## ON PELL PARTITIONS

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

The Pell sequence, denoted $\left\{P_{n}\right\}$, is defined for $n \geq 0$ by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{0}=0, P_{1}=1, P_{n}=2 P_{n-1}+P_{n-2} \quad \text { for } \quad n \geq 2 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $U_{n}$ denote the number of partitions of the natural number $n$, all of whose parts belong to $\left\{P_{n}\right\}$. In this note, we present a recursive algorithm for computing $U_{n}$. The techniques used here are also applicable to other second order linear recurrences that have the property of being super-increasing, that is, where each term exceeds the sum of all its predecessors. In [1], the second author solved the corresponding problem for the Fibonacci sequence.

## 2. MAIN RESULTS

Remarks: It is easily seen from (1) that $\left\{P_{n}\right\}$ is strictly increasing. Furthermore, we have:
Theorem 1: If $n \geq 1$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=1}^{n} P_{j}=\frac{1}{2}\left(P_{n+1}+P_{n}-1\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof: Use (1) and induction on $n$.
Next, we will show that every natural number has a unique greedy representation as a sum of Pell numbers. Let $k$ be the unique index such that $P_{k} \leq m<P_{k+1}$. Now (1) implies $P_{k} \leq m<2 P_{k}+P_{k-1}$. In the greedy algorithm, we subtract from $m$ the largest possible multiple of $P_{k}$, that is, we write:

$$
m=t P_{k}+\left(m-t P_{k}\right)
$$

where the multiplier $t \in\{1,2\}$. We then iterate the process on the remainder and continue until we obtain a zero remainder. This yields a representation of $m$ as a sum of Pell numbers. At each iteration, the values of the index and of the multiplier are uniquely determined. Therefore, the greedy Pell representation of $m$ is unique.

For example, let $m=151$. Since $P_{6}=70<151<169=P_{7}$, we write $151=2(70)+11$. Since $P_{3}=5<11<12=P_{4}$, we write $11=2(5)+1$. Since $1=P_{1}$, we have $151=$ $2(70)+2(5)+1$.

Theorem 2: If $m \in N$, then $m$ has a unique representation:

$$
m=\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} P_{i}
$$

where each $c_{i} \in\{0,1,2\}, c_{k} \neq 0$, and if $c_{i}=2$, then $i \geq 2$ and $c_{i-1}=0$.
Proof: The statement is trivially true if $m=P_{k}$ for some $k \geq 1$ or if $m=2 P_{k}$ for some $k \geq 2$. In particular, therefore, it is true when $m \in\{1,2\}$. Otherwise, we let $k$ be the unique integer such that $P_{k}<m<P_{k+1}$, that is, $P_{k}<m<2 P_{k}+P_{k-1}$, and use induction on $k$.
Case 1: If $P_{k}<m<2 P_{k}$, then $0<m-P_{k}<P_{k}$, so by induction hypothesis, we have

$$
m-P_{k}=\sum_{i=1}^{s} c_{i} P_{i}
$$

where $1 \leq s \leq k-1, c_{s} \neq 0, \forall c_{i} \in\{0,1,2\}$, and if $c_{i}=2$, then $i \geq 2$ and $c_{i-1}=0$. Therefore

$$
m=P_{k}+\sum_{i=1}^{s} c_{i} P_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} P_{i}
$$

where $c_{k}=1$ and if $s \leq k-2$, then $c_{s+1}=c_{s+2}=\cdots=c_{k-1}=0$.
Case 2: If $2 P_{k}<m<2 P_{k}+P_{k-1}$, then $0<m-2 P_{k}<P_{k-1}$, so by induction hypothesis, we have

$$
m-2 P_{k}=\sum_{i=1}^{s} c_{i} P_{i}
$$

where $1 \leq s \leq k-1, c_{s} \neq 0, \forall c_{i} \in\{0,1,2\}$, and if $c_{i}=2$, then $i \geq 2$ and $c_{i-1}=0$. Therefore

$$
m=2 P_{k}+\sum_{i=1}^{s} c_{i} P_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} P_{i}
$$

where $c_{k}=2$ and $c_{s+1}=c_{s+2}=\cdots=c_{k-1}=0$. Since $k$ is uniquely determined, it follows that the greedy representation of $m$ as a sum of Pell numbers is also unique.
Remarks: If $m>1$, then by repeated use of (1), one may generate additional Pell representations of $m$ that satisfy some, but not all of the conditions of the conclusion of Theorem 2. For example,

$$
30=29+1=P_{5}+P_{1}
$$

but also

$$
30=2(12)+5+1=2 P_{4}+P_{3}+P_{1}
$$

The first of these two Pell representations of 30 is greedy; the second is not.
If $\left\{u_{n}\right\}$ is a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(z)=\prod_{n \geq 1}\left(1-z^{u_{n}}\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The product in (9) converges absolutely to an analytic function without zeroes on compact subsets of the unit disc. Let $g(z)$ have the Maclaurin series representation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(z)=\sum_{n \geq 0} a_{n} z^{n} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $a_{0}=1$. If $n \geq 1$, then $a_{n}$ is the difference between the number of partitions of $n$ into evenly many distinct parts from $\left\{u_{n}\right\}$ and the number of partitions of $n$ into oddly many distinct parts from $\left\{u_{n}\right\}$. If we let

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(z)=1 / g(z) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $f(z)$ is also an analytic function without zeroes on compact subsets of the unit disc. We have:

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(z)=\prod_{n \geq 1}\left(1-z^{u_{n}}\right)^{-1}=\sum_{n \geq 0} U_{n} z^{n} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $U_{0}=0$, where $U_{n}$ denotes the number of partitions of $n$ into parts from $\left\{u_{n}\right\}$. Since $f(z) g(z)=1$, we obtain the recurrence relation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=0}^{n} a_{n-k} U_{k}=0 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $n \geq 1$. This provides a convenient way to compute the $U_{n}$, once the $a_{n}$ are known. The following theorem is helpful, not only for the Pell sequence, but for any sequence of natural numbers that is super-increasing.
Theorem 3: Let $\left\{u_{n}\right\}$ be a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers. If $z$ is a complex variable such that $|z|<1$, let

$$
g(z)=\prod_{n \geq 1}\left(1-z^{u_{n}}\right)=\sum_{n \geq 0} a_{n} z^{n}
$$

Suppose that

$$
u_{n}>\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} u_{j} \quad \forall n \geq 2
$$

Then $\forall n \geq 0$, we have

$$
a_{n} \in\{-1,0,1\}
$$

Proof: If $m \geq 1$, let

$$
g_{m}(z)=\prod_{k=1}^{m}\left(1-z^{u_{k}}\right)=\sum_{n \geq 0} a_{m, n} z^{n}
$$

An elementary argument shows that

$$
\lim _{m \rightarrow \infty} g_{m}(z)=g(z)
$$

so that

$$
\lim _{m \rightarrow \infty} a_{m, n}=a_{n} \quad \forall n
$$

Therefore it suffices to prove that $a_{m, n} \in\{-1,0,1\} \quad \forall m, n$. This will be done by induction on $m$. Now

$$
g_{1}(z)=1-z^{u_{1}}
$$

so the statement holds for $m=1$. Also

$$
g_{m+1}(z)=\left(1-z^{u_{m+1}}\right) g_{m}(z)
$$

Since $u_{m+1}>\sum_{j=1}^{m} u_{j}$ by hypothesis, it follows that $a_{m+1, n}=a_{m, n} \forall n \leq \sum_{j=1}^{m} u_{j}$. The conclusion now follows by applying the induction hypothesis.

The following theorem shows the relation between the greedy Pell representation of $n$ and the coefficient $a_{n}$ :
Theorem 4: Let

$$
g(z)=\prod_{n \geq 1}\left(1-z^{P_{n}}\right)=\sum_{n \geq 0} a_{n} z^{n}
$$

Let $n$ have the greedy Pell representation:

$$
n=\sum_{i=1}^{r} c_{i} P_{i}
$$

where each $c_{i} \in\{0,1,2\}$ and $c_{r} \neq 0$. If there exists $i$ such that $c_{i}=2$, then $a_{n}=0$. Otherwise, $a_{n}=(-1)^{t}$ where $t$ is the number of indices, $i$, such that $c_{i}=1$.

Proof: First, we verify that by (1) and Theorem $1,\left\{P_{n}\right\}$ is super-increasing, that is,

$$
P_{n+1}>\sum_{j=1}^{n} P_{j} \quad \forall n \geq 1
$$

If 2 occurs as a digit, then since $\left\{P_{n}\right\}$ is super-increasing, there can be no representation of $n$ as a sum of distinct Pell numbers, so $a_{n}=0$. If the greedy Pell representation of $n$ has $t 1^{\prime} s$ and no $2^{\prime} s$, then $n$ is the unique sum of $t$ Pell numbers, so $a_{n}=1$ if $t$ is even and $a_{n}=-1$ if $t$ is odd, that is, $a_{n}=(-1)^{t}$.

We conclude by listing some numerical results in Table 1 below. For each $n$ such that $0 \leq n \leq 50$, we list the greedy Pell representation of $n$, followed by $a_{n}$ and $U_{n}$.

| $n$ | $P e l l(n)$ | $a_{n}$ | $U_{n}$ | $n$ | $\operatorname{Pell}(n)$ | $a_{n}$ | $U_{n}$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 26 | 2010 | 0 | 63 |
| 1 | 1 | -1 | 1 | 27 | 2011 | 0 | 68 |
| 2 | 10 | -1 | 2 | 28 | 2020 | 0 | 74 |
| 3 | 11 | 1 | 2 | 29 | 10000 | -1 | 81 |
| 4 | 20 | 0 | 3 | 30 | 10001 | 1 | 88 |
| 5 | 100 | -1 | 4 | 31 | 10010 | 1 | 95 |
| 6 | 101 | 1 | 5 | 32 | 10011 | -1 | 103 |
| 7 | 110 | 1 | 6 | 33 | 10020 | 0 | 110 |
| 8 | 111 | -1 | 7 | 34 | 10100 | 1 | 120 |
| 9 | 120 | 0 | 8 | 35 | 10101 | -1 | 128 |
| 10 | 200 | 0 | 10 | 36 | 10110 | -1 | 139 |
| 11 | 201 | 0 | 11 | 37 | 10111 | 1 | 148 |
| 12 | 1000 | -1 | 14 | 38 | 10120 | 0 | 159 |
| 13 | 1001 | 1 | 15 | 39 | 10200 | 0 | 170 |
| 14 | 1010 | 1 | 18 | 40 | 10201 | 0 | 182 |
| 15 | 1011 | -1 | 20 | 41 | 11000 | 1 | 195 |
| 16 | 1020 | 0 | 23 | 42 | 11001 | -1 | 208 |
| 17 | 1100 | 1 | 26 | 43 | 11010 | -1 | 221 |
| 18 | 1101 | -1 | 29 | 44 | 11011 | 1 | 236 |
| 19 | 1110 | -1 | 32 | 45 | 11020 | 0 | 250 |
| 20 | 1111 | 1 | 36 | 46 | 11100 | -1 | 267 |
| 21 | 1120 | 0 | 39 | 47 | 11101 | 1 | 282 |
| 22 | 1200 | 0 | 44 | 48 | 11110 | 1 | 300 |
| 23 | 1201 | 0 | 47 | 49 | 11111 | -1 | 317 |
| 24 | 2000 | 0 | 53 | 50 | 11120 | 0 | 336 |
| 25 | 2001 | 0 | 57 |  |  |  |  |

Table 1: Pell Partitions

## REFERENCES

[1] N. Robbins. "Fibonacci partitions." The Fibonacci Quarterly 34 (1996): 306-313.
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