponent on z counting the largest part, and for integers larger than 1

$$\frac{q}{(1-zq)(1-zq^2)(1-zq^3)\cdots}$$

generates partitions with at least one 1 appearing again with the exponent on z counting the largest part. Note that this interpretation fails for 1 because this is the unique instance in which introducing a 1 into the partitions of n-1 alters the largest part. Hence

$$\frac{1-q}{(zq)_{\infty}}$$

counts (for n > 1) the number of partitions with no ones and with the exponent on z being the largest part of the partition $l(\pi) = c(\pi)$. Thus in the double series expansion of

$$\frac{(1-q)}{(zq)_{\infty}} + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{q^j z^{-j}}{(q^2;q)_{j-1}(zq^{j+1})_{\infty}}$$

we see that the coefficient of $z^m q^n$ (n > 1) is the number of ordinary partitions of n in which $c(\pi) = m$. Therefore by (2.3), we have Theorem 1. \Box

3. Conclusion. We can't resist exhibiting $c(\pi)$ for the first instance of (1.3).

partitions of 6	$l(\pi)$	$\omega(\pi)$	$\mu(\pi)$	$c(\pi)$
6	6	0	1	6
5 + 1	5	1	1	0
4 + 2	4	0	2	4
4 + 1 + 1	4	2	1	- 1
3 + 3	3	0	2	3
3 + 2 + 1	3	1	2	1
3 + 1 + 1 + 1	3	3	0	- 3
2 + 2 + 2	2	0	3	2
2 + 2 + 1 + 1	2	2	0	- 2
2 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1	2	4	0	- 4
1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1	1	6	0	- 6

As Theorem 1 together with (1.15) predicts, $c(\pi)$ provides eleven different residue classes modulo 11.

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