## On the Distribution of Parity in the Partition Function

## By Thomas R. Parkin and Daniel Shanks

1. Introduction. Let p(n) be the number of (unrestricted) partitions of n, and define p(0) = 1. Then p(n) is generated by

(1) 
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n)x^n = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(1-x^n)} = \left\{1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \left[x^{n(3n-1)/2} + x^{n(3n+1)/2}\right]\right\}^{-1}.$$

There is little known about p(n) modulo 2; in particular, there are no known criteria for the parity of p(n) comparable in simplicity with Ramanujan's famous *sufficient* condition for divisibility by 5:

(2) 
$$5 \mid p(5k+4)$$
.

Kolberg [1] proved, but by contradiction and without identifying the arguments n, that i uitely many p(n) are even, and infinitely many are odd. His proof is almost as simple as Euclid's proof that there are infinitely many primes, but like that proof it offers only very little more in the way of exact information concerning questions of distribution.

From Gupta's tables [2], [3] we find the following cumulative distribution into odds and evens for  $0 \le n \le 499$ .

	$n \leq 99$	$n \le 199$	$n \le 299$	$n \le 399$	$n \le 499$
Odds	58	111	171	222	277
Evens	42	89	129	178	223

In the absence of any known reason to the contrary, and because of the rather unsmooth recursion for p(n) implied by (1), it would be natural to guess that the evens and odds are equinumerous, i.e., that the ratio of their counts has the limit 1 as the upper bound for  $n \to \infty$ . But the early preponderance of the odds, as just tabulated, would make us hesitate to conjecture that this is true. Nonetheless, it seemed to us not unlikely that this early preponderance might wash out as later returns came in (from upstate, so to speak). But it does seem unlikely that a theoretical proof of this could be attained with known techniques.

We have therefore examined the question empirically with a computer, and have put an even stronger question. Consider the number  $m = 1.74264258 \cdots$ , which when written in binary:

$$m = 1.101111110000111011101 \cdots,$$

has its kth bit to the right of the binary point 0 or 1 according as p(k) is even or odd. (m stands for Major MacMahon.) We now ask if m is normal with respect to the base 2. If so, this not only implies the previously supposed equinumerosity, but

also implies that all possible pairs, 00, 01, 10, and 11, have an asymptotic density of  $\frac{1}{4}$ , etc.

Here, however, we must note that the corresponding proposition modulo 5 is definitely false. Thus, if

$$(4) r = 1.12302102021210112002 \cdots$$

is a number written in quinary with its kth place  $\equiv p(k)$  modulo 5, we know from (2) that r is not normal. In fact, r is not even simply normal since it is further known that more than 20% of the p(n) are divisible by 5. For, in addition to (2), Morris Newman shows, in the following paper [4], that

(5) 
$$5|p(5\cdot 19^4k + 15147)$$

also, and still other independent linear functions also have this property. (A. O. L. Atkin has obtained more general results; these will appear in [5].)

One of our reasons for stressing this failure modulo 5 is because of the character of our main problem. Suppose, for instance, that our empirical investigation shows that parity does appear to be equinumerous, and even normal. Then one might well remark: "So what? Isn't that what one expects?" But the failure modulo 5 puts the problem in a more interesting light.

We have determined the parity of p(n) up to n = 2,039,999. In what follows we will indicate our method, our results, and some related investigations.

## 2. Notation and Nomenclature. Let $a_n$ be the *n*th bit of m in (3):

(6) 
$$a_n \equiv p(n) \pmod{2}.$$

Let the finite sequence

$$a_m a_{m+1} a_{m+2} \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot a_{m+k-1}$$

be called the mth k-tuple. Thus 1101 is the 0th 4-tuple and 11111 is the 3rd 5-tuple. There are  $2^k$  possible types of k-tuple, and let us designate these  $2^k$  types by the integer, which, when written in binary, is the k-tuple itself. Thus 1101 is the 13th type of 4-tuple and 11111 is the 31st type of 5-tuple. Let

$$\sum_{t=1}^{(k)} (n)$$

be the number of t type k-tuples that appear to the left of, but not including, the nth k-tuple. (We find it convenient, because of (11) below, to count the 0th k-tuple here, and therefore to omit the nth, so that the argument n in  $\sum_{i}^{k} (n)$  means that n k-tuples have been counted.) Thus, from (3),

$$\sum_{0}^{(2)} (10) = 2, \qquad \sum_{1}^{(2)} (10) = 1, \qquad \sum_{2}^{(2)} (10) = 2 \qquad \sum_{3}^{(2)} (10) = 5$$

and referring to our previous table,

$$\sum_{0}^{(1)} (500) = 223, \qquad \sum_{1}^{(1)} (500) = 277.$$

Then equinumerosity means

(7) 
$$\sum_{0}^{(1)} (n) \sim \sum_{1}^{(1)} (n) \sim \frac{1}{2} n,$$

while the stronger normality means that

(8) 
$$\sum_{t}^{(k)} (n) \sim 2^{-k} n$$

as  $n \to \infty$  for all t and all k.

Note that if one has counted the k-tuples  $\sum_{t}^{(k)}(n)$ , one can obtain the counts of j-tuples with j < k simply by addition. Thus

$$\sum_{0}^{(8)} (n) + \sum_{1}^{(8)} (n) = \sum_{0}^{(7)} (n) ,$$

and generally

(9) 
$$\sum_{2l}^{(k)} (n) + \sum_{2l+1}^{(k)} (n) = \sum_{l}^{(k-1)} (n)$$

for all k and all t.

To test normality we have counted the 256 types of 8-tuples out to  $n = 2 \cdot 10^6$ , and we deduced from these the counts, successively, of 7-tuples, 6-tuples, etc.

3. Computing the Parity Individually or En Masse. That the first two terms of equation (1) are equal is fairly obvious. For the simplest proof of the equality of the second and third terms, see [6]. Together, these equations imply Euler's recurrence: For  $n \ge 1$ ,

(10) 
$$p(n) = p(n-1) + p(n-2) - p(n-5) - p(n-7) + \dots + (-1)^{i+1} p(n-e_i)$$

where  $e_i = \frac{1}{2} i(3i \mp 1)$ , and where the series breaks off just before  $n - e_i$  becomes negative. One may thus compute the  $a_n$  en masse by recurrence using (10) modulo 2. For n large about  $\frac{2}{3}$   $(6n)^{1/2}$  terms are needed to compute  $a_n$  if the previous  $a_{n-e_i}$  are already known.

But MacMahon [7] found the more efficient recurrences:

$$a_{4n} \equiv a_n + a_{n-7} + a_{n-9} + \dots + a_{n-\alpha_i} \quad \text{with} \quad \alpha_i = i(8i \mp 1)$$

$$a_{4n+1} \equiv a_n + a_{n-5} + a_{n-11} + \dots + a_{n-\beta_i} \quad \text{with} \quad \beta_i = i(8i \mp 3) \quad \text{(mod 2)}.$$

$$a_{4n+3} \equiv a_n + a_{n-3} + a_{n-13} + \dots + a_{n-\gamma_i} \quad \text{with} \quad \gamma_i = i(8i \mp 5)$$

$$a_{4n+6} \equiv a_n + a_{n-1} + a_{n-15} + \dots + a_{n-\delta_i} \quad \text{with} \quad \delta_i = i(8i \mp 7)$$

(Note that 4n + 2 = 4(n - 1) + 6, but the formulas are neater as given.) We will give a proof of (11) presently. For now, let us note the savings possible.

- (1) The number of terms for  $a_n$  (not  $a_{4n}$ ) with n large is now  $\sim \frac{1}{4} (2n)^{1/2}$  so that the use of (11) requires only  $\sqrt{3/8} = 0.2165$  as much arithmetic as the use of (10).
- (2) To compute  $a_n$  out to n = N we now need to save the  $a_n$  only to  $n = \lfloor N/4 \rfloor$ , so that only 0.25 as much storage is necessary.

Aside from this more efficient computation en masse, there also arises the possibility of iterating (11), and thus of computing an individual  $a_n$  with no mass

storage whatsoever, since each application of (11) reduces the arguments by a factor of 4. We will discuss this possibility briefly later.

**4. MacMahon's Congruences.** In [7] MacMahon gave a proof of (11) based upon self-conjugate partitions, and in [8] he used (11) to compute the parities out to n = 1000. Subsequently, independently, and in effect, but not explicitly, G. N. Watson [9] reproved (11) using theta functions. Still later, H. Gupta [10] gave still another proof, this time using Ramanujan's tau function.

Perhaps the most direct proof, since it involves knowledge of none of these special concepts or functions, is this: Since

$$\frac{1}{1-x^n} = 1 + x^n + x^{2n} + \dots \equiv 1 - x^n + x^{2n} - \dots = \frac{1}{1+x^n} \pmod{2}$$

we have

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)(1-x^2)(1-x^3)\cdots} \equiv \frac{1}{(1-x)(1+x^2)(1-x^3)(1+x^4)\cdots} \\
= \frac{(1-x^2)}{(1-x)(1-x^4)(1-x^3)(1-x^8)\cdots} \pmod{2}$$

Thus

$$\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1-x^n} \equiv \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1-x^{4n}} \cdot \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1-x^{2n}}{1-x^{2n-1}} \pmod{2} .$$

Since the product on the right equals  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n(n+1)/2}$  (see [11] for the shortest proof) we have

(12) 
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n)x^n \equiv \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n)x^{4n} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n(n+1)/2} \pmod{2},$$

and comparing like powers of x, congruences (11) follow quickly.

It may be of interest to indicate the quite extraneous considerations that led us to this problem. One of us was in the process of reviewing [12] The Groups of Order  $2^n$  ( $n \leq 6$ ), by Marshall Hall, Jr. and James K. Senior, Macmillan, New York, 1964. The abelian groups there are designated as belonging to a family  $\Gamma_1$ , and the number of such groups of order  $2^n$  is, of course, p(n). It may be noted, see pages 103–104, that the lattice diagrams of these groups suggest that they fall into dual pairs. The question of whether p(n) is even or odd is therefore the question of whether there are an even or odd number of lattices which are self-dual.

This leads one to consider self-conjugate partitions and thus to rediscover (11) with (essentially) MacMahon's proof. But the proof above is somewhat simpler. Naturally, after having "discovered" the efficient congruences (11), one is eager to exploit them.

5. Normality. We show in Table 1 the value of  $\frac{1}{2}$   $m = .676 \cdots$  in octal to 3200 places. In this one can read  $a_n$  for  $0 \le n \le 9599$ . We have placed in the UMT file of this journal the complete 213-page value of  $\frac{1}{2}$  m out to n = 2,039,999. In Tables 2 and 4 we list the counts of the 8-tuples  $\sum_{t}^{(8)} (n)$  for t = 0(1)255 and  $n = 10^6$  and  $2 \cdot 10^6$ , respectively. For example,

Table 1  $\frac{1}{2}$  m in octal

		7	3978	3925	4014	3910	4015	3920	4041	3930	3932	3899	3974	3914	3833	3929	3871	3861	3857	3841	3824	3797	3966	3794	3821	3888	3879	3862	3825	3918	3881	3885	3889	3983
		9	3981	3910	3803	3856	3827	3918	3830	3777	3978	4082	3878	3800	3778	3939	3951	3957	3976	3970	3916	3964	3941	4005	3819	3944	3841	3852	3910	3897	3833	3875	3867	3861
		ĸ	3940	3980	3939	3903	3877	3801	3847	3905	3953	3867	4038	4048	3885	3863	3941	3899	3838	3891	3911	3964	3787	3921	3937	3932	3906	3836	3958	3939	3905	3922	3930	3953
E 2	0 TO 999999	4	3949	3977	3881	3977	3859	3918	3850	3915	3909	3901	3956	3875	3840	3786	4091	3822	3877	3928	3803	3970	3893	3867	3930	3765	3977	3775	3962	3875	3845	3896	4003	3865
TABLE 2	COUNTS	c	3977	3894	3965	3972	3926	3900	3840	3924	3899	3841	3909	3839	3918	3897	3906	3909	3982	3923	3877	3905	3984	3952	3771	3898	3934	3899	3998	3801	3802	3838	3808	3847
	OCTUPLE	2	3867	3884	3911	3899	3873	3950	3892	3943	3861	3823	3774	3883	3878	3887	3924	3928	4022	3936	3826	3798	3989	4044	3833	4089	3854	3891	3906	3984	4005	4033	3826	4005
			3948	3934	3945	3914	3790	3726	3910	3965	4019	3887	3957	3837	3935	3894	3935	3828	3896	3942	3854	3818	3970	3957	3886	3865	3985	3816	4016	3767	3853	4010	3872	3806
		0	3952	3892	3891	3991	3981	3958	3939	3982	3908	3865	3962	3948	3981	3886	3932	3852	3948	3944	3880	3358	3946	3961	3977	3885	3936	3869	3954	3915	3940	4084	3861	3881

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		7835	7766	7838	7707	7981	7714	7868	8187	7811	7761	7799	7832	7714	7815	7760	7844	15646	15527	15637	15539	15695	15529	15629	15662	31341	31056	31266	31201	62607	62257	124864	
		7957	7880	7719	7820	7768	7923	1649	7721	7819	7934	7788	7697	7611	7814	7818	7818	15776	15814	15507	15517	15379	15737	15467	15539	31155	31551	30974	31056	62129	62607	124737	
	666	7778	7871	7850	7867	7664	7722	7784	7837	7859	7703	<b>1996</b>	7887	7790	7785	7871	7852	15637	15574	15846	15854	15454	15507	15655	15689	31091	31081	31501	.+	~	62625	52	499554
	S 0 TO 999999	7826	7905	7684	1941	7752	7785	7780	7680	7886	7676	7918	7750	7685	7682	8094	7687	15712	15581	15602	15697	15437	15467	15874	15367	114	C	147	31064	62624	62112	124736	500446
TOTAL	K-TUPLE COUNTS	7959	7817	7842	7877	7910	7852	7611	7822	7833	7740	7907	7640	7720	7735	7714	7756	15792	15557	15749	15517	15630	15587	15325	15578	31422	31144	31074	31096	62496	62240	124736	249601
		7889	7820	7736	7697	7862	1994	7725	8032	7715	7714	7680	7867	7883	7920	7750	7933	15604	15534	15416	15564	15745	15914	15475	15965	31349	31448	30891	31529	62239	62977	125216	249953
		7844	7876	7799	7732	1760	7683	7796	7830	8004	7703	7973	7604	77.88	7904	7807	7634	15848	15578	15772	15336	15548	15587	15603	15464	31396	31165	31375	30805	62771	61965	124735	4995
		0061	7836	7771	7349	1927	6161	7916	7867	7844	7734	916	7863	7921	07.67	1193	7733	15744	15570	15687	15712	15848	15889	60731	15600	31592	31459	31396	31312	52988	52771	57	250494

Table 4

	7	8016	7902	7912	7834	7948	7849	7793	7810	1119	1194	7898	7836	7726	7821	7877	7725	1764	7710	7782	7607	7882	7733	1677	7802	7845	7736	7722	7915	7788	7785	7751	7941
	9	7844	7878	7748	7778	7804	7845	7728	7631	7938	8036	7612	7745	6092	7763	7823	7887	7798	7914	7830	7923	7826	7877	7639	7949	7733	7778	7916	7692	7821	7753	7827	7725
~		7791	7726	7815	7845	7874	7694	7833	7881	7862	7795	7924	8001	7813	7726	<b>1890</b>	7829	7734	7801	7769	7894.	7610	7800	7832	7727	7822	0692	7864	7753	7814	7835	7746	7798
TO 1999999	4	7851																															
TABI	3	7869	7830	1964	7778	7839	7745	7744	7846	7776	7821	7827	7703	7837	7835	7815	7816	1661	7830	7788	7743	7878	7755	1657	7764	7786	7791	7881	7727	7741	7804	7794	7762
UCTUBIL	2	7689	7745	7868	7749	7747	7839	7791	7893	7738	7663	7663	1577	7834	7835	7798	7792	7953	7854	7829	7742	7953	3033	7808	7990	7837	7836	7711	7804	7904	7832	7794	7865
																																	7802
	C	7841	7706	7747	7931	7371	7391	7933	7.93.8	7720	7783	7844	7932	9967	7691	7873	7745	7733	7858	7765	7495	6611	7884	7916	7800	7833	7751	7328	71167	7843	3)37	7728	7763

TABLE 5 K-TUPLE COUNTS 0 TO 1999999

						T	но	MA	s	R.	PA	RK	KIN	A	ND	D	AN	IE.	LS	SHA	N	KS						10	7	S	
15780	15612	15694	15441	33	15582	8	. ^	15624	15530	15610	15751	15514	15607	S	S	~~		31304	$\boldsymbol{\vdash}$		_		~~	$\sim$	62331	$\sim$ 1	62470	7	2480	7	
~	15792	3	~	9	15722	3	5	15671	15814	15528	15438	S	15516	5	S	-	-	31106			$\overline{}$			$\sim$	84		233	49	251	4967	
-	15527	15584	15739	$\infty$	15494	-	15608	15684	15485	15788	15754	15627	15531	15636	562	125	101	31372	149	111	102	130	123	237	62037	267	272		9	249812	
-	ã	ഗ	86	15587	15612	15416	53	-	557	15751	54	55	4	rU.	15565		31361	31265	31351	31151	31098	31320	31096	62547	45	62585	544	125132	124906	5003	1000503
15860	15660	15752	15521	15717	15500	15335	15610	15562	19	70	43	15578	15638	S	15578		$\overline{}$	31460	0	129	113	094	31188	271	62410	40	14	512	45	4967	499647
,	15599	15697	15491	15700	15872	15599	15883	15575	15499	15374	15595	15738	15667	15592	15657	31217	31098	31071	31086	31438	31539	31191	31540	62655	62637	62262	62625	124917	125262	250179	499850
1 7 7 7 7 8	15832	15586	15535	15514	15490	15671	15613	15944	15617	15831	15399	15623	15592	15645	15588	31502	31449	31417	0	~~~	-	31316		$\sim$	62531	2	2	125372	466	250038	499850
15544	556	15512	$\infty$	19	15775	15854	15738	55	15534	15672	66951	15832	15728	15601	80551		,	31184	31525	31502	31503		31246	52604	52601	52639	52771	125243	537	061	50000

$$\sum_{0}^{(8)} (10^6) = 3952 \text{ and } \sum_{12}^{(8)} (2 \cdot 10^6) = 7916.$$

These tables are read first across, and then down, for increasing t.

From Tables 2 and 4 we compute the counts of k-tuples for  $k = 7, 6, \dots, 1$  at  $n = 10^6$  and  $2 \cdot 10^6$ , respectively. This is done by use of the recursion (9), and the results are listed in Tables 3 and 5 in the obvious way. Thus

$$\sum_{0}^{(7)} (10^6) = 7900, \qquad \sum_{1}^{(6)} (10^6) = 15848, \qquad \sum_{2}^{(5)} (2 \cdot 10^6) = 62655.$$

The initial impression of this data is that no type of k-tuple is favored over other types, that the various types are equidistributed, and that the data here is consistent with the hypothesis of normality. We have attempted no elaborate statistical tests of this, but we did examine Good's psi-square serial test [13], [14] to a limited extent. Let

(13) 
$$\psi_k^2 = 2^k n^{-1} \sum_{k=0}^{2^k - 1} \left( \sum_{k=0}^{k} (n) - 2^{-k} n \right)^2.$$

Good showed that if the bits of a binary number are random, then  $\psi_{k^2}$  has an expectation  $2^k - 1$ . We list these  $\psi_{k^2}$  for k = 1(1)6 and  $n = 10^6$ ,  $2 \cdot 10^6$  together with their expectation in Table 6.

k	$n = 10^6$	$n = 2 \cdot 10^6$	Expect.
1	0.796	0.506	1
2	1.631	1.192	3
3	7.737	2.662	7
4	23.106	9.429	15
5	44.329	21.770	31
6	87.733	56.850	63

Table 6

Now note: We are testing here for randomness, but we are really interested in normality. The former implies the latter, but what of the converse? The data in Table 6 is consistent with randomness, and therefore also with normality. At  $n = 2 \cdot 10^6$  (but not at  $n = 10^6$ ) the distribution is even "too good." It seems to us conceivable (but admittedly, we are now going somewhat beyond our competence) that real numbers may exist with the  $\psi_k^2$  consistently too small. While such behavior would not be random, it could still imply normality—in fact, the smaller the  $\psi_k^2$  are, the better.

6. Equinumerous Evens and Odds. Turning now to k=1 in greater detail—and the question whether even and odd partition numbers are equinumerous—we list in Table 7 the number of odds,  $\sum_{1}^{(1)}(n)$ , and the ratio of odds to evens  $\sum_{1}^{(1)}(n)/\sum_{0}^{(1)}(n)$  for  $n=50,000(50,000)2\cdot10^6$ .

Since these steps  $\Delta n = 50,000$  are large and therefore do not allow a completely accurate picture of the variations in the *ratio* function, we supplement Table 7 with

the description in Table 8. This lists 11 regions, A through K, within each of which the *ratio* remains continually greater than 1, or continually less than 1. Thus, the early preponderance of the odds, that we already noted, continues throughout region A until n=6672. Between these regions there are many small oscillations of the ratio function around the value 1. For example, between regions G and H, the difference:

## odds - evens

varies between +56 and -65, and the ratio equals 1 for 176 different values of n (including, as in Table 7, n = 400,000).

 $n \cdot 10^{-4}$ OddsRatio $n \cdot 10^{-4}$ OddsRatio1.00128 0.998471.00803 0.998661.00109 0.998770.995330.999230.995260.998940.996780.999081.00120 0.998761.00000 0.99906 1.00109 0.999351.00012 0.999320.999400.999640.999810.999390.999700.999260.999050.999120.998500.999370.997660.999160.998380.999580.998860.99944

Table 7

Table 8

0.99911

0.99899

0.99779

0.99822

Region	Limits	Ratio	Extreme $\psi_1(n)$	A t n
A	1–6671	>1	+1.996*	1230*
В	16287-48781	<1	-1.662	21017
$\mathbf{C}$	49185–151211	>1	+2.882	78823
D	162951-332867	<1	-1.684	241706
$\mathbf{E}$	333373-363347	>1	+0.553	347684
$\mathbf{F}$	363769–375013	<1	-0.158	367246
G	376961-395293	>1	+0.204	386259
H	406565-494241	>1	+0.692	434150
I	538051-601509	<1	-0.499	569769
J	637169-645423	>1	+0.154	641119
K	646475-2040000+	<1	-1.165	812968

<sup>\*</sup> Only n > 1000 examined here.

Consistent with the definition (13) is the designation  $\psi_1(n)$  for the normalized difference:

(14) 
$$\frac{\text{odds} - \text{evens}}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\sum_{1}^{(1)} (n) - \sum_{0}^{(1)} (n)}{\sqrt{n}} = \psi_{1}(n) .$$

As in the previous section, our main interest here is not so much in the distribution of  $\psi_1(n)$  as in its extreme values, and in Table 8 we list the extreme value it takes on in each interval. For instance, in region B, at n=21017 there are 10629 evens and 10388 odds for an extreme value

$$\psi_1(21017) = -1.662.$$

In regions E through J parity is very much equidistributed. The worst normalized difference occurs in region C at n=78823, with 39816 odds and only 39007 evens. (On Table 7, this n lies between the first two entries, and has a ratio = 1.02074.)

It is reasonable to conjecture that

$$\psi_1(n) = O(n^{\epsilon})$$

for any positive  $\epsilon$ . If this is true, then we have not merely that the ratio  $\to 1$ , but we also know its rate of convergence:

$$|\text{ratio} - 1| < an^{-1/2 + \epsilon}$$

for some a, and any  $\epsilon$ .

7. Runs. The data in Section 5 was extended only to 8-tuples. To go beyond would require massive amounts of data, but the following special cases are of some interest. How often should one expect say, 15, and only 15 consecutive odd partition numbers? Since this presumes that the partition numbers immediately prior to such a sequence and immediately subsequent are both even, we are in fact asking for the count of 17-tuples of type  $2(2^{15} - 1) = 65534$ . As above, the expectation to  $n = 2 \cdot 10^6$  is

$$\sum_{65524}^{(17)} (2 \cdot 10^6) = 2^{-17} (2 \cdot 10^6) = 15.26.$$

Actually, there are 16 such runs of exactly 15 successive odds—the first run beginning with p(108417), and the sixteenth beginning with p(1936252).

In Table 9 we indicate the number of runs  $\ge 15$  out to  $n = 2 \cdot 10^6$ . There are no runs here greater than 20. All of this data seems to be as expected.

Odd Runs kEven Runs Expectation 10 16 15.3 15 7 4 7.616  $\frac{5}{2}$ 3.8 17 5 18 4 1.9 2 1.0 19 0 1 20 0 0.5Total 272930.1

Table 9

Curio-collectors may wish to know that the 20 partition numbers

$$p(n)$$
,  $1517214 \le n \le 1517233$ 

are all even, while

$$p(n)$$
,  $617995 \le n \le 618012$ 

constitutes the first sequence of exactly 18 odd partition numbers.

8. Remarks on the Presumed Normality. The last three sections, taken together, do make a good empirical case for normality (modulo 2). We are indebted to Dr. A. O. L. Atkin for a reason why the modulus 2 and also the modulus 3 would be expected to be special for the partition numbers. All known congruence relations for these numbers can be deduced from the so-called *modular forms*. Entering here in a fundamental way is the linear function

$$24m - 1$$
,

and while this can be divisible by any prime greater than 3, 2 and 3 are clearly special. Therefore, Atkin would also expect normality (modulo 3). We have not examined this.

Of course, such considerations are merely suggestive, and, so far, have not led to a *proof* of normality for either modulus, 2 or 3.

Another aspect of the distinction here between the apparent normality (modulo 2) and the distinct nonnormality (modulo 5), as exemplified in (2) and (5), is that one is reminded of the numbers of Wolfgang Schmidt. As is known, he showed [15], [16] that there exist real numbers x normal to one base r without being normal to another s. Perhaps we should clarify the difference between the phenomena presently under investigation and Schmidt's phenomena. Given any sequence of integers, a(n), we could construct two different real numbers as in our equations (3) and (4), and they may, as apparently is the case here, be normal to one base while not to another. On the other hand, a Schmidt number x gives rise to two different integer sequences:

$$a(n) = [xr^n]$$
 and  $b(n) = [xs^n]$ .

Finally, we wish to draw the main inference. Some time ago, Professor Freeman Dyson wrote one of us, "Atkin and I were never able to do anything with modulo 2 [for the partition function]." But if the parity is normal, and this is what our investigation strongly suggests, it appears to be a valid inference that "nothing" can be done—"nothing" surely as simple as the congruence (2), or even as profound as the congruence (5). There remains the problem of *proving* the presumed normality, but no doubt that will be very difficult. Rather more promising is the weaker problem of showing that every k-tuple occurs, that is:

$$\sum_{t}^{(k)} (n) > 0 \qquad \text{(every } t, k)$$

for a sufficiently large n. Happily, this implies the (only seemingly stronger) result:

$$\sum_{t}^{(k)} (n) \to \infty \qquad \text{(all } t, k) .$$

9. Iterated Computation of the Parity; An Unsolved Problem. As we indicated at the end of Section 3, by iterating equations (11) one can determine individual parities independently of any stored table of  $a_n$  except for

$$a_0 = 1$$
,  $a_2 = 0$ .

This leads to an unsolved problem of interest. Let us introduce an abbreviated notation; instead of

$$a_{200} \equiv a_{50} + a_{43} + a_{41} + a_{20} + a_{16}$$

we write

$$200 = 50, 43, 41, 20, 16$$
.

The algorithm is standardized by use of the three rules:

- (a) Replace the largest term on the right by its equivalent in (11).
- (b) Whenever two repetitions of an argument appear on the right, cancel them both (since their sum is even in any case).
  - (c) Repeat until 0 or 2 or 0, 2 is all that remains on the right. Example: For 200 one has the sequence:

Here we have italicized each term replaced by its equivalent, and used boldface for each pair eliminated by cancelling. Thus  $p(200) \equiv p(2) = \text{even}$ .

In the computation for 200 we listed 19 terms, and cancelled 4 pairs. We define

$$t(n)$$
 and  $c(n)$ 

to be these two functions. Thus

$$t(200) = 19$$
,  $c(200) = 4$ .

Let us compute these functions for n = 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600. To do the algorithm efficiently, it is best not to use (11) directly, but, after having decided whether the current term to be replaced is of the form

$$4n$$
,  $4n + 1$ ,  $4n + 3$ , or  $4n + 6$ ,

respectively, we write down n, and then subtract according to the differences:

Here is a brief Table 10.

Table 10

n	t(n)	c(n)
100	11	2
200	19	4
$\begin{array}{c} 300 \\ 400 \end{array}$	30	9
500	30 38 58 56	16
600	56	17

We raise the questions whether

$$(17) t(n) = O(n)?$$

$$(18) c(n) = O(n)?$$

Clearly, t(n) will generally increase with n, but "luck" plays a part; for 400 and 600 there is much cancellation of large terms, while for 500 there is relatively little.

The real point of our query is the question whether the parity of an individual p(n) can be determined in O(n) operations. If one computed such an *individual* parity by our previous, en masse, table building, technique the computation would require

$$\int O(\sqrt{n})dn = O(n^{3/2})$$

operations. We do not know whether (17) is true.

Aerospace Corporation Los Angeles, California 90045

David Taylor Model Basin Washington, D. C. 20007

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