Congruences for *k*-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

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Congruences from
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Thanks to William for the opportunity to speak today!

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

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Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

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- ► Share some brief "historical" thoughts regarding past work related to *k*-elongated partition diamonds
- Share some introductory background material on these objects (generating functions, etc.)

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

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- ► Share some brief "historical" thoughts regarding past work related to *k*-elongated partition diamonds
- Share some introductory background material on these objects (generating functions, etc.)
- Briefly discuss the recent congruences of Andrews and Paule as well as an infinite family of congruences proven by Nicolas Smoot for 2-elongated partition diamonds modulo arbitrarily large powers of 3

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

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Congruences from
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- Describe work that Robson and I have since completed to prove infinitely many additional congruences for these objects using truly elementary methods

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

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Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

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- Share some introductory background material on these objects (generating functions, etc.)
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- Describe work that Robson and I have since completed to prove infinitely many additional congruences for these objects using truly elementary methods
- Close with some thoughts on possible future work

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Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

In 2007, Andrews and Paule published the eleventh paper in their series on MacMahon's partition analysis, with a particular focus on the combinatorial objects that they called broken k-diamond partitions.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

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New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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In that paper, Andrews and Paule introduced the idea of k-elongated partition diamonds.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

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Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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In that paper, Andrews and Paule introduced the idea of k-elongated partition diamonds.

Recently, Andrews and Paule revisited the topic of k-elongated partition diamonds.

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Using partition analysis and the Omega operator, Andrews and Paule proved the generating function for the partition numbers $d_k(n)$ produced by summing the links of k-elongated plane partition diamonds of length n.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

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New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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They proved

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_k(n)q^n = \frac{f_2^k}{f_1^{3k+1}}$$

where $f_r = (q^r; q^r)_{\infty}$ is the usual q-Pochhammer symbol.

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

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where $f_r = (q^r; q^r)_{\infty}$ is the usual q-Pochhammer symbol.

They then proceeded to prove several (individual) congruence properties satisfied by d_1,d_2 and d_3 using modular forms and Nicolas Smoot's Mathematica package as their primary proof tools.

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James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

More recently, Smoot extended the congruence work of Andrews and Paule, refining a conjectured infinite family of congruences that appears in their recent paper and proving the following via modular forms:

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

More recently, Smoot extended the congruence work of Andrews and Paule, refining a conjectured infinite family of congruences that appears in their recent paper and proving the following via modular forms:

Theorem (Smoot): For all $\alpha \geq 0$ and all $n \geq 0$ such that $8n \equiv 1 \pmod{3^{\alpha}}$,

$$d_2(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{3^{2\lfloor \alpha/2\rfloor+1}}.$$

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Our goal is to extend some of the results proven by Andrews and Paule by proving infinitely many congruence properties satisfied by the functions d_k for an **infinite** set of values of k.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Our goal is to extend some of the results proven by Andrews and Paule by proving infinitely many congruence properties satisfied by the functions d_k for an **infinite** set of values of k.

The proof techniques employed below are all elementary, relying on generating function manipulations and classical q-series results.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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The proof techniques employed below are all elementary, relying on generating function manipulations and classical q-series results.

We require a number of well–known lemmas in order to complete our proofs:

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Lemma:

$$\frac{f_2^2}{f_1} = \sum_{m \ge 0} q^{m(m+1)/2}$$

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Lemma:

$$\frac{f_2^2}{f_1} = \sum_{m \ge 0} q^{m(m+1)/2}$$

Lemma:

$$f_1^3 = \sum_{m \ge 0} (-1)^m (2m+1) q^{m(m+1)/2}.$$

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

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$$f_1^3 = \sum_{m \ge 0} (-1)^m (2m+1) q^{m(m+1)/2}.$$

Lemma:

$$f_1 = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} (-1)^m q^{m(3m-1)/2}.$$

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Lemma:

$$\frac{f_1^5}{f_2^2} = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} (6m+1)q^{m(3m+1)/2}.$$

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James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

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Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Lemma:

$$\frac{f_1^5}{f_2^2} = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} (6m+1)q^{m(3m+1)/2}.$$

Lemma:

$$\begin{split} \frac{f_1^2}{f_2} &= \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} q^{j^2}, \\ &= \frac{f_8^5}{f_4^2 f_{16}^2} - 2q \frac{f_{16}^2}{f_8}, \\ &= \frac{f_9^2}{f_{18}} - 2q \frac{f_3 f_{18}^2}{f_6 f_9}. \end{split}$$

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

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Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Lemma:

$$f_1 f_2 = \frac{f_6 f_9^4}{f_3 f_{18}^2} - q f_9 f_{18} - 2q^2 \frac{f_3 f_{18}^4}{f_6 f_9^2}.$$

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Acknowledgements

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of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Lemma:

$$\frac{1}{f_1^4} = \frac{f_4^{14}}{f_2^{14}f_8^4} + 4q \frac{f_4^2 f_8^4}{f_2^{10}}.$$

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James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Acknowledgements

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New "Individual" Congruences

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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As a first example, we note the following:

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

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New Infinite Families of Congruences

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As a first example, we note the following:

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 5) For all $n \ge 0$, $d_2(3n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod 3$.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

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New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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As a first example, we note the following:

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 5) For all $n \ge 0$, $d_2(3n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod 3$.

As we mentioned earlier, Andrews and Paule used significant tools based on the work of Smoot, which are derived from modular forms, in order to prove their congruences for d_2 and d_3 .

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Their proof of this theorem is that

$$g_1 \cdot \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} d_2(3m+2)q^m = 3(8+t)(1728+288t+11t^2),$$

where

$$g_1 = \frac{1}{q^3} \frac{(q;q)_{\infty}^{19} (q^2;q^2)_{\infty} (q^3;q^3)_{\infty}^6}{(q^6;q^6)_{\infty}^{21}}$$

and

$$t = \frac{1}{q} \frac{(q;q)_{\infty}^{5} (q^{3};q^{3})_{\infty}}{(q^{2};q^{2})_{\infty} (q^{6};q^{6})_{\infty}^{5}}.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

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Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

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New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Our proof of this result is very different.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

ntroductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 5) For all $n \ge 0$, $d_2(3n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$.

Proof:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_2(n)q^n = \frac{f_2^2}{f_1^7}$$

$$= \frac{f_2^2}{f_1} \frac{1}{f_1^6}$$

$$\equiv \frac{1}{f_3^2} \left(\sum_{m \ge 0} q^{m(m+1)/2} \right) \pmod{3}$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual"

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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for some m and n.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual"

lew Infinite amilies of Congruences

Now we simply need to determine whether

$$3n + 2 = m(m+1)/2$$

for some m and n.

Completing the square means this is equivalent to determining whether

$$8(3n+2) + 1 = (2m+1)^2$$

or

$$2 \equiv (2m+1)^2 \pmod{3}.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Completing the square means this is equivalent to determining whether

$$8(3n+2) + 1 = (2m+1)^2$$

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This congruence never holds because 2 is a quadratic nonresidue modulo 3.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual"

Tamilies of Congruences

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 10) For all $n \ge 0$, $d_3(2n+1) \equiv 0 \pmod 2$.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 10) For all $n \ge 0$, $d_3(2n+1) \equiv 0 \pmod 2$.

Proof: Note that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_3(n)q^n = \frac{f_2^3}{f_1^{10}}$$

$$\equiv \frac{f_2^3}{f_2^5} \pmod{2}$$

$$\equiv \frac{1}{f_2^2} \pmod{2}.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

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$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_3(n)q^n = \frac{f_2^3}{f_1^{10}}$$

$$\equiv \frac{f_2^3}{f_2^5} \pmod{2}$$

$$\equiv \frac{1}{f_2^2} \pmod{2}.$$

Since $\frac{1}{f_2^2}$ is an even function of q, the result follows.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual"

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 12) For all $n \ge 0$, $d_3(4n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod 2$.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 12) For all $n \ge 0$, $d_3(4n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod 2$.

Proof: Thanks to the proof of the previous result, we know

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_3(n)q^n \equiv \frac{1}{f_2^2} \pmod{2}$$
$$\equiv \frac{1}{f_4} \pmod{2}$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

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New "Individual"

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_3(n)q^n \equiv \frac{1}{f_2^2} \pmod{2}$$
$$\equiv \frac{1}{f_4} \pmod{2}$$

Since $\frac{1}{f_4}$ is a function of q^4 , the result follows.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

ntroductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

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New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 13) For all $n \ge 0$, $d_3(4n+3) \equiv 0 \pmod 4$.

Proof: We have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_3(n)q^n = \frac{f_2^3}{f_1^{10}} = \frac{f_2^4}{f_1^{12}} \frac{f_1^2}{f_2}$$

$$\equiv \frac{f_2^4}{f_2^6} \frac{f_1^2}{f_2} \pmod{4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{f_2^2} \left(\frac{f_8^5}{f_4^2 f_{16}^2} - 2q \frac{f_{16}^2}{f_8} \right).$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Extracting the odd parts, dividing by q and replacing q^2 by q, we are left with

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_3(2n+1)q^n \equiv 2\frac{f_8^2}{f_1^2 f_4} \equiv 2f_2^5 \pmod{4}.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

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New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_3(2n+1)q^n \equiv 2\frac{f_8^2}{f_1^2 f_4} \equiv 2f_2^5 \pmod{4}.$$

Since f_2 is a function of q^2 the result follows.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

ntroductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 14) For all $n \ge 0$, $d_3(5n+1) \equiv 0 \pmod 5$.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 14) For all $n \ge 0$, $d_3(5n+1) \equiv 0 \pmod 5$.

Proof: We have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_3(n)q^n = \frac{f_3^2}{f_1^{10}}$$

$$\equiv \frac{f_2^3}{f_5^2} \pmod{5}$$

$$= \frac{1}{f_5^2} \left(\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (-1)^m (2m+1) q^{m(m+1)} \right).$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

We now need to ask whether 5n+1 can be represented as m(m+1), and this is equivalent to asking whether 4(5n+1)+1 or 20n+5 can be represented as $(2m+1)^2$.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

We now need to ask whether 5n+1 can be represented as m(m+1), and this is equivalent to asking whether 4(5n+1)+1 or 20n+5 can be represented as $(2m+1)^2$.

If this is the case, then we know

$$(2m+1)^2 = 20n + 5 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

which implies that $2m + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual"

lew Infinite amilies of Congruences

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If this is the case, then we know

$$(2m+1)^2 = 20n + 5 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

which implies that $2m + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$.

Thanks to the presence of the coefficient of 2m + 1 in front of the term $q^{m(m+1)}$ in the series above, and the fact that this 2m + 1 must be divisible by 5, we know that our result follows.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 15) For all $n \ge 0$,

$$d_3(5n+3) \equiv 0 \pmod{5},$$

 $d_3(5n+4) \equiv 0 \pmod{5}.$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

lew Infinite amilies of Congruences

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 15) For all $n \ge 0$,

$$d_3(5n+3) \equiv 0 \pmod{5},$$

 $d_3(5n+4) \equiv 0 \pmod{5}.$

Proof: In the proof of the previous result, we noted that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_3(n)q^n$$

$$\equiv \frac{1}{f_5^2} \left(\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (-1)^m (2m+1)q^{m(m+1)} \right) \pmod{5}.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

We now need to ask whether 5n+3 can be represented as m(m+1), and this is equivalent to asking whether 4(5n+3)+1 or 20n+13 can be represented as $(2m+1)^2$.

This would mean that $(2m+1)^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

lew Infinite amilies of Congruences

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This would mean that $(2m+1)^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$.

However, since 3 is a quadratic nonresidue modulo 5, we know that this cannot be the case.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

lew Infinite amilies of Congruences

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This would mean that $(2m+1)^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$.

However, since 3 is a quadratic nonresidue modulo 5, we know that this cannot be the case.

Similarly, note that

$$4(5n+4) + 1 = 20n + 17 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

and 2 is the other quadratic nonresidue modulo 5.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual"

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

In the spirit of the various congruences that we mentioned in the previous section, we now provide a number of new "individual" congruences which can be proven via elementary methods. Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

> f Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

> lew Infinite amilies of ongruences

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We begin with a theorem connecting $d_p(n)$ and p(n), for each prime p, where p(n) denotes the number of unrestricted partitions of n.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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We begin with a theorem connecting $d_p(n)$ and p(n), for each prime p, where p(n) denotes the number of unrestricted partitions of n.

Theorem: Let p be a prime and let a and b be integers such that $a \nmid b$ and $p(an+b) \equiv 0 \pmod p$, for all $n \geq 0$. Then, for all $n \geq 0$,

$$d_p(an+b) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Proof: The generating function for $d_p(n)$ satisfies

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_p(n) q^n = \frac{f_2^p}{f_1^{3p+1}} \equiv \frac{f_{2p}}{f_p^3} \frac{1}{f_1} \pmod{p}$$
$$= \frac{f_{2p}}{f_p^3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n) q^n.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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$$= \frac{f_{2p}}{f_p^3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n)q^n.$$

Since $\frac{f_{2p}}{f_p^3}$ is a function of q^p and $p(an+b) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$,

the result follows.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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$$= \frac{f_{2p}}{f_p^3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n)q^n.$$

Since $\frac{f_{2p}}{f_p^3}$ is a function of q^p and $p(an+b) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, the result follows.

Corollary: For all $n \geq 0$,

$$d_5(5n+4) \equiv 0 \pmod{5},$$

 $d_7(7n+5) \equiv 0 \pmod{7},$
 $d_{11}(11n+6) \equiv 0 \pmod{11}.$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

> New Infinite Families of Congruences

Due to time constraints, I'll not show the proofs of the following; please know that the proof techniques follow the same patterns as our other proofs.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

Vew Infinite Families of Congruences

Due to time constraints, I'll not show the proofs of the following; please know that the proof techniques follow the same patterns as our other proofs.

Theorem: For all $n \geq 0$,

$$d_7(4n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod{4},$$

 $d_7(8n+5) \equiv 0 \pmod{4},$
 $d_7(16n+9) \equiv 0 \pmod{4},$
 $d_7(4n+3) \equiv 0 \pmod{8},$
 $d_7(8n+4) \equiv 0 \pmod{8}.$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: Let $p\geq 5$ be a prime and let $r,\ 1\leq r\leq p-1$, be such that 3r+1 is a quadratic nonresidue modulo p. Then, for all $n\geq 0$,

$$d_7(2pn+2r+1) \equiv 0 \pmod{4}.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

lew Infinite amilies of Congruences

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$$d_7(2pn + 2r + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{4}.$$

Theorem: For all $n \geq 0$,

$$d_8(3n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod{9},$$

 $d_8(9n+3) \equiv 0 \pmod{9}.$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

clementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

The goal of this section is to demonstrate elementary proofs of infinitely many congruences satisfied by $d_k(n)$ for infinitely many values of k.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory
Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

The goal of this section is to demonstrate elementary proofs of infinitely many congruences satisfied by $d_k(n)$ for infinitely many values of k.

Said differently (and, potentially, more clearly), we want to demonstrate families of congruences for "fixed" moduli where the subscripts k range over an infinite set (and the arithmetic progressions in question are "fixed" or follow a nice pattern).

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

The goal of this section is to demonstrate elementary proofs of infinitely many congruences satisfied by $d_k(n)$ for infinitely many values of k.

Said differently (and, potentially, more clearly), we want to demonstrate families of congruences for "fixed" moduli where the subscripts k range over an infinite set (and the arithmetic progressions in question are "fixed" or follow a nice pattern).

We begin with a somewhat surprising result, primarily because the moduli in question range across **all** primes $p \geq 5$.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: Let $p\geq 5$ be a prime and let $r,\ 1\leq r\leq p-1$, be such that 24r+1 is a quadratic nonresidue modulo p. Then, for all $n\geq 0$,

$$d_{p-2}(pn+r) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several

Congruences from

Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Proof: The generating function for $d_{p-2}(n)$ satisfies

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_{p-2}(n)q^n = \frac{f_2^{p-2}}{f_1^{3p-5}} \equiv \frac{f_1^5}{f_2^2} \frac{f_{2p}}{f_p^3} \pmod{p}.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Thanks to the lemma above from Ramanujan,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_{p-2}(n)q^n \equiv \frac{f_{2p}}{f_p^3} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} (6m+1)q^{m(3m+1)/2} \pmod{p}.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

We want to know whether m(3m+1)/2=pn+r, for some m and n.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

We want to know whether m(3m+1)/2=pn+r, for some m and n.

This is equivalent to asking whether

$$24pn + 24r + 1 = (6m + 1)^2,$$

which implies $24r + 1 \equiv (6m + 1)^2 \pmod{p}$.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several

Congruences from

Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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However 24r + 1 is a quadratic nonresidue modulo p.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several

Congruences from

Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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which implies $24r + 1 \equiv (6m + 1)^2 \pmod{p}$.

However 24r + 1 is a quadratic nonresidue modulo p.

Therefore $d_{p-2}(pn+r) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

The theorem above is a fairly standard and classic result, providing exactly (p-1)/2 congruences for each prime p.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory
Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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We explain this additional "special" congruence for each prime $p \geq 5$ here.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Interestingly enough, numerical evidence indicates that there are actually (p-1)/2+1 or (p+1)/2 such congruences for each prime p!

We explain this additional "special" congruence for each prime $p \geq 5$ here.

Theorem: Let $p \geq 5$ be a prime and let t, $1 \leq t \leq p-1$, be the unique value such that $24t+1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then, for all $n \geq 0$,

$$d_{p-2}(pn+t) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Proof: Thanks to our work above, we need to ask whether pn+t=m(3m+1)/2 for some integers m and n.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory
Thoughts

Elementary Proots of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Proof: Thanks to our work above, we need to ask whether pn+t=m(3m+1)/2 for some integers m and n.

Completing the square and considering the result modulo p yields $(6m+1)^2 \equiv 24t+1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Completing the square and considering the result modulo p yields $(6m+1)^2 \equiv 24t+1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

So p divides $(6m+1)^2$, which implies that p divides 6m+1.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Completing the square and considering the result modulo p yields $(6m+1)^2 \equiv 24t+1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

So p divides $(6m+1)^2$, which implies that p divides 6m+1.

Since the coefficient of $q^{m(3m+1)/2}$ in the series that appears in Ramanujan's lemma is exactly 6m+1, it follows that the coefficient in question is congruent to 0 modulo p.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Since the coefficient of $q^{m(3m+1)/2}$ in the series that appears in Ramanujan's lemma is exactly 6m+1, it follows that the coefficient in question is congruent to 0 modulo p.

We now consider a second infinite family of congruences satisfied by these functions.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: Let $p\geq 5$ be a prime and let r, $1\leq r\leq p-1$, be a quadratic nonresidue modulo p. Then, for all $n\geq 0$,

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Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Proof: For prime $p \geq 5$,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_{p-1}(n)q^n = \frac{f_2^{p-1}}{f_1^{3p-2}} = \frac{f_2^p}{f_1^{3p}} \frac{f_1^2}{f_2}$$

$$\equiv \frac{f_{2p}}{f_p^3} \frac{f_1^2}{f_2} \pmod{p}$$

$$= \frac{f_{2p}}{f_p^3} \left(\sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} q^{j^2}\right).$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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$$d_{p-1}(pn+r) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Proof: For prime $p \geq 5$,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_{p-1}(n)q^n = \frac{f_2^{p-1}}{f_1^{3p-2}} = \frac{f_2^p}{f_1^{3p}} \frac{f_1^2}{f_2}$$

$$\equiv \frac{f_{2p}}{f_p^3} \frac{f_1^2}{f_2} \pmod{p}$$

$$= \frac{f_{2p}}{f_p^3} \left(\sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} q^{j^2}\right).$$

The result immediately follows by recognizing that $\frac{f_2p}{f_p^3}$ is a function of q^p and that r has been defined to be a quadratic nonresidue modulo p.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory
Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

We next provide an overarching result which allows us to naturally generalize all of the results we've shared above.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proots of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

We next provide an overarching result which allows us to naturally generalize all of the results we've shared above.

The result is reminiscent of a result of Garvan and Sellers (2014) involving generalized Frobenius partitions with an arbitrarily large number of colors k.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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The result is reminiscent of a result of Garvan and Sellers (2014) involving generalized Frobenius partitions with an arbitrarily large number of colors k.

Theorem: Let p be a prime, $k \ge 1$ and $j \ge 0$. Moreover, assume $p \mid a$ and $b \not\equiv 0 \pmod{a}$. If, for all $n \ge 0$,

$$d_k(an+b) \equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

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Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

We next provide an overarching result which allows us to naturally generalize all of the results we've shared above.

The result is reminiscent of a result of Garvan and Sellers (2014) involving generalized Frobenius partitions with an arbitrarily large number of colors k.

Theorem: Let p be a prime, $k \ge 1$ and $j \ge 0$. Moreover, assume $p \mid a$ and $b \not\equiv 0 \pmod{a}$. If, for all $n \ge 0$,

$$d_k(an+b) \equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

then for all $n \geq 0$,

$$d_{pj+k}(an+b) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

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Introductor Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Proof: From the generating function, we know

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_{pj+k}(n)q^n = \frac{f_2^{pj+k}}{f_1^{3pj+3k+1}} = \frac{f_2^k}{f_1^{3k+1}} \frac{f_2^{pj}}{f_1^{3pj}}$$
$$\equiv \frac{f_{2p}^j}{f_p^{3j}} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} d_k(m)q^m \pmod{p}.$$

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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$$\equiv \frac{f_{2p}^j}{f_p^{3j}} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} d_k(m)q^m \pmod{p}.$$

And $\frac{f_{2p}^3}{f_p^{3j}}$ is a function of q^p .

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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$$\equiv \frac{f_2^j}{f_p^{3j}} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} d_k(m)q^m \pmod{p}.$$

And $\frac{f_{2p}^J}{f_p^{3j}}$ is a function of q^p .

Since
$$d_k(an + b) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$
, it follows that

$$d_{pj+k}(an+b) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$
.

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

The theorem above provides a tool for writing down infinitely many new congruences from old congruences with ease.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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We exhibit such a list of new congruences below, using a shorthand notation to consolidate the statement of the results.

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Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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We exhibit such a list of new congruences below, using a shorthand notation to consolidate the statement of the results.

In what follows, the notation

$$An+B_1,B_2,\ldots,B_t$$

means we are considering the set of arithmetic progressions

$$An + B_1, An + B_2, \ldots, An + B_t.$$

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Introductor Thoughts

Elementary Proots of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Corollary: For all $j \geq 0$ and $n \geq 0$,

$$d_{2j+1}(2n+1) \equiv 0 \pmod{2},$$

$$d_{2j+3}(4n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod{2},$$

$$d_{3j+2}(3n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod{3},$$

$$d_{5j+3}(5n+1,3,4) \equiv 0 \pmod{5},$$

$$d_{5j+4}(5n+2,3) \equiv 0 \pmod{5},$$

$$d_{7j+5}(7n+2,3,4,6) \equiv 0 \pmod{7},$$

$$d_{7j+6}(7n+3,5,6) \equiv 0 \pmod{7},$$

$$d_{11j+9}(11n+3,5,6,8,9,10) \equiv 0 \pmod{11},$$

$$d_{11j+10}(11n+2,6,7,8,10) \equiv 0 \pmod{11},$$

$$d_{13j+11}(13n+3,4,6,7,8,10,11) \equiv 0 \pmod{13},$$

$$d_{13j+12}(13n+2,5,6,7,8,11) \equiv 0 \pmod{13}.$$

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Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Corollary: For all $j \geq 0$ and $n \geq 0$,

```
d_{2j+1}(2n+1) \equiv 0
                                             \pmod{2},
                     d_{2i+3}(4n+2) \equiv 0
                                             \pmod{2},
                     d_{3i+2}(3n+2) \equiv 0
                                             \pmod{3},
                d_{5i+3}(5n+1,3,4) \equiv 0
                                             \pmod{5},
                  d_{5i+4}(5n+2,3) \equiv 0
                                            \pmod{5},
             d_{7i+5}(7n+2,3,4,6) \equiv 0
                                            \pmod{7}.
                d_{7i+6}(7n+3,5,6) \equiv 0
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Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

The corollary above does not provide an exhaustive list of congruences satisfied by these functions.

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Introductory
Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

The corollary above does not provide an exhaustive list of congruences satisfied by these functions.

Our goal in writing these here is to provide a representative set of the kinds of congruences that arise within this family of partition functions. Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Introductor Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Admittedly, there are many other (potential) arithmetic properties to consider.

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Introductory
Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Admittedly, there are many other (potential) arithmetic properties to consider.

For example, computational evidence hints at the possibility of infinite families of congruences modulo arbitrarily high powers of a prime (in the spirit of the work completed by Smoot for d_2 modulo powers of 3).

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Introductor Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from

New "Individual"

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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 $ightharpoonup d_{11}(n)$ modulo powers of 3

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Introductor Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual"

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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For example, computational evidence hints at the possibility of infinite families of congruences modulo arbitrarily high powers of a prime (in the spirit of the work completed by Smoot for d_2 modulo powers of 3).

- $ightharpoonup d_{11}(n)$ modulo powers of 3
- ▶ $d_7(n)$ modulo powers of 2
 - Remember all of those congruences I highlighted above for d_7 modulo small powers of 2.

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Introductor Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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- ▶ $d_7(n)$ modulo powers of 2
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- $ightharpoonup d_{15}(n)$ modulo powers of 2

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Introductor Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

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Indeed, for $k=2^j-1$ for some j, it is clear that the generating function for $d_k(n)$ will have a structure that allows for a number of congruences to hold for small powers of 2.

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Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Indeed, for $k=2^j-1$ for some j, it is clear that the generating function for $d_k(n)$ will have a structure that allows for a number of congruences to hold for small powers of 2.

One must wonder whether an **infinite** family of congruences, modulo powers of 2, like the family in the work of Nicolas Smoot, holds for these special values of k.

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual"

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Let me also return to one of the first congruences I mentioned in this talk:

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Acknowledgements

Introductor Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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One must wonder whether an **infinite** family of congruences, modulo powers of 2, like the family in the work of Nicolas Smoot, holds for these special values of k.

Let me also return to one of the first congruences I mentioned in this talk:

Theorem: (Andrews and Paule, Corollary 5) For all $n \ge 0$, $d_2(3n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod 3$.

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Andrews and Paule's proof of this theorem is that

$$g_1 \cdot \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} d_2(3m+2)q^m = 3(8+t)(1728+288t+11t^2),$$

where

$$g_1 = \frac{1}{q^3} \frac{(q;q)_{\infty}^{19} (q^2;q^2)_{\infty} (q^3;q^3)_{\infty}^6}{(q^6;q^6)_{\infty}^{21}}$$

and

$$t = \frac{1}{q} \frac{(q;q)_{\infty}^{5} (q^{3};q^{3})_{\infty}}{(q^{2};q^{2})_{\infty} (q^{6};q^{6})_{\infty}^{5}}.$$

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

James Sellers University of Minnesota Duluth

Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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A few minutes ago, I noted that this result is the first case of a much larger family of congruences, namely,

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ntroductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: (da Silva and JAS) For all $j \ge 0$ and $n \ge 0$, $d_{3j+2}(3n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$.

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paul

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Theorem: (da Silva and JAS) For all $j \ge 0$ and $n \ge 0$, $d_{3j+2}(3n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$.

This makes me wonder: What would the Andrews and Paule proof of this result for $d_5(3n+2)$ or $d_8(3n+2)$ or, for that matter, $d_{3j+2}(3n+2)$ look like?

Congruences for k-Elongated Partition Diamonds

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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We know that the 3 (or a multiple thereof) would still need to be present on the right-hand side.

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Would g_1 change?

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Would g_1 change?

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

of Several
Congruences from
Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Would there be a pattern to the proofs, so that one unified proof could be written down to prove the result for all $j\geq 0$ simultaneously?

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

Would there be a pattern to the proofs, so that one unified proof could be written down to prove the result for all $j\geq 0$ simultaneously?

Lastly, what can be said about similar proofs (based on modular forms) for all of the other families of congruences I have demonstrated today?

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proots of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

New Infinite Families of Congruences

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Lastly, what can be said about similar proofs (based on modular forms) for all of the other families of congruences I have demonstrated today?

And with that I will close. Thanks very much for attending today!

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from Andrews and Paule

New "Individual" Congruences

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Acknowledgements

Introductory Thoughts

Elementary Proofs of Several Congruences from

New "Individual" Congruences

> New Infinite Families of Congruences