Sets of parts such that the partition function is even

by

F. BEN SAÏD (Monastir) and J.-L. NICOLAS (Lyon)

1. Introduction. \mathbb{N}_0 and \mathbb{N} denote the set of non-negative integers, resp. positive integers. \mathcal{A} will denote a set of positive integers, and its counting function will be denoted by A(x):

$$A(x) = |\{a : a \le x, a \in \mathcal{A}\}|.$$

If $\mathcal{A} = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots\} \subset \mathbb{N}$ (where $a_1 < a_2 < \ldots$), then $p(\mathcal{A}, n)$ denotes the number of partitions of n with parts in \mathcal{A} , that is, the number of solutions of the equation

$$(1.1) a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \ldots = n$$

in non-negative integers x_1, x_2, \ldots As usual, we shall set

(1.2)
$$p(\mathcal{A}, 0) = 1$$
 and $p(\mathcal{A}, n) = 0$ for $n < 0$.

We shall use the generating function

(1.3)
$$F(z) = F_{\mathcal{A}}(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(\mathcal{A}, n) z^n = \prod_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \frac{1}{1 - z^a}.$$

When $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{N}$ it seems highly probable that the number of integers $n \leq x$ such that $p(\mathbb{N}, n)$ is even is close to x/2 as $x \to \infty$; but the known results are rather poor (see [7], [9], [10] and the references in them). That is the reason for which, in [7], it was observed that there exist sets \mathcal{A} such that $p(\mathcal{A}, n)$ is even for n large enough. In this paper, we want to investigate the properties of such sets.

For i = 0 or 1, if $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{N}$ and there is a number N such that

(1.4)
$$p(\mathcal{A}, n) \equiv i \pmod{2} \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}, \ n > N,$$

then \mathcal{A} is said to have property $P_i(N)$.

If i = 0 or 1, $\mathcal{B} = \{b_1, \ldots, b_k\} \neq \emptyset$ (where $b_1 < \ldots < b_k$) is a finite set of positive integers, $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and $N \ge b_k$, then there is (cf. [7]) a unique set

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 $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$(1.5) \qquad \qquad \mathcal{A} \cap \{1, \dots, N\} = \mathcal{B}$$

and having property $P_i(N)$; we will denote it by $\mathcal{A}_i(\mathcal{B}, N)$.

Let us recall the construction of $\mathcal{A}_i(\mathcal{B}, N)$ as described in [7], when, for instance, i = 0. The set $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_0(\mathcal{B}, N)$ will be defined by recursion. We write $\mathcal{A}_n = \mathcal{A} \cap \{1, \ldots, n\}$ so that

$$\mathcal{A}_N = \mathcal{A} \cap \{1, \dots, N\} = \mathcal{B}.$$

Assume that $n \ge N+1$ and \mathcal{A}_{n-1} has been defined so that $p(\mathcal{A}, m)$ is even for $N+1 \le m \le n-1$. Then set

$$n \in \mathcal{A}$$
 if and only if $p(\mathcal{A}_{n-1}, n)$ is odd.

It follows from the construction that for $n \ge N + 1$, we have

$$p(\mathcal{A}, n) = \begin{cases} 1 + p(\mathcal{A}_{n-1}, n) & \text{if } n \in \mathcal{A}, \\ p(\mathcal{A}_{n-1}, n) & \text{if } n \notin \mathcal{A}, \end{cases}$$

which shows that $p(\mathcal{A}, n)$ is even for $n \geq N + 1$. Note that in the same way, any finite set $\mathcal{B} = \{b_1, \ldots, b_k\}$ can be extended to a set \mathcal{A} so that $\mathcal{A}_{b_k} = \mathcal{B}$ and the parity of $p(\mathcal{A}, n)$ is given for $n \geq N + 1$ (where N is any integer such that $N \geq b_k$).

It will be shown in Proposition 4 that, except in the case $i = 1, \mathcal{B} = \{1\}$, the set $\mathcal{A}_i(\mathcal{B}, N)$ is always infinite.

By the unicity of the above construction, if the set \mathcal{A} has property $P_i(M)$, then, clearly, for any $N \geq M$ and $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{A} \cap \{1, \ldots, N\}$ we have

(1.6)
$$\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_i(\mathcal{B}, N).$$

If $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{N}$, let $\chi(\mathcal{A}, n)$ denote the characteristic function of \mathcal{A} , i.e.,

(1.7)
$$\chi(\mathcal{A}, n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \in \mathcal{A}, \\ 0 & \text{if } n \notin \mathcal{A}, \end{cases}$$

and for $n \ge 1$,

(1.8)
$$\sigma(\mathcal{A}, n) = \sum_{d|n} \chi(\mathcal{A}, d) d = \sum_{d|n, d \in \mathcal{A}} d.$$

It is relevant to consider $\sigma(\mathcal{A}, n)$, since, as shown in [7], taking the logarithmic derivative of $F(z) = F_{\mathcal{A}}(z)$ defined by (1.3) yields

(1.9)
$$z \frac{F'(z)}{F(z)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma(\mathcal{A}, n) z^n.$$

The main purpose of this paper is to show that for any positive integer k and any set $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_i(\mathcal{B}, N)$, the sequence

(1.10)
$$(\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) \mod 2^{k+1})_{n \ge 1}$$
 is periodic.

(We denote by $a \mod b$ the remainder in the Euclidean division of a by b.)

Note that (1.10) has already been proved for k = 0 in [7], and for k = 1 in [2]. The result (1.10) will be proved (Theorem 1) in Section 3, and, in the same section, Theorem 2 will specify the smallest period q_k of $\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) \mod 2^{k+1}$; in particular, q_k is always odd. Property (1.10) seems a little surprising; the number 2 appears in it since the question we study is a parity problem.

By the Möbius inversion formula, (1.8) gives

(1.11)
$$n\chi(\mathcal{A},n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d)\sigma(\mathcal{A},n/d)$$

where μ is the Möbius function. If n is odd, by (1.10) with k = 0, we know the value of $\sigma(\mathcal{A}, n) \mod 2$, and this allows us to determine $\chi(\mathcal{A}, n)$ from (1.11) for any set $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_i(\mathcal{B}, N)$. This has been done in [8] for $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_0(\{1, 2, 3\}, 3)$ and in [6] for $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_0(\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, 5)$. In [2], the validity of (1.10) for k = 1 has been used to determine the elements of $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_0(\{1, 2, 3\}, 3)$ which are congruent to 2 modulo 4.

Similarly, it is possible to deduce from (1.10) the value of $\chi(\mathcal{A}, n)$ where n is any positive integer. For that, it is convenient for m odd to introduce the sum

(1.12)
$$S(m,k) = \chi(\mathcal{A},m) + 2\chi(\mathcal{A},2m) + \ldots + 2^k \chi(\mathcal{A},2^km).$$

If $n = 2^k m$ with $k \ge 0$ and m odd, (1.8) implies

(1.13)
$$\sigma(\mathcal{A}, n) = \sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k m) = \sum_{d|m} dS(d, k),$$

which, by the Möbius inversion formula, gives

(1.14)
$$mS(m,k) = \sum_{d|m} \mu(d)\sigma(\mathcal{A}, n/d) = \sum_{d|\overline{m}} \mu(d)\sigma(\mathcal{A}, n/d),$$

where $\overline{m} = \prod_{p|m} p$ denotes the radical of m. In the above sums, n/d is always a multiple of 2^k , so that, from (1.10), the value of $\sigma(\mathcal{A}, n/d)$ and thus the value of S(m, k) are known modulo 2^{k+1} . Therefore, from (1.12), we can deduce the value of $\chi(\mathcal{A}, 2^i m)$ for $i \leq k$. But, for technical reasons, the calculation can be difficult. We hope to return to this subject in another article.

Finally, in Section 4, we prove in Theorem 3 that, for any \mathcal{B} and N, there is a set \mathcal{B}' such that $\mathcal{A}_1(\mathcal{B}, N)$ and $\mathcal{A}_0(\mathcal{B}', N+1)$ have the same elements with the exception of powers of 2.

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2. The Graeffe transformation. Consider the ring of formal power series $\mathbb{C}[[z]]$. For an element

$$f(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \ldots + a_n z^n + \ldots$$

of this ring, the product

$$f(z)f(-z) = b_0 + b_1 z^2 + b_2 z^4 + \ldots + b_n z^{2n} + \ldots$$

is an even power series with

(2.1)
$$b_0 = a_0^2,$$

 $b_1 = 2a_0a_2 - a_1^2, \dots, b_n = 2\Big(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^i a_i a_{2n-i}\Big) + (-1)^n a_n^2.$

We shall write $g = \mathcal{G}(f)$ for the series

(2.2)
$$g(z) = \mathcal{G}(f)(z) = b_0 + b_1 z + b_2 z^2 + \ldots + b_n z^n + \ldots$$

Note that

(2.3)
$$g(z^2) = \mathcal{G}(f)(z^2) = f(z)f(-z)$$

EXAMPLE. If q is an odd integer and $f(z) = 1 - z^q$, we have $f(z)f(-z) = (1 - z^q)(1 + z^q) = 1 - z^{2q}$, and

$$(2.4) \qquad \qquad \mathcal{G}(f) = f.$$

If f is a polynomial of degree n which does not vanish in 0, and if $\tilde{f}(z) = z^n f(1/z)$ is the reciprocal polynomial of f, then

(2.5)
$$\mathcal{G}(\widetilde{f}) = (-1)^n \widetilde{\mathcal{G}(f)}.$$

It is obvious that, for any two series f and g, we have the formulas

(2.6)
$$\mathcal{G}(fg) = \mathcal{G}(f)\mathcal{G}(g)$$

and, if g(0) = 1,

(2.7)
$$\mathcal{G}(f/g) = \mathcal{G}(f)/\mathcal{G}(g).$$

We shall often use the following notation for the iterates of f under the transformation \mathcal{G} :

(2.8)
$$f_0 = f, \quad f_1 = \mathcal{G}(f), \\ f_2 = \mathcal{G}(f_1), \ \dots, \ f_k = \mathcal{G}(f_{k-1}) = \mathcal{G}^{(k)}(f), \ \dots$$

PROPOSITION 1. Let f be a polynomial of degree n with roots z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n and leading coefficient a_n . Then the polynomial $g = \mathcal{G}(f)$, where \mathcal{G} is defined by (2.2), has leading coefficient $(-1)^n a_n^2$ and roots z_1^2, \ldots, z_n^2 .

Proof. From the relations

$$f(z) = a_n(z - z_1)(z - z_2) \dots (z - z_n)$$

and

$$f(-z) = a_n(-z - z_1)(-z - z_2)\dots(-z - z_n)$$

it follows that

$$f(z)f(-z) = (-1)^n a_n^2 (z^2 - z_1^2) (z^2 - z_2^2) \dots (z^2 - z_n^2)$$

and therefore, from (2.3),

(2.9)
$$g(z) = \mathcal{G}(f)(z) = (-1)^n a_n^2 (z - z_1^2) (z - z_2^2) \dots (z - z_n^2).$$

In numerical analysis (cf. [4], [1] or [11]), the Graeffe method is used to compute an approximate value of the roots of a polynomial equation f(x) = 0. The first step of the method is to calculate f_k defined by (2.8) for k large enough. From Proposition 1, the roots of f_k are $z_1^{2^k}, \ldots, z_n^{2^k}$, and, if we assume that $|z_1| > \ldots > |z_n|$, the sum of the roots of f_k is close to $z_1^{2^k}$ which yields an approximate value for $|z_1|$. This old method is being revisited in computer algebra (cf. [3]).

PROPOSITION 2. Let $f(z) \in \mathbb{C}[[z]], f(0) \neq 0$, and

(2.10)
$$z \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n z^n.$$

Then, for $k \geq 1$, we have

(2.11)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{2^k n} z^n = z \, \frac{f'_k(z)}{f_k(z)} = \frac{z}{f_k(z)} \frac{d}{dz} \, f_k(z),$$

where $f_k = \mathcal{G}^{(k)}(f)$ is defined by (2.2) and (2.8).

REMARK. Here and in what follows, f'_k will denote the derivative of f_k (and not the k-iterate of f').

Proof of Proposition 2. We reason by induction on k. For k = 1 and $z = y^2$, from (2.10) and (2.3) we have

$$(2.12) \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{2n} z^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{2n} y^{2n} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n y^n + a_n (-y)^n) = \frac{1}{2} \left(y \frac{f'(y)}{f(y)} - y \frac{f'(-y)}{f(-y)} \right) = \frac{y}{2} \frac{f'(y)f(-y) - f(y)f'(-y)}{f(y)f(-y)} = \frac{y}{2f_1(y^2)} \frac{d}{dy} f_1(y^2) = z \frac{f'_1(z)}{f_1(z)}.$$

Further, the induction on k is easy, by substituting $a_{2^k n}$ for a_{2n} and f_{k-1} for f in (2.12).

DEFINITION. We shall say that two power series f, g with integral coefficients are *congruent modulo* M (where M is any positive integer) if their coefficients of the same degree are congruent modulo M. In other words, if

$$f(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \ldots + a_n z^n + \ldots \in \mathbb{Z}[[z]]$$

and

$$g(z) = b_0 + b_1 z + b_2 z^2 + \ldots + b_n z^n + \ldots \in \mathbb{Z}[[z]]$$

then

(2.13)
$$f \equiv g \pmod{M} \iff \forall n \ge 0, \ a_n \equiv b_n \pmod{M}.$$

Congruences of formal power series may be added or multiplied. If

$$(2.14) f \equiv g \pmod{M}$$

and

$$u \equiv v \pmod{M}, \quad u \in \mathbb{Z}[[z]], \ v \in \mathbb{Z}[[z]]$$

then

(2.15)
$$f + u \equiv g + v \pmod{M}$$
 and $fu \equiv gv \pmod{M}$.

One may differentiate (2.14) to get

(2.16)
$$f' \equiv g' \pmod{M}.$$

Moreover, if f(0) = g(0) = 1, 1/f and 1/g have integer coefficients and (2.14) holds, then

(2.17)
$$\frac{1}{f} \equiv \frac{1}{g} \pmod{M}.$$

It is also easy to see that, for $f \in \mathbb{Z}[[z]]$ and \mathcal{G} defined by (2.2), we have (2.18) $\mathcal{G}(f) \equiv f \pmod{2}.$

PROPOSITION 3. Let f and g be two formal power series with integral coefficients such that $f \equiv g \pmod{2}$. Then, for $k \geq 0$, we have

(2.19)
$$f_k \equiv g_k \pmod{2^{k+1}},$$

where $f_k = \mathcal{G}^{(k)}(f)$ and $g_k = \mathcal{G}^{(k)}(g)$ are defined by (2.2) and (2.8).

Proof. Let us start by proving that if $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}[[z]]$ satisfy

$$(2.20) u \equiv v \pmod{2M}$$

where M is any positive integer, then $u_1 = \mathcal{G}(u)$ and $v_1 = \mathcal{G}(v)$ satisfy

$$(2.21) u_1 \equiv v_1 \pmod{4M}.$$

It follows from (2.20) that there exists $w \in \mathbb{Z}[[z]]$ such that

$$u(z) = v(z) + 2Mw(z)$$

Further, from (2.3),

$$u_1(z^2) = u(z)u(-z) = (v(z) + 2Mw(z))(v(-z) + 2Mw(-z))$$

= $v_1(z^2) + 2M[v(z)w(-z) + w(z)v(-z)] + 4M^2w_1(z^2),$

where $w_1 = \mathcal{G}(w)$. But the expression in brackets is obviously congruent to 0 modulo 2 so that

$$u_1(z^2) \equiv v_1(z^2) \pmod{4M},$$

which, by substituting z for z^2 , yields (2.21).

We prove Proposition 3 by induction on k. For k = 0, from (2.8), (2.19) is just our hypothesis $f \equiv g \pmod{2}$. Assume that (2.19) holds for a non-negative value of k; then applying (2.21) with $u = f_k$, $v = g_k$ and $M = 2^k$ gives

$$f_{k+1} \equiv g_{k+1} \pmod{2^{k+2}}$$

and the proof of Proposition 3 is complete. \blacksquare

3. Periodicity of $\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) \mod 2^{k+1}$. Let \mathcal{B} be a finite set, and $N \ge \max \mathcal{B}$ be an integer. For i = 0 or i = 1 we consider the set $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_i(\mathcal{B}, N)$ introduced in Section 1.

• If i = 0, define the polynomial P (already considered in [8]) by

(3.1)
$$P(z) = \sum_{0 \le n \le J} \varepsilon_n z^n$$

where J is the largest integer such that $p(\mathcal{A}, J)$ is odd (such a J does exist, since $p(\mathcal{A}, 0) = 1$), and ε_n is defined by

(3.2)
$$p(\mathcal{A}, n) \equiv \varepsilon_n \pmod{2}, \quad \varepsilon_n \in \{0, 1\}$$

It follows from (1.3) and (1.4) that

$$(3.3) F \equiv P \pmod{2}.$$

• If i = 1, we define J as the smallest integer $\leq N + 1$ such that $p(\mathcal{A}, n)$ is odd for all $n \geq J$ and $p(\mathcal{A}, J - 1)$ is even. As observed in [8], such a $J \geq 2$ always exists, except in the case $\mathcal{B} = \{1\}$ which leads to

(3.4)
$$\mathcal{A}_1(\{1\}, N) = \{1\} \text{ for all } N \ge 1.$$

The polynomial P is now defined by (3.1), with

(3.5)
$$\varepsilon_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p(\mathcal{A}, n) - p(\mathcal{A}, n-1) \text{ is even} \\ 1 & \text{if } p(\mathcal{A}, n) - p(\mathcal{A}, n-1) \text{ is odd} \end{cases} \quad (\text{for } n = 0, 1, \dots, J)$$

with the convention (1.2). Note that the degree of P is $J \leq N+1$. We have, from (1.3) and (1.4),

(3.6)
$$F(z) \equiv \sum_{n=0}^{J-2} p(\mathcal{A}, n) z^n + \frac{z^J}{1-z} \equiv \frac{P(z)}{1-z} \pmod{2}.$$

PROPOSITION 4. Except the case (3.4), the set $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_i(\mathcal{B}, N)$ defined by (1.5) and (1.4) is infinite.

Proof. If $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_i(\mathcal{B}, N)$ were finite, the product $\prod_{a \in \mathcal{A}} (1 - z^a)$ would be a polynomial, say Q(z), of degree $s = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} a \ge \sum_{a \in \mathcal{B}} a$ and leading coefficient ± 1 and, from (1.3), we should have

$$FQ = 1.$$

• If i = 0, it would follow from (3.7), (3.3) and (2.15) that $1 \equiv QP \pmod{2}$,

which is impossible, since the leading term of QP has a positive degree, and its coefficient is ± 1 .

• If i = 1, (3.7), (3.6) and (2.15) would yield

$$1 - z \equiv Q(z)P(z) \pmod{2},$$

which is also impossible if $s \ge 2$, i.e. $\mathcal{B} \ne \{1\}$.

THEOREM 1. For any set $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_i(\mathcal{B}, N)$ (defined by (1.5) and (1.4)) and for any non-negative integer k, the sequence $(\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n))_{n\geq 1}$ (where σ is defined by (1.8)) satisfies a linear recurrence congruence modulo 2^{k+1} , and therefore is periodic modulo 2^{k+1} . Moreover, if q_k denotes the smallest period, that is, the smallest positive integer q_k such that

(3.8)
$$\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k(n+q_k)) \equiv \sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) \pmod{2^{k+1}}$$

for all $n \ge 1$, then, for all $k \ge 0$,

Proof. We start from the relation (1.9):

(3.10)
$$z\frac{F'(z)}{F(z)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma(\mathcal{A}, n) z^n$$

where $F(z) = F_{\mathcal{A}}(z)$ is defined by (1.3). By Proposition 2,

(3.11)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) z^n = z \frac{F'_k(z)}{F_k(z)}$$

where F_k is the k-iterate of F under the transformation \mathcal{G} (cf. (2.8)), and $F'_k = (d/dz)(F_k(z))$.

• Suppose that i = 0. The congruence (3.3) holds with the polynomial P defined by (3.1) and (3.2), and Proposition 3 implies that

(3.12)
$$F_k \equiv P_k \pmod{2^{k+1}}$$

for all $k \ge 0$, with $P_k = \mathcal{G}^{(k)}(P)$. It follows from (1.2), (2.1), (3.1) and (3.2) that

(3.13)
$$F_k(0) = P_k(0) = 1$$

and thus, from (2.15)-(2.17), (3.12) implies

(3.14)
$$z \frac{F'_k(z)}{F_k(z)} \equiv z \frac{P'_k(z)}{P_k(z)} \pmod{2^{k+1}}.$$

Therefore, by (3.11) and (3.14),

(3.15)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) z^n \equiv z \frac{P'_k(z)}{P_k(z)} \pmod{2^{k+1}}.$$

But, for k fixed, if $P_k(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + \ldots + a_J z^J$, then (3.15) implies that, for $n \ge J + 1$,

(3.16)
$$a_0 \sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) \equiv -a_1 \sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k (n-1)) - \ldots - a_J \sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k (n-J)) \pmod{2^{k+1}}.$$

It follows from (3.13) that $a_0 = 1$, so that (3.16) is a linear recurrence congruence, and, from a classical result based on the pigeonhole principle (cf. [2], for instance, for a detailed proof), it follows that $\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) \mod 2^{k+1}$ is periodic in n.

To show (3.9), observe first that a divisor of $2^{k+1}n$ is either a divisor of $2^k n$ or a multiple of 2^{k+1} , and thus, from (1.8),

(3.17)
$$\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^{k+1}n) \equiv \sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) \pmod{2^{k+1}}.$$

But, from (3.8), q_{k+1} is a period of $\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^{k+1}n) \mod 2^{k+2}$, and thus, is also a period of $\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^{k+1}n) \mod 2^{k+1}$ which is, by (3.17), equal to $\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^kn) \mod 2^{k+1}$ whose smallest period is q_k , and (3.9) is proved.

• Suppose now that i = 1. The congruence (3.6) will replace (3.3); (3.11), (3.14) and (3.15) will become

(3.18)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) z^n = z \frac{F'_k(z)}{F_k(z)} \equiv z \left(\frac{P'_k(z)}{P_k(z)} + \frac{1}{1-z} \right) \pmod{2^{k+1}},$$

and since the right hand side of (3.18) is a rational fraction, we conclude in the same way as in the case i = 0.

LEMMA 1. Let $Q(z) \in \mathbb{F}_2[z]$ be a polynomial of degree d with $Q(0) \neq 0$. The order β of Q is the least positive integer such that Q(z) divides $1 + z^{\beta}$ in $\mathbb{F}_2[z]$. Then

(i) the positive integers n such that Q(z) divides $1 + z^n$ in $\mathbb{F}_2[z]$ are the multiples of β ;

(ii) the order of an irreducible polynomial of degree d divides $2^d - 1$ and thus is odd;

(iii) the order of a product of pairwise relatively prime polynomials is the lcm of the orders of the factors.

Proof. These are classical results in the theory of finite fields (cf. [5, Chap. 3, 3.6, 3.4 and 3.9]. \blacksquare

LEMMA 2. Let $m \geq 1$ be an integer and $Q_1, \ldots, Q_m \in \mathbb{F}_2[z]$ be coprime polynomials of positive degrees. Assume that there exists non-zero polynomials A_1, \ldots, A_m satisfying $(A_j, Q_j) = 1$ and $\deg(A_j) < \deg(Q_j)$ for $1 \leq j \leq m$ and

$$\frac{A_1(z)}{Q_1(z)} + \ldots + \frac{A_m(z)}{Q_m(z)} = \frac{A(z)}{1 + z^T} \quad in \ \mathbb{F}_2[z]$$

where $T \geq 1$ is an integer and $A(z) \in \mathbb{F}_2[z]$. Then the order β_j of Q_j (cf. Lemma 1) satisfies

 $\beta_j \text{ divides } T, \quad 1 \leq j \leq m.$

Proof. Write $Q = Q_1 \dots Q_m$, $\widetilde{Q}_j = Q/Q_j$, $B = \sum_{j=1}^m A_j \widetilde{Q}_j$ so that

$$\frac{A_1}{Q_1} + \ldots + \frac{A_m}{Q_m} = \frac{B}{Q}$$

and

$$B(z)(1 + z^{T}) = A(z)Q(z) = A(z)Q_{1}(z) \dots Q_{m}(z).$$

From our hypotheses, each Q_j is coprime to B; therefore, $Q_j(z)$ divides $1 + z^T$ and from Lemma 1(i), β_j divides T.

THEOREM 2. Let P be the polynomial defined by (3.1) and (3.2) if i = 0and by (3.1) and (3.5) if i = 1. Let the factorization of P into irreducible factors over $\mathbb{F}_2[z]$ be

$$(3.19) P = Q_1^{\alpha_1} \dots Q_s^{\alpha_s}.$$

Denote by d_i the degree of Q_i , by β_i the order of $Q_i(z)$ (cf. Lemma 1), and for all $k \geq 0$, set

(3.20) $J_k = \{j : 1 \le j \le s, \alpha_j \equiv 2^k \pmod{2^{k+1}}\},\$

 $(3.21) I_k = J_0 \cup \ldots \cup J_k = \{j : 1 \le j \le s, \alpha_j \not\equiv 0 \pmod{2^{k+1}}\},$

$$(3.22) T_k = \operatorname{lcm}_{j \in I_k} \beta_j$$

(with $T_k = 1$ if $I_k = \emptyset$). Then, for all $k \ge 0$, we have $q_k = T_k$, and q_k is odd. Note that if 2^{k_0} is the highest power of 2 dividing any exponent α_j in

(3.19), then for $k > k_0$, we have $J_k = \emptyset$, $I_k = I_{k_0}$,

$$q_k = q := \operatorname{lcm}(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_s)$$

and moreover, from (3.9), q is a common period for all the sequences $(\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) \mod 2^{k+1})_{n \ge 1}, k \ge 0.$

REMARK. Theorem 2 explains the examples given in [2] with $q_0 \neq q_1$.

Proof of Theorem 2. In the whole proof, k is a fixed non-negative integer.

• Assume i = 0. To prove Theorem 2, we first consider polynomials Pand Q_j as polynomials of $\mathbb{Z}[z]$ with coefficients 0 or 1, so that (3.19) implies (3.23) $P \equiv Q_1^{\alpha_1} \dots Q_s^{\alpha_s} \pmod{2}.$

Then, it follows from (3.23), Proposition 3 and (2.6) that

(3.24)
$$P_k \equiv (Q_1)_k^{\alpha_1} \dots (Q_s)_k^{\alpha_s} \; (\text{mod } 2^{k+1}),$$

where $P_k = \mathcal{G}^{(k)}(P)$ and $(Q_j)_k^{\alpha_j} = (\mathcal{G}^{(k)}(Q_j))^{\alpha_j}$. By taking the logarithmic

derivative of (3.24), we get (as in (3.14)) from (3.21)

(3.25)
$$\frac{F'_k}{F_k} \equiv \frac{P'_k}{P_k} \equiv \sum_{j \in I_k} \alpha_j \, \frac{(Q_j)'_k}{(Q_j)_k} \, (\text{mod} \, 2^{k+1}).$$

If we set

$$(3.26) V = \prod_{j \in I_k} Q_j,$$

then $V_k = \mathcal{G}^{(k)}(V) = \prod_{j \in I_k} (Q_j)_k$ is a common denominator for the right hand side of (3.25), and, if S is the corresponding numerator, we have deg $S < \deg V_k$ and (3.25) reads

(3.27)
$$\frac{P'_k}{P_k} \equiv \frac{S}{V_k} \pmod{2^{k+1}}.$$

Further, from Lemma 1(iii) and (3.22), the order in $\mathbb{F}_2[z]$ of V(z), defined by (3.26), is equal to T_k . So, there exists a polynomial $R \in \mathbb{Z}[z]$ such that

(3.28)
$$V(z)R(z) \equiv 1 - z^{T_k} \pmod{2}.$$

Now we consider V as a polynomial of $\mathbb{Z}[z]$. By (2.6) and (2.4), Proposition 3 implies

(3.29)
$$V_k(z)R_k(z) \equiv 1 - z^{T_k} \pmod{2^{k+1}}$$

where $V_k = \mathcal{G}^{(k)}(V)$ and $R_k = \mathcal{G}^{(k)}(R)$. Then it follows from (3.15), (3.27) and (3.29) that

(3.30)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) z^n \equiv z \, \frac{S(z) R_k(z)}{1 - z^{T_k}} \, (\text{mod } 2^{k+1}).$$

Since deg $S < \deg V_k$, the degree of SR_k is smaller than T_k , and (3.30) shows that $\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) \mod 2^{k+1}$ is purely periodic with period T_k ; therefore

$$(3.31) q_k \text{ divides } T_k.$$

Let us show now $q_k = T_k$ by induction. The definition of q_k implies from (3.8) and (3.11) that for all $k \ge 0$,

(3.32)
$$z \frac{F'_k(z)}{F_k(z)} \equiv z \frac{W_k(z)}{1 - z^{q_k}} \pmod{2^{k+1}}$$

where $W_k(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{q_k} \sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) z^{n-1}$.

For k = 0, from (3.25), (2.8), (3.20) and (3.21), we have

(3.33)
$$\frac{F'}{F} \equiv \frac{P'}{P} \equiv \sum_{j \in I_0} \alpha_j \frac{Q'_j}{Q_j} \equiv \sum_{j \in J_0} \frac{Q'_j}{Q_j} \pmod{2}.$$

If $I_0 = J_0 = \emptyset$, the above sum is empty and from (3.10), $\sigma(\mathcal{A}, n) \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ for all $n \geq 1$. Therefore, $q_0 = T_0 = 1$. If $I_0 = J_0 \neq \emptyset$, from (3.32)

(with k = 0) and (3.33) we deduce

$$\sum_{j \in J_0} \frac{Q'_j(z)}{Q_j(z)} \equiv \frac{W_0(z)}{1 - z^{q_0}} \pmod{2}.$$

For each $j \in J_0$, it follows from Lemma 2 that $\beta_j | q_0$; thus, from (3.22), $T_0 | q_0$, which, by (3.31), yields $q_0 = T_0$.

Assume now that $k \ge 1$ and

$$(3.34) q_l = T_l for 0 \le l \le k - 1.$$

From (3.25) and (3.21) we have

$$(3.35) \quad \frac{F'_k(z)}{F_k(z)} \equiv \frac{P'_k(z)}{P_k(z)} \equiv \sum_{j \in I_{k-1}} \alpha_j \, \frac{(Q'_j)_k(z)}{(Q_j)_k(z)} + \sum_{j \in J_k} \alpha_j \, \frac{(Q'_j)_k(z)}{(Q_j)_k(z)} \, (\bmod 2^{k+1}).$$

From our induction hypothesis (3.34) and from (3.22), for all $j \in I_{k-1}$, we have $\beta_j | q_{k-1} = T_{k-1}$; thus, from Lemma 1(i), $Q_j(z) | 1 - z^{q_{k-1}}$ in $\mathbb{F}_2[z]$. Therefore, there exists a polynomial $Y_j(z) \in \mathbb{Z}[z]$ such that $1 - z^{q_{k-1}} \equiv Y_j(z)Q_j(z) \pmod{2}$. From (2.6), (2.4) and Proposition 3, we have $1-z^{q_{k-1}} \equiv (Y_j)_k(z)(Q_j)_k(z) \pmod{2^{k+1}}$ so that we can write

(3.36)
$$\sum_{j \in I_{k-1}} \alpha_j \frac{(Q'_j)_k(z)}{(Q_j)_k(z)} \equiv \frac{B(z)}{1 - z^{q_{k-1}}} \pmod{2^{k+1}}$$

where $B(z) \in \mathbb{Z}[z]$.

If $J_k = \emptyset$, it follows from (3.35), (3.36) and (3.11) that q_{k-1} is a period of $\sigma(\mathcal{A}, 2^k n) \mod 2^{k+1}$ so that $q_{k-1} | q_k$ which, by (3.9), implies $q_k = q_{k-1}$. Since $I_k = I_{k-1}$, from (3.21) and (3.34) we have $T_k = T_{k-1} = q_{k-1} = q_k$.

If $J_k \neq \emptyset$, (3.35) can be rewritten, by (3.36), (3.32) and (3.9), as

$$(3.37) \quad \sum_{j \in J_k} \alpha_j \, \frac{(Q'_j)_k(z)}{(Q_j)_k(z)} \equiv \frac{F'_k(z)}{F_k(z)} - \sum_{j \in I_{k-1}} \alpha_j \, \frac{(Q'_j)_k(z)}{(Q_j)_k(z)} \\ \equiv \frac{W_k(z)}{1 - z^{q_k}} - \frac{B(z)}{1 - z^{q_{k-1}}} \equiv \frac{B_1(z)}{1 - z^{q_k}} \, (\text{mod } 2^{k+1})$$

where $B_1(z) \in \mathbb{Z}[z]$ is a polynomial of degree less than q_k . In (3.37), from (3.20), the α_j 's are multiples of 2^k , so are also the coefficients of B_1 , and (3.37) implies

$$\sum_{j \in J_k} \frac{\alpha_j}{2^k} \cdot \frac{(Q'_j)_k(z)}{(Q_j)_k(z)} \equiv \frac{B_1(z)/2^k}{1 - z^{q_k}} \pmod{2}.$$

From (3.20), $\alpha_j/2^k$ is odd, and from (2.18), (2.17) and (2.15), we get

$$\sum_{j \in J_k} \frac{Q'_j(z)}{Q_j(z)} \equiv \frac{B_1(z)/2^k}{1 - z^{q_k}} \pmod{2}.$$

By Lemma 2, this implies that, for $j \in J_k$, we have $\beta_j | q_k$ so that $T_k | q_k$, which, together with (3.31), yields $q_k = T_k$.

The oddness of $q_k = T_k$ results from Lemma 1(ii) and (3.22), and the proof of Theorem 2 is complete when i = 0.

• Assume i = 1. From (3.18), (3.25) becomes

(3.38)
$$\frac{F'_k(z)}{F_k(z)} \equiv \frac{P'_k(z)}{P_k(z)} + \frac{1}{1-z} \equiv \frac{1}{1-z} + \sum_{j \in I_k} \alpha_j \frac{(Q_j)'_k}{(Q_j)_k} \pmod{2^{k+1}}.$$

The polynomial $1 - z^{T_k}$, where T_k is defined by (3.22), is still a common denominator for the right hand side of (3.38), and (3.31) can be proved in the same way as in the case i = 0. The proof of $q_k = T_k$ follows by replacing (3.25) by (3.38).

4. Relations between $\mathcal{A}_1(\mathcal{B}, N)$ and $\mathcal{A}_0(\mathcal{B}', N')$. In this section, we want to show that the sets $\mathcal{A}_1(\mathcal{B}, N)$ do not differ very much of the sets $\mathcal{A}_0(\mathcal{B}, N)$. More precisely, by adding or subtracting powers of 2 to $\mathcal{A}_1(\mathcal{B}, N)$, one can get a set $\mathcal{A}_0(\mathcal{B}', N+1)$ for a suitable set $\mathcal{B}' \subset \{1, \ldots, N+1\}$.

THEOREM 3. Let $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_1(\mathcal{B}, N)$ be defined by (1.5) and (1.4) with \mathcal{B} any set different from $\{1\}$, and N any integer satisfying $N \ge \max \mathcal{B}$.

(i) Denote by 2^h , $h \ge 0$, the smallest element (if it exists) of \mathcal{A} which is a power of 2. Then

(4.1)
$$\mathcal{A}' = \mathcal{A} \cup \{1, 2, \dots, 2^{h-1}\} \setminus \{2^h\} = \mathcal{A}_0(\mathcal{B}', N+1)$$

with

(4.2)
$$\mathcal{B}' = \mathcal{A}' \cap \{1, 2, \dots, N+1\}.$$

(ii) If $\mathcal{A} \cap \{1, 2, \dots, 2^h, \dots\} = \emptyset$, then

(4.3)
$$\mathcal{A}' = \mathcal{A} \cup \{1, 2, \dots, 2^h, \dots\} = \mathcal{A}_0(\mathcal{B}', N+1)$$

with \mathcal{B}' still defined by (4.2).

Proof. (i) From (1.3), we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(\mathcal{A}', n) z^n = \prod_{a \in \mathcal{A}'} \frac{1}{1 - z^a} = \frac{1 - z^{2^h}}{(1 - z) \dots (1 - z^{2^{h-1}})} \prod_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \frac{1}{1 - z^a}$$
$$\equiv \frac{1 - z^{2^h}}{(1 + z) \dots (1 + z^{2^{h-1}})} \prod_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \frac{1}{1 - z^a} \pmod{2}$$
$$\equiv (1 - z) \prod_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \frac{1}{1 - z^a} \equiv (1 - z) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(\mathcal{A}, n) z^n \pmod{2}.$$

Hence

$$p(\mathcal{A}', n) \equiv p(\mathcal{A}, n) - p(\mathcal{A}, n-1) \pmod{2},$$

so that, from (1.4), $p(\mathcal{A}', n)$ is even for $n \ge N + 2$; therefore, (4.1) follows from (1.6).

(ii) The argument is similar, by observing that

$$(1+z)(1+z^2)\dots(1+z^{2^h})\dots=\frac{1}{1-z}$$
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Faculté des Sciences de Monastir Avenue de l'environnement 5000, Monastir, Tunisie E-mail: Fethi.BenSaid@fsm.rnu.tn Institut Girard Desargues UMR 5028 Bât. Doyen Jean Braconnier Université Claude Bernard (Lyon 1) 21 Avenue Claude Bernard F-69622 Villeurbanne Cedex, France E-mail: jlnicola@in2p3.fr

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