# $q$-SERIES, ELLIPTIC CURVES, AND ODD VALUES <br> OF THE PARTITION FUNCTION 

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AbSTRACT. Let $p(n)$ be the number of partitions of an integer $n$. Euler proved the following recurrence for $p(n)$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
p(n)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k+1}(p(n-\omega(k))+p(n-\omega(-k))) \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\omega(k)=\left(3 k^{2}+k\right) / 2$. In view of Euler's result, one sees that it is fairly easy to compute $p(n)$ very quickly. However, many questions remain open even regarding the parity of $p(n)$. In this paper, we use various facts about elliptic curves and $q$-series to construct, for every $i \geq 1$, finite sets $M_{i}$ for which $p(n)$ is odd for an odd number of $n \in M_{i}$.

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1. The partition function. A partition of a nonnegative integer $n$ is any non-increasing sequence of positive integers whose sum is $n$. Let $p(n)$ denote the number of partitions of $n$. Even though Euler's recurrence $(*)$ gives a method for computing $p(n)$, there are many open problems and conjectures regarding the overall behavior of the partition function. For instance, the following questions regard the parity of $p(n)$.

CONJECTURE 1.1 (Parkin-Shanks [5]). The number of $n \leq x$ for which $p(n)$ is even is $\sim(1 / 2) x$.

CONJECTURE 1.2 (Subbarao [7]). In any arithmetic progression $r(\bmod t)$, there are infinitely many integers $N \equiv r(\bmod t)$ for which $p(N)$ is even, and there are infinitely many integers $M \equiv r(\bmod t)$ for which $p(M)$ is odd.
K. Ono [3] has recently proven most of this conjecture.

NEWMAN's PRObLEM (Newman [2]). Exhibit an infinite sequence of integers $n_{1}<$ $n_{2}<\cdots$ for which $p\left(n_{i}\right)$ is odd (resp., even).

Euler proved that the generating function for $p(n)$ was given by the infinite product

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n) q^{n}=\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1-q^{n}} \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Euler also discovered the identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
\prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{n}\right)=\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} q^{\left(3 n^{2}+n\right) / 2} \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. Elliptic curves. An elliptic curve over the rationals is a non-singular curve of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{2}+a_{1} x y+a_{3} y=x^{3}+a_{2} x^{2}+a_{4} x+a_{6} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the coefficients $a_{i}$ are integers. Any curve of the above form is isomorphic to one, say $E$, of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
E: y^{2}=x^{3}+a x^{2}+b x+c \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

with integers $a, b$, and $c$. The discriminant of $E$, denoted by $\Delta(E)$, is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta(E)=-4 a^{3} c+a^{2} b^{2}+18 a b c-4 b^{3}-27 c^{2} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $p$ is prime, then let $G F(p)$ denote the finite field with $p$ elements. If $p$ is prime, then $\bar{E}_{p}$ is the reduction of $E$ to $G F(p)$. If the reduction is smooth, then we say $E$ has good reduction at $p$. Otherwise, $E$ has bad reduction at $p$. If $p \nmid \Delta(E)$, then $E$ has good reduction at $p$.
The Hasse-Weil $L$-function of $E$, denoted by $L(E, s)$, is obtained by examining the reductions $\bar{E}_{p}$. If $p$ is a prime of good reduction, then define the integer $a(p)$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(p)=p+1-N_{p}, \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $N_{p}$ is the number of points of $\bar{E}_{p}$ rational over $G F(p)$, including the point at infinity. There are similar rules for those $p$ with bad reduction. If $p$ is prime and $k \geq 2$, then

$$
a\left(p^{k}\right)= \begin{cases}a(p) a\left(p^{k-1}\right)-p a\left(p^{k-2}\right) & p \text { good reduction }  \tag{2.5}\\ a(p) a\left(p^{k-1}\right) & p \text { bad reduction }\end{cases}
$$

Furthermore, if $\operatorname{gcd}(n, m)=1$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(n m)=a(n) a(m) \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The $L$-function is then given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
L(E, s)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a(n)}{n^{s}} . \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

As a consequence of (2.5) and (2.6), we obtain:
Proposition 2.1. Let $E$ be an elliptic curve and let $L(E, s)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(a(n) / n^{s}\right)$ be its Hasse-Weil function. Suppose that $n>1$ is relatively prime to $2 \cdot \Delta(E)$ with prime factorization

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}} \prod_{j} q_{j}^{b_{j}} \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
a\left(p_{i}\right) \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod 2) \quad \text { and } \quad a\left(q_{j}\right) \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod 2) . \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $a(n)$ is odd if and only if every $a_{i} \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$ and every $b_{j} \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$.

Proof. By hypothesis, every $p_{i}$ and $q_{j}$ are odd primes all with good reduction. Then by (4), we find that for every $k \geq 2$,

$$
\begin{align*}
a\left(p_{i}^{k}\right) & \equiv a\left(p_{i}^{k-2}\right) \quad(\bmod 2), \\
a\left(q_{j}^{k}\right) & \equiv a\left(q_{j}^{k-1}\right)+a\left(q_{j}^{k-2}\right) \quad(\bmod 2) . \tag{2.10}
\end{align*}
$$

It is easy to verify then that $a\left(p_{i}^{k}\right)$ is odd if and only if $k \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$, and that $a\left(q_{j}^{k}\right)$ is odd if and only if $k \not \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$. The result now follows easily from (2.6).

Example 2.1. In this example, let $E$ denote the curve

$$
\begin{equation*}
E: y^{2}=x^{3}-x . \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\Delta(E)=4, E$ has good reduction at every prime $p \neq 2$. If $p=5$, then $\bar{E}_{p}=\bar{E}_{5}$ is the collection of points $(x, y) \in G F(5) \times G F(5)$ satisfying the congruence

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{2} \equiv x^{3}-x \quad(\bmod 5) \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

An easy computation verifies that the only such points are

$$
\begin{equation*}
(0,0),(1,0),(2,1),(2,4),(3,2),(3,3),(4,0), \infty . \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

So in this case $N_{5}=8$, and so $a(5)=5+1-8=-2$. In fact, the first few terms of $L(E, s)$ are

$$
\begin{equation*}
L(E, s)=1-\frac{2}{5^{s}}-\frac{3}{9^{s}}+\frac{6}{13^{s}}+\cdots . \tag{2.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Taniyama-Shimura-Weil conjecture states that all elliptic curves over the rationals are modular. A curve is modular if its $L$-function corresponds to the Fourier expansion at infinity of a modular form. Specifically, if $E$ is modular and $L(E, s)=$ $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(a(n) / n^{s}\right)$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{E}(z)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a(n) q^{n} \quad\left(q=e^{2 \pi i z}\right) \tag{2.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a modular form. For a number of explicit examples (see [1]), the form $F_{E}(z)$ is given as a product of Dedekind's $\eta$-function defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta(z)=q^{1 / 24} \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{n}\right) \tag{2.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

For example, take the $\eta$-product

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{E}(z)=\eta^{4}(6 z)=q \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{6 n}\right)^{4} \tag{2.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

The coefficients of the $L$-function $L(E, s)$ of the elliptic curve $E: y^{2}=x^{3}+1$ are the same as those in the Fourier expansion of $F_{E}(z)$.
3. $q$-series results. In this section, we give two theorems which do not depend on elliptic curves. They simply depend on $q$-series manipulations.

Theorem 3.1. If $n=(2 m+1)^{2}$, then an odd number of the values

$$
\begin{equation*}
p\left(\frac{n-1}{4}-\left(\frac{a^{2}+a}{2}+6 b^{2}+2 b\right)\right) \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

are odd, where $a \geq 0$ and $b$ are integers.
Proof. Consider the $\eta$-product

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta^{2}(4 z) \eta^{2}(8 z)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a(n) q^{n}=q \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{4 n}\right)^{2}\left(1-q^{8 n}\right)^{2} . \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Factor this as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta^{2}(4 z) \eta^{2}(8 z)=\eta^{3}(8 z) \frac{\eta^{2}(4 z)}{\eta(8 z)} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recall the following identity due to Jacobi.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{n}\right)^{3}=\sum_{a=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{a}(2 a+1) q^{\left(a^{2}+a\right) / 2} \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using this identity and another well known identity, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta^{3}(8 z)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n}(2 n+1) q^{(2 n+1)^{2}} \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\eta^{2}(4 z)}{\eta(8 z)}=1+2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} q^{4 n^{2}} \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

so,

$$
\begin{align*}
\eta^{3}(8 z) \frac{\eta^{2}(4 z)}{\eta(8 z)} & =\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n}(2 n+1) q^{(2 n+1)^{2}}\right) \cdot\left(1+2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} q^{4 n^{2}}\right)  \tag{3.7}\\
& \equiv \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} q^{(2 n+1)^{2}} \quad(\bmod 2) .
\end{align*}
$$

So,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta^{2}(4 z) \eta^{2}(8 z) \equiv q+q^{9}+q^{25}+q^{49}+\cdots \quad(\bmod 2) \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Because $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1 /\left(1-q^{n}\right)\right)$ is the generating function for the partition function, we find that

$$
\begin{equation*}
q\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n) q^{4 n}\right) \cdot \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{4 n}\right)^{3} \cdot \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{8 n}\right)^{2}=\eta^{2}(4 z) \eta^{2}(8 z) . \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using Jacobi's identity, (1.2) and the fact that $\left(1-q^{8 n}\right)^{2} \equiv\left(1-q^{16 n}\right)(\bmod 2)$, this becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n) q^{4 n+1}\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{a=0}^{\infty} q^{2 a^{2}+2 a}\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{b=-\infty}^{\infty} q^{24 b^{2}+8 b}\right) \equiv \eta^{2}(4 z) \eta^{2}(8 z) \quad(\bmod 2) . \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, we find that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a(n) q^{n} \equiv\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n) q^{4 n+1}\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{a \geq 0, b \in \mathbb{Z}} q^{2 a^{2}+2 a+24 b^{2}+8 b}\right) \quad(\bmod 2) . \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, it is easy to check that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(n) \equiv \sum_{a \geq 0, b \in \mathbb{Z}} p\left(\frac{n-1}{4}-\left(\frac{a^{2}+a}{2}+6 b^{2}+2 b\right)\right) \quad(\bmod 2) . \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

The theorem now follows immediately.
Theorem 3.2. If $n=(6 m+1)^{2}$, then an odd number of the values

$$
\begin{equation*}
p\left(\frac{n-1}{6}-\left(\frac{a^{2}+a}{2}+3 b^{2}+b\right)\right) \tag{3.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

are odd, where $a \geq 0$ and $b$ are integers.
Proof. Consider the $\eta$-product

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta^{4}(6 z)=\prod_{n=0}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{6 n}\right)^{4} . \tag{3.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\eta^{4}(6 z) \equiv \eta(24 z)(\bmod 2)$, we can use (1.2) to give us

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta(24 z)=\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} q^{36 n^{2}+12 n+1} \equiv \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} q^{(6 n+1)^{2}} \quad(\bmod 2) . \tag{3.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, $\eta^{4}(6 z) \equiv 1+q^{25}+q^{49}+q^{121}+q^{169}+\cdots(\bmod 2)$. Because $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1 /\left(1-q^{n}\right)\right)$ is the generating function for the partition function, we find that

$$
\begin{equation*}
q\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n) q^{6 n}\right) \cdot \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{6 n}\right)^{3} \cdot \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{6 n}\right)^{2}=\eta^{4}(6 z) . \tag{3.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\left(1-q^{6 n}\right)^{2} \equiv\left(1-q^{12 n}\right)(\bmod 2)$, we can use (3.4) and (1.2) to get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n) q^{6 n+1}\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{a=0}^{\infty} q^{3 a^{2}+3 a}\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{b=-\infty}^{\infty} q^{18 b^{2}+6 b}\right) \equiv \eta^{4}(6 z) \quad(\bmod 2) . \tag{3.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, we find that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a(n) q^{n} \equiv\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n) q^{6 n+1}\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{a \geq 0, b \in \mathbb{Z}} q^{3 a^{2}+3 a+18 b^{2}+6 b}\right) \quad(\bmod 2) . \tag{3.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, it is easy to check that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(n) \equiv \sum_{a \geq 0, b \in \mathbb{Z}} p\left(\frac{n-1}{6}-\left(\frac{a^{2}+a}{2}+3 b^{2}+b\right)\right) \quad(\bmod 2) . \tag{3.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

The theorem now follows immediately.
Example 3.1. Here, we illustrate an example of Theorem 3.2. If $m=1$, then $n=$ $(6 m+1)^{2}=49$. We must find pairs $(a, b)$ with $a \geq 0$ and $b$ integers such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{n-1}{6}=8 \geq\left(\frac{a^{2}+a}{2}+3 b^{2}+b\right) \tag{3.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

These pairs are: $(0,0)(0,-1)(0,1)(1,0)(1,-1)(1,1)(2,0)(2,-1)(2,1)(3,0)(3,-1)$. Theorem 3.2 tells us that an odd number of the following values are odd:

$$
\begin{align*}
& p(8)=22, \quad p(6)=11, \quad p(4)=5, \quad p(7)=15, \quad p(5)=7, \quad p(3)=3, \\
& p(5)=7, \quad p(3)=3, \quad p(1)=1, \quad p(2)=2, \quad p(0)=1 . \tag{3.21}
\end{align*}
$$

Nine of the eleven are indeed odd.
Group law for elliptic curves. If $E$ is an elliptic curve, $E: y^{2}=x^{3}+a x^{2}+$ $b x+c$, the point at infinity is taken to be its identity element $O$, and $P=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ and $Q=\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)$ are points on $E$, then $P+Q:=\left(x_{3}, y_{3}\right)$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{3}=\lambda^{2}-a-x_{1}-x_{2} \tag{3.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{3}=\lambda x_{3}+y_{1}-\lambda x_{1} . \tag{3.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $P=Q$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda=\frac{3 x^{2}+2 a x+b}{2 y}, \tag{3.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

otherwise

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda=\frac{y_{2}-y_{1}}{x_{2}-x_{1}} . \tag{3.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

The question of finding points of order two on a curve is the same as that of finding all the points such that $P+P=O$ but $P \neq O$. It is easily seen from the above that this is satisfied only when $y=0$.

Fundamental theorem. If $E$ is an elliptic curve and $p$ is a prime of good reduction, then $\bar{E}_{p}$ with the point at infinity is a finite abelian group.

Theorem 3.3. Let $E$ be the elliptic curve

$$
\begin{equation*}
E: y^{2}=x^{3}+a x^{2}+b x+c, \tag{3.26}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $L(E, s)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(a(n) / n^{s}\right)$ its Hasse-Weil function. If the odd prime $p$ has good reduction, then $a(p)$ is odd if and only if $x^{3}+a x^{2}+b x+c \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ has no solution.

Proof. By definition, $a(p)=p+1-N_{p}$, where $N_{p}$ is the number of rational points of $E$ over $G F(p)$. Since $p$ is an odd prime, we find that $a(p)$ is odd if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
N_{p} \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod 2) \tag{3.27}
\end{equation*}
$$

The elliptic curve $\bar{E}_{p}$ is a finite abelian group with $N_{p}$ elements, so Lagrange's theorem states that $N_{p}$ is a multiple of the order of each of the individual points. Thus, asking when $N_{p}$ is odd is the same as asking for which $\bar{E}_{p}$ are there no points of order two. A point of order 2 on an elliptic curve is one whose $y$-coordinate is zero. Thus, $N_{p}$ and, consequently, $a(p)$ is odd if the equation $y^{2} \equiv x^{3}+a x^{2}+b x+c \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ has no solution for which $y=0$.

THEOREM 3.4. Let $p_{1}<p_{2}<\cdots$ be the primes for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{3}-4 x^{2}-160 x-1264 \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p_{i}\right) \tag{3.28}
\end{equation*}
$$

have solutions in $G F\left(p_{i}\right)$ and let $q_{1}<q_{2}<\cdots$ be the primes for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{3}-4 x^{2}-160 x-1264 \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod q_{j}\right) \tag{3.29}
\end{equation*}
$$

has no solutions in $G F\left(q_{j}\right)$. Suppose that $n>1$ is relatively prime to 2378 and that it has the factorization

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}} \prod_{j} q_{j}^{b_{j}} \tag{3.30}
\end{equation*}
$$

If every $a_{i} \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$ and every $b_{j} \equiv \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$, then an odd number of the values

$$
\begin{equation*}
p\left(n-1-\left(\frac{a^{2}+a}{2}+33 b^{2}+11 b\right)\right) \tag{3.31}
\end{equation*}
$$

are odd, where $a \geq 0$ and $b$ are integers.
Proof. In [1], it is proved that if $E$ is the curve

$$
\begin{equation*}
E: y^{2}=x^{3}-4 x^{2}-160 x-1264 \tag{3.32}
\end{equation*}
$$

then its Hasse-Weil function $L(E, s)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(a(n) / n^{s}\right)$ has the property that its coefficients $a(n)$ are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta^{2}(z) \eta^{2}(11 z)=q \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{n}\right)^{2}\left(1-q^{11 n}\right)^{2} \tag{3.33}
\end{equation*}
$$

However, since $\left(1-q^{11 n}\right)^{2} \equiv\left(1-q^{22 n}\right)(\bmod 2)$, we find that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a(n) q^{n} \equiv q \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{n}\right)^{2}\left(1-q^{22 n}\right) \quad(\bmod 2) \tag{3.34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, we find by (1.1) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n) q^{n+1}\right) \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{n}\right)^{3} \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{22 n}\right) \equiv \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a(n) q^{n} \quad(\bmod 2) . \tag{3.35}
\end{equation*}
$$

But by Jacobi's identity (3.4) and Euler's identity (1.2), this reduces to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n) q^{n+1}\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{a=0}^{\infty} q^{\left(a^{2}+a\right) / 2}\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} q^{33 b^{2}+11 b}\right) \equiv \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a(n) q^{n} \quad(\bmod 2) \tag{3.36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, it turns out that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(n) \equiv \sum_{a \geq 0, b \in \mathbb{Z}} p\left(n-1-\left(\frac{a^{2}+a}{2}+33 b^{2}+11 b\right)\right) \quad(\bmod 2) . \tag{3.37}
\end{equation*}
$$

The result now follows immediately from Theorem 3.3 and Proposition 2.1.
Example 3.2. It is easy to show that there is no solution to the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{3}-4 x^{2}-160 x-1264 \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p_{i}\right) \tag{3.38}
\end{equation*}
$$

for the primes 3 and 5 . So by (2.6), $n=15$ is a suitable choice to illustrate Theorem 3.4. We must, therefore, find all pairs $(a, b)$ with $a \geq 0$ and $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $14 \geq\left(\frac{a^{2}+a}{2}+\right.$ $\left.33 b^{2}+11 b\right)$. These pairs are: $(0,0)(1,0)(2,0)(3,0)(4,0)$. So by Theorem 3.4, an odd number of the following

$$
\begin{equation*}
p(14)=135, \quad p(13)=101, \quad p(11)=56, \quad p(8)=22, \quad p(4)=5 \tag{3.39}
\end{equation*}
$$

are odd.
Theorem 3.5. Let $p_{1}<p_{2}<\cdots$ be the primes for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{3}+x^{2}+72 x-368 \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p_{i}\right) \tag{3.40}
\end{equation*}
$$

have solutions in $G F\left(p_{i}\right)$ and $q_{1}<q_{2}<\cdots$ the primes for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{3}+x^{2}+72 x-368 \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod q_{j}\right) \tag{3.41}
\end{equation*}
$$

has no solutions in $\operatorname{GF}\left(q_{j}\right)$. Suppose that $n>1$ is relatively prime to 14 and that its prime factorization is

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}} \prod_{j} q_{j}^{b_{j}} \tag{3.42}
\end{equation*}
$$

If every $a_{i} \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$ and every $b_{j} \not \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$, then an odd number of the values

$$
\begin{equation*}
p\left(n-1-\left(\frac{7 a^{2}+7 a}{2}+6 b^{2}+2 b\right)\right) \tag{3.43}
\end{equation*}
$$

are odd, where $a \geq 0$ and $b$ are integers.
Proof. In [1], it is proved that if $E$ is the curve

$$
\begin{equation*}
E: y^{2}=x^{3}+x^{2}+72 x-368 \tag{3.44}
\end{equation*}
$$

then its Hasse-Weil function $L(E, s)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(a(n) / n^{s}\right)$ has the property that its coefficients $a(n)$ are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta(z) \eta(2 z) \eta(7 z) \eta(14 z)=q \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{n}\right)\left(1-q^{2 n}\right)\left(1-q^{7 n}\right)\left(1-q^{14 n}\right) \tag{3.45}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using Euler's identity (1.2), Jacobi's identity (3.4), and the fact that ( $1-q^{2 n}$ ) $\equiv\left(1-q^{n}\right)^{2}$ $(\bmod 2)$, the theorem follows in a manner similar to that of Theorem 3.4.

Theorem 3.6. Let $p_{1}<p_{2}<\cdots$ be the primes for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{3}+x^{2}+4 x+4 \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p_{i}\right) \tag{3.46}
\end{equation*}
$$

have solutions in $G F\left(p_{i}\right)$ and $q_{1}<q_{2}<\cdots$ the primes for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{3}+x^{2}+4 x+4 \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod q_{j}\right) \tag{3.47}
\end{equation*}
$$

has no solutions in $\operatorname{GF}\left(q_{j}\right)$. Suppose that $n>1$ is relatively prime to 10 and that its prime factorization is

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}} \prod_{j} q_{j}^{b_{j}} \tag{3.48}
\end{equation*}
$$

If every $a_{i} \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$ and every $b_{j} \not \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$, then an odd number of the values

$$
\begin{equation*}
p\left(\frac{n-1}{2}-\left(a^{2}+a+30 b^{2}+10 b\right)\right) \tag{3.49}
\end{equation*}
$$

are odd, where $a \geq 0$ and $b$ are integers.
Proof. If $E$ is the curve

$$
\begin{equation*}
E: y^{2}=x^{3}+x^{2}+4 x+4 \tag{3.50}
\end{equation*}
$$

then in [1], it was proved that the coefficients $a(n)$ of its Hasse-Weil function $L(E, s)=$ $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(a(n) / n^{s}\right)$ are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta^{2}(2 z) \eta^{2}(10 z)=q \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{2 n}\right)^{2}\left(1-q^{10 n}\right)^{2} \tag{3.51}
\end{equation*}
$$

The proof follows in a manner similar to Theorem 3.4.
Theorem 3.7. Let $p_{1}<p_{2}<\cdots$ be the primes for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{3}-x^{2}-4 x+4 \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p_{i}\right) \tag{3.52}
\end{equation*}
$$

have solutions in $G F\left(p_{i}\right)$ and $q_{1}<q_{2}<\cdots$ the primes for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{3}-x^{2}-4 x+4 \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod q_{j}\right) \tag{3.53}
\end{equation*}
$$

has no solutions in $\operatorname{GF}\left(q_{j}\right)$. Suppose that $n>1$ is relatively prime to 6 and that its prime factorization is

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}} \prod_{j} q_{j}^{b_{j}} \tag{3.54}
\end{equation*}
$$

If every $a_{i} \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$ and every $b_{j} \not \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$, then an odd number of the values

$$
\begin{equation*}
p\left(\frac{n-1}{2}-\left(3 a^{2}+3 a+12 b^{2}+4 b\right)\right) \tag{3.55}
\end{equation*}
$$

are odd, where $a \geq 0$ and $b$ are integers.
Proof. If $E$ is the curve

$$
\begin{equation*}
E: y^{2}=x^{3}-x^{2}-4 x+4 \tag{3.56}
\end{equation*}
$$

then in [1], it was proved that the coefficients $a(n)$ of its Hasse-Weil function $L(E, s)=$ $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(a(n) / n^{s}\right)$ are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta(2) \eta(4 z) \eta(6 z) \eta(12 z)=q \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{2 n}\right)\left(1-q^{4 n}\right)\left(1-q^{6 n}\right)\left(1-q^{12 n}\right) \tag{3.57}
\end{equation*}
$$

The proof follows in a manner similar to Theorem 3.4.
THEOREM 3.8. Let $p_{1}<p_{2}<\cdots$ be the primes for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{3}-432 \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p_{i}\right) \tag{3.58}
\end{equation*}
$$

have solutions in $G F\left(p_{i}\right)$ and $q_{j}$ are the primes for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{3}-432 \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod q_{j}\right) \tag{3.59}
\end{equation*}
$$

has no solutions in $\operatorname{GF}\left(q_{j}\right)$. Suppose that $n>1$ is relatively prime to 6 and that its prime factorization is

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}} \prod_{j} q_{j}^{b_{j}} \tag{3.60}
\end{equation*}
$$

If every $a_{i} \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$ and every $b_{j} \not \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$, then an odd number of the values

$$
\begin{equation*}
p\left(\frac{n-1}{3}-\left(\frac{3 a^{2}+3 a}{2}+27 b^{2}+9 b\right)\right) \tag{3.61}
\end{equation*}
$$

are odd, where $a \geq 0$ and $b$ are integers.
Proof. If $E$ is the curve

$$
\begin{equation*}
E: y^{2}=x^{3}-432 \tag{3.62}
\end{equation*}
$$

then in [1], it was proved that the coefficients $a(n)$ of its Hasse-Weil function $L(E, s)=$ $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(a(n) / n^{s}\right)$ are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta^{2}(3 z) \eta^{2}(9 z)=q \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-q^{3 n}\right)^{2}\left(1-q^{9 n}\right)^{2} \tag{3.63}
\end{equation*}
$$

The proof follows in a manner similar to Theorem 3.4.
Also, realize that the curves in Theorems 3.4, 3.5, and 3.8 were all changed from the form they are normally shown into the form $y^{2}=x^{3}+a x^{2}+b x+c$ by a simple change of variables to ease the job of finding points of order two.

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