# RECURRENCE RELATIONS FOR POLYNOMIALS OBTAINED BY ARITHMETIC FUNCTIONS 

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#### Abstract

Families of polynomials associated to arithmetic functions $g(n)$ are studied. The case $g(n)=\sigma(n)$, the divisor sum, dictates the non-vanishing of the Fourier coefficients of powers of the Dedekind eta function. The polynomials $P_{n}^{g}(X)$ are defined by $n$-term recurrence relations. For the case that $g(x)$ is a polynomial of degree $d$, we prove that at most a $d+2$ term recurrence relation is needed. For the special case $g(x)=x$ we obtain explicit formulas and results.


## 1. Introduction

Let $q=e^{2 \pi i \tau}$ and $\tau$ be in the upper complex half-plane. We consider

$$
\exp \left(X \sum_{n \geq 1} g(n) \frac{q^{n}}{n}\right)=\sum_{n \geq 0} P_{n}^{g}(X) q^{n}
$$

where $g: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is an arithmetic function normalized such that $g(1)=1$. This implies a recursive definition of the polynomials $P_{n}^{g}(X)$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}^{g}(X)=\frac{X}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} g(k) P_{n-k}^{g}(X) \quad \text { for all } \quad n \geq 1 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P_{0}^{g}(X):=1$.
Let for the moment $g(n)=\sigma(n)=\sum_{t \mid n} t$ be the sum of all divisors of $n$. Then we obtain the powers of the Euler product

$$
\prod_{n \geq 1}\left(1-q^{n}\right)^{-X}=\exp \left(X \sum_{n \geq 1} \sigma(n) \frac{q^{n}}{n}\right)
$$

This is essentially an identity involving powers of the Dedekind eta function $\eta(\tau)=q^{1 / 24} \prod_{n \geq 1}\left(1-q^{n}\right)$ (see [On03] for more details). Hence, the roots of $P_{n}^{\sigma}(X)$ dictate the vanishing properties of the $n$-th Fourier coefficients of powers of the Dedekind eta function (see [HNR17, HLN18, HNR18] for more details and the connection to the Lehmer conjecture [Le47]).

[^0]Explicit formulas for $P_{n}^{g}(X)$ in the case $g(n)=1$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ are given by

$$
\exp \left(X \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{q^{n}}{n}\right)=(1-q)^{-X}=\sum_{n \geq 0}\binom{-X}{n}(-q)^{n}
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}^{g}(X)=\frac{1}{n!} X(X+1) \cdots(X+n-1)=\frac{1}{n!} \sum_{k=1}^{n} S_{n, k} X^{k} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $n \geq 1$ and $P_{0}^{g}(X)=1$. Here, the coefficients $S_{n, k}$ are the Stirling numbers of the first kind.

The aim of this paper is to study the polynomials $P_{n}^{g}(X)$ for some interesting functions $g(n)$ particularly for $g(n)=n$. In this case the coefficients of $X^{k}$ of the polynomials $n!P_{n}^{g}(X)$ are the so-called Lah numbers $\frac{n!}{k!}\binom{n-1}{k-1}$ ([Ai07]) and the polynomials are related to the generalized Laguerre polynomials [Do16]

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{n}^{(\alpha)}(X)=\sum_{k=0}^{n}\binom{n+\alpha}{n-k} \frac{(-X)^{k}}{k!} \quad(\alpha>-1) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the above case, we show that the sequence of the polynomials $P_{n}^{g}(X)$ satisfies a three term recurrence relation. More generally, we show that if $g(x)$ is a polynomial of degree $d$, then $\left(P_{n}^{g}(X)\right)_{n \geq 0}$ satisfies a recurrence relation of order at most $d+2$. From the properties of orthogonal polynomials [Do16], we can also derive that in the case $g(x)=x$ the roots are all simple and real. Putting $\widetilde{P}_{n}^{g}(X)=X^{-1} P_{n}^{g}(X)$, we show that $\widetilde{P}_{n}^{g}(X)$ is irreducible in this case.
2. Recurrence relation for the case when $g(x)$ is a polynomial

In this section, we prove the following.
Theorem 1. Let $g(x)$ be a polynomial of degree $d$. For $0 \leq m, j \leq d$ define

$$
\begin{aligned}
b_{m} & =\sum_{\mu=0}^{m}(-1)^{\mu}\binom{m}{\mu} g(-\mu) \\
c_{j} & =(-1)^{j}\left(b_{0}\binom{d}{j}+\sum_{\iota=1}^{d-j} \iota b_{\iota}\binom{d-\iota}{j}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then the polynomials $P_{n}^{g}(X)$ satisfy the following $d+2$ term recurrence relations with $P_{0}^{g}(X)=1$ and

$$
P_{n+1}^{g}(X)=\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{j=0}^{\min \{n, d\}}\left(c_{j} X+(-1)^{j}\binom{d+1}{j+1}(n-j)\right) P_{n-j}^{g}(X)
$$

For the proof, we want to express our polynomial $g(x)$ in terms of the basis

$$
\{1, x, x(x+1), x(x+1)(x+2) / 2!, \ldots, x(x+1)(x+2) \cdots(x+d) / d!, \ldots\} .
$$

Hence, we first show how to determine the coefficients in terms of this basis. These are exactly the $b_{m}$ as stated in the theorem.

Lemma 1. Let $Q(x)=\sum_{m=0}^{d} b_{m} \frac{x(x+1) \cdots(x+m-1)}{m!}$. Then the coefficients $b_{m}$ for $0 \leq m \leq d$ can be recovered as $b_{m}=\sum_{\mu=0}^{m}(-1)^{\mu}\binom{m}{\mu} Q(-\mu)$.

We give a proof of this lemma at the end of this section.

Proof of Theorem 1. We have,

$$
\frac{g(n)}{n}=\frac{b_{0}}{n}+\sum_{m=1}^{d} b_{m} \frac{(n+1) \cdots(n+m-1)}{(m-1)!} .
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
X \sum_{n \geq 1} g(n) \frac{q^{n}}{n} & =X\left(\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{b_{0}}{n}+\sum_{m=1}^{d} b_{m} \frac{(n+1) \cdots(n+m-1)}{(m-1)!}\right) q^{n} \\
& =X b_{0} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{q^{n}}{n}+X \sum_{m=1}^{d} b_{m} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{(n+1) \cdots(n+m-1)}{(m-1)!} q^{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

for $|q|<1$. The first inner sum is $-\log (1-q)$. The generic inner sum for $m \geq 1$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{(n+1) \cdots(n+m-1)}{(m-1)!} q^{n} & =\frac{1}{(m-1)!}\left(\frac{\partial^{m-1}}{\partial q^{m-1}}\left(\frac{1}{1-q}\right)\right)-1 \\
& =\frac{1}{(1-q)^{m}}-1
\end{aligned}
$$

Our exponential generating function is therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
F(q, X) & :=\exp \left(X \sum_{n \geq 1} g(n) \frac{q^{n}}{n}\right) \\
& =\exp \left(-b_{0} X \log (1-q)+X \sum_{m=1}^{d} b_{m}\left(\frac{1}{(1-q)^{m}}-1\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial}{\partial q} F(q, X) \\
= & F(q, X) \frac{\partial}{\partial q}\left(-b_{0} X \log (1-q)+X \sum_{m=1}^{d} b_{m}\left(\frac{1}{(1-q)^{m}}-1\right)\right) \\
= & X F(q, X)\left(\frac{b_{0}}{1-q}+\sum_{m=1}^{d} \frac{m b_{m}}{(1-q)^{m+1}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
(1-q)^{d+1} \frac{\partial}{\partial q} F(q, X)=X F(q, X)\left(b_{0}(1-q)^{d}+\sum_{m=1}^{d} m b_{m}(1-q)^{d-m}\right)
$$

or

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\sum_{j=0}^{d+1}(-1)^{j}\binom{d+1}{j} q^{j}\right) \times\left(\sum_{n \geq 1} n P_{n}^{g}(X) q^{n-1}\right) \\
= & X\left(\sum_{n \geq 0} P_{n}^{g}(X) q^{n}\right)\left(b_{0}(1-q)^{d}+\sum_{m=1}^{d} m b_{m}(1-q)^{d-m}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now

$$
b_{0}(1-q)^{d}+\sum_{m=1}^{d} m b_{m}(1-q)^{d-m}=\sum_{j=0}^{d} c_{j} q^{j}
$$

where

$$
c_{j}=(-1)^{j} b_{0}\binom{d}{j}+\sum_{m=1}^{d-j} m b_{m}(-1)^{j}\binom{d-m}{j}
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\sum_{j=0}^{d+1}(-1)^{j}\binom{d+1}{j} q^{j}\right) \times\left(\sum_{n \geq 1} n P_{n}^{g}(X) q^{n-1}\right) \\
= & X\left(\sum_{n \geq 0} P_{n}^{g}(X) q^{n}\right)\left(\sum_{j=0}^{d} c_{j} q^{j}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Expanding and identifying the coefficients of $q^{n}$ on left and right-hand sides above we get

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{\min \{d, n\}+1}(-1)^{j}\binom{d+1}{j}(n+1-j) P_{n+1-j}^{g}(X)=X \sum_{j=0}^{\min \{d, n\}} c_{j} P_{n-j}^{g}(X)
$$

Hence, we obtain

$$
P_{n+1}^{g}(X)=\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{j=0}^{\min \{n, d\}}\left(c_{j} X+(-1)^{j}\binom{d+1}{j+1}(n-j)\right) P_{n-j}^{g}(X)
$$

Example 1. We give an explicit two term recurrence relation for $\left(P_{n}^{g}(X)\right)_{n \geq 0}$ when $g(n)=1$.

For $g(n)=1$ we have in the preceding notation $d=0, b_{0}=1$, and $c_{0}=1$. This leads to $P_{0}^{g}(X)=1$ and

$$
P_{n+1}^{g}(X)=\frac{1}{n+1}(X+n) P_{n}^{g}(X)
$$

for all $n \geq 0$, which yields exactly the polynomials (2) from the Introduction.
Example 2. We give an explicit three term recurrence relation for $\left(P_{n}^{g}(X)\right)_{n \geq 0}$ when $g(n)=n$.

For $g(n)=n$ we have in the preceding notation $d=1, b_{0}=0, b_{1}=1$, $c_{0}=1$, and $c_{1}=0$. This leads to $P_{0}^{g}(X)=1, P_{1}^{g}(X)=X P_{0}^{g}(X)$, and

$$
P_{n+1}^{g}(X)=\frac{1}{n+1}\left((2 n+X) P_{n}^{g}(X)-(n-1) P_{n-1}^{g}(X)\right)
$$

for all $n \geq 1$.
Proof of Lemma 1. We obtain for $x=-N$ and $0 \leq N \leq d$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{m=0}^{d} \sum_{\mu=0}^{m}(-1)^{\mu}\binom{m}{\mu} Q(-\mu) \frac{-N(-N+1) \cdots(-N+m-1)}{m!} \\
= & \sum_{m=0}^{N} \sum_{\mu=0}^{m}(-1)^{\mu}\binom{m}{\mu} Q(-\mu)(-1)^{m}\binom{N}{m} \\
= & \sum_{\mu=0}^{N} \sum_{m=\mu}^{N}(-1)^{m+\mu} \frac{N!}{\mu!(m-\mu)!(N-m)!} Q(-\mu) \\
= & \sum_{\mu=0}^{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-\mu}(-1)^{m} \frac{N!}{\mu!m!(N-m-\mu)} Q(-\mu) \\
= & \sum_{\mu=0}^{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-\mu}(-1)^{m}\binom{N-\mu}{m}\binom{N}{\mu} Q(-\mu)=\sum_{\mu=0}^{N} \delta_{N, \mu}\binom{N}{\mu} Q(-\mu) \\
= & Q(-N) .
\end{aligned}
$$

3. IRREDUCIBILITY OF $\widetilde{P}_{n}^{g}(X)$ WHEN $g(n)=n$

In this case $P_{n}(X):=P_{n}^{g}(X)$ has the following closed form (compare with [HN18]):

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(X)=\frac{1}{n!} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{n!}{k!}\binom{n-1}{k-1} X^{k}=X \sum_{k=0}^{n-1}\binom{n-1}{k} \frac{X^{k}}{(k+1)!}=X \widetilde{P}_{n}(X) . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The coefficients of the polynomial $n!P_{n}(X)$ are the so-called Lah numbers $\frac{n!}{k!}\binom{n-1}{k-1}$ (compare with e. g. [Ai07]).
Theorem 2. $\widetilde{P}_{n}(X)$ is irreducible for all $n \geq 1$.
Theorem 3. For $g(n)=n$ all the roots of the polynomials $P_{n}(X)=P_{n}^{g}(X)$ are simple and non-positive real numbers. Additionally the negative roots are interlacing from $n$ to $n+1$.

By interlacing we mean that if $s_{n, 1}<\ldots<s_{n, n-1}<s_{n, n}=0$ are the roots of $P_{n}(X)$ then $s_{n+1,1}<s_{n, 1}<s_{n+1,2}<s_{n, 2}<\ldots<s_{n+1, n-1}<$ $s_{n, n-1}<s_{n+1, n}<0$.

For the proofs of the preceding two theorems the important thing to notice is the following lemma.
Lemma 2. For $n \geq 1$

$$
P_{n}(X)=\frac{X}{n} L_{n-1}^{(1)}(-X)
$$

where $L_{n-1}^{(1)}(X)=\sum_{k=0}^{n-1}\binom{(n-1)+1}{(n-1)-k} \frac{(-X)^{k}}{k!}$ is the $n-1$ st generalized Laguerre polynomial with $\alpha=1$ (compare with (3) form the Introduction).
Proof. From the explicit formula (4) we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{n}(X) & =X \sum_{k=0}^{n-1}\binom{n-1}{k} \frac{X^{k}}{(k+1)!}=X \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \frac{X^{k}}{(k+1)!} \\
& =\frac{X}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{n!}{(k+1)!(n-1-k)!} \frac{X^{k}}{k!}=\frac{X}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1}\binom{n}{n-1-k} \frac{X^{k}}{k!} \\
& =\frac{X}{n} L_{n-1}^{(1)}(-X)
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 2 now follows from the irreducibility of $L_{n-1}^{(1)}(X)$ shown by Schur in [Sc31].

Theorem 3 follows from the respective properties of the family of orthogonal polynomials $L_{n-1}^{(1)}(X)$ (see e. g. [Do16]).
Remark 1. Other proofs of Theorem 3 are also possible: We could show directly that the polynomials $\widetilde{P}_{n}(X)$ form a system of orthogonal polynomials with respect to the measure on $(-\infty, 0]$ with Lebesgue density $x \mapsto(-x) e^{x}$.

Or we could use the recurrence relation from Example 2 from Section 2 and apply [WY05, Theorem 1].

## 4. Partial Results when $g(n)=n^{2}$

In this case $P_{n}(X):=P_{n}^{g}(X)$ has the following closed form (compare [HN18]):

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(X)=X \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{(k+1)!}\binom{n+k}{2 k+1} X^{k}=X \widetilde{P}_{n}(X) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widetilde{P}_{n}(X)=\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} A_{n, k} \frac{X^{k}}{(k+1)!}, \quad A_{n, k} \in \mathbb{Z} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

In our case $A_{n, k}=\binom{n+k}{2 k+1}$.
Remark 2. There is a theorem of Schur [Sc29, Satz IV] and a generalization of Allen and Filaseta [AF03, Theorem 2] concerning the irreducibility of polynomials of the form (6). But both require $\left|A_{n, 0}\right|=1$ whereas in our case (5) we have $A_{n, 0}=n$. Schur used [Sc29, Satz IV] to prove the irreducibility of the generalized Laguerre polynomials $L_{n-1}^{(1)}(X)$ in [Sc31].
Proposition 1. If $n-1$ is prime then $\widetilde{P}_{n}(X)$ with $A_{n, k}=\binom{n+k}{2 k+1}, k=$ $0, \ldots, n-1$, as in (5) is irreducible.

Proof. If we multiply with $n$ ! the polynomial $n!\widetilde{P}_{n}(X)$ has the integer coefficients $\frac{n!}{(k+1)!} A_{n, k}$. Hence, $n-1 \left\lvert\, \frac{n!}{(k+1)!} A_{n, k}\right.$ for $k=0, \ldots, n-3$ and $n-1 \left\lvert\, \frac{n!}{(n-1)!} A_{n, n-2}=(2 n-2) n\right.$. If $n-1$ is prime then $(n-1)^{2}$ does not divide $n!n=\frac{n!}{1!} A_{n, 0}$. So, the criterion of Eisenstein yields in this case that $\widetilde{P}_{n}(X)$ is irreducible.
Remark 3. Note that $n-1$ prime is the only case where Eisenstein's criterion applies to the polynomials (5) since we need a prime $p$ that divides in particular $\frac{n!}{(n-1)!} A_{n, n-2}=2(n-1) n$. In case $p \mid n$, obviously $p^{2} \mid n!n=n!A_{n, 0}$. In case $p \mid n-1$ but $p \neq n-1$, then also $p^{2} \left\lvert\, n^{2}(n-1) \frac{(n-2)!}{p!} p!=n!A_{n, 0}\right.$.

We used a computer to check that the above polynomials are irreducible for all $n \leq 100$.

Proposition 2. The polynomials $P_{n}(X)$ satisfy a four term recurrence relation with
$P_{0}(X)=1, P_{1}(X)=X P_{0}(X), P_{2}(X)=\frac{1}{2}\left((X+3) P_{1}(X)+X P_{0}(X)\right)$,
and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_{n+1}(X)= \\
& \frac{1}{n+1}\left(3(X+n) P_{n}(X)+(X-3 n+3) P_{n-1}(X)+(n-2) P_{n-2}(X)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

for $n \geq 2$.
Proof. In the notation of Theorem 1 for $g(n)=n^{2}$ we have $d=2, b_{0}=0$, $b_{1}=-1, b_{2}=2, c_{0}=3, c_{1}=1$, and $c_{2}=0$. Using Theorem 1 this leads to the stated four term recurrence relation.

## 5. A NECESSARY CONDITION FOR A THREE TERM RECURRENCE RELATION FORMULA IN THE CASE OF ARBITRARY $g(n)$

We are going to prove a necessary condition that the $P_{n}^{g}(X)$ are a family of orthogonal polynomials and hence fulfill a three term recurrence relation of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
X P_{n}^{g}(X)=\alpha_{n} P_{n+1}^{g}(X)+\beta_{n} P_{n}^{g}(X)+\gamma_{n} P_{n-1}^{g}(X) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some $\alpha_{n}, \beta_{n}$, and $\gamma_{n}$. From the proof of the criterion the quite remarkable fact can be observed that it does not depend on $n$ in the sense that if the criterion is not fulfilled also (7) cannot be fulfilled for any $n \geq 2$.

Proposition 3. Let $g(n)$ be an arbitrary arithmetic function with $g(1)=1$. A necessary condition that the $P_{n}^{g}(X)$ are a family of orthogonal polynomials is $g(2)^{3}-2 g(2) g(3)+g(4)=0$.

Corollary 1. For $g(n)=n^{\ell}, \ell \neq 0,1$, the polynomials $P_{n}^{g}(X)$ do not satisfy a three term recurrence relation of the form (7) and hence they are not a system of orthogonal polynomials.

Remark 4. This allows us to complement the result of Proposition 2 for $g(n)=n^{2}$ since $2=\ell \neq 0,1$.

Of course we also could just have checked directly that $g(2)^{3}-2 g(2) g(3)+$ $g(4)=64-72+16=8 \neq 0$.

Proof of Corollary 1. For $g(x)=x^{\ell}, x>0$, we obtain $g^{\prime \prime}(x)=(\ell-1) \ell x^{\ell-2}$ for the second derivative which is positive for $\ell>1$ or $\ell<0$ and negative for $0<\ell<1$. This implies $g(x)$ is strictly concave up for $\ell>1$ or $\ell<0$ and strictly concave down for $0<\ell<1$. Hence $3^{\ell}<\left(2^{\ell}+4^{\ell}\right) / 2$ in case $\ell>1$ or $\ell<0$ and $3^{\ell}>\left(2^{\ell}+4^{\ell}\right) / 2$ in case $0<\ell<1$. However we only need that we do not have equality in these cases. Hence $g(2)^{3}-2 g(2) g(3)+g(4)=$ $2^{3 \ell}-2^{\ell+1} 3^{\ell}+4^{\ell}=2^{\ell}\left(4^{\ell}-2 \cdot 3^{\ell}+2^{\ell}\right) \neq 0$ for $\ell \neq 0,1$.

In the proof of Proposition 3 we need explicitly the four highest coefficients of $P_{n}^{g}(X)$. This will be done separately in the following.

Lemma 3. Let $g(n)$ be an arbitrary arithmetic function with $g(1)=1$. Let $P_{n}^{g}(X)=\sum_{k=0}^{n} A_{n, k} X^{k}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{n, n} & =\frac{1}{n!}, \quad n \geq 0 \\
A_{n, n-1} & =\frac{1}{n!} g(2)\binom{n}{2}, \quad n \geq 1
\end{aligned}
$$

$A_{n, n-2}=\frac{1}{n!}\left(3 g(2)^{2}\binom{n}{4}+2 g(3)\binom{n}{3}\right), \quad n \geq 2$,
$A_{n, n-3}=\frac{1}{n!}\left(15 g(2)^{3}\binom{n}{6}+20 g(2) g(3)\binom{n}{5}+6 g(4)\binom{n}{4}\right), \quad n \geq 3$.
where a binomial coefficient $\binom{n}{k}$ is assumed to be 0 in case $n<k$.
We give a proof at the end of this section and first turn to the proof of Proposition 3.

Proof of Proposition 3. We have

$$
(n+1)!P_{n+1}^{g}(X)-n!X P_{n}^{g}(X)=\sum_{k=1}^{n+1}\left((n+1)!A_{n+1, k}-n!A_{n, k-1}\right) X^{k}
$$

With the previous lemma for $k=n+1$ in particular, we get that

$$
(n+1)!A_{n+1, n+1}-n!A_{n, n}=0
$$

For $k=n, n-1, n-2$ we obtain
(8) $\quad(n+1)!A_{n+1, n}-n!A_{n, n-1}=g(2)\binom{n+1}{2}-g(2)\binom{n}{2}=g(2) n$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (n+1)!A_{n+1, n-1}-n!A_{n, n-2} \\
= & 3 g(2)^{2}\binom{n+1}{4}+2 g(3)\binom{n+1}{3}-3 g(2)^{2}\binom{n}{4}-2 g(3)\binom{n}{3} \\
= & 3 g(2)^{2}\binom{n}{3}+2 g(3)\binom{n}{2} \\
& (n+1)!A_{n+1, n-2}-n!A_{n, n-3} \\
= & 15 g(2)^{3}\binom{n+1}{6}+20 g(2) g(3)\binom{n+1}{5}+6 g(4)\binom{n+1}{4} \\
& -15 g(2)^{3}\binom{n}{6}-20 g(2) g(3)\binom{n}{5}-6 g(4)\binom{n}{4} \\
= & 15 g(2)^{3}\binom{n}{5}+20 g(2) g(3)\binom{n}{4}+6 g(4)\binom{n}{3} .
\end{aligned}
$$

From (8) we observe that the coefficient of $X^{n}$ of

$$
(n+1)!P_{n+1}^{g}(X)-n!X P_{n}^{g}(X)-n!g(2) n P_{n}^{g}(X)
$$

equals 0 . Since the degree of $P_{n}^{g}(X)$ is $n$ the coefficient of $X^{n+1}$ remains 0 .

For the coefficients of $X^{n-1}$ and $X^{n-2}$ we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (n+1)!A_{n+1, n-1}-n!A_{n, n-2}-n!g(2) n A_{n, n-1} \\
= & 3 g(2)^{2}\binom{n}{3}+2 g(3)\binom{n}{2}-g(2)^{2} n\binom{n}{2}=2\left(g(3)-g(2)^{2}\right)\binom{n}{2}, \\
& (n+1)!A_{n+1, n-2}-n!A_{n, n-3}-n!g(2) n A_{n, n-2} \\
= & 15 g(2)^{3}\binom{n}{5}+20 g(2) g(3)\binom{n}{4}+6 g(4)\binom{n}{3} \\
& -g(2) n\left(3 g(2)^{2}\binom{n}{4}+2 g(3)\binom{n}{3}\right) \\
= & g(2)^{3}\left(15\binom{n}{5}-3 n\binom{n}{4}\right)+g(2) g(3)\left(20\binom{n}{4}-2 n\binom{n}{3}\right) \\
& +6 g(4)\binom{n}{3} \\
= & -12 g(2)^{3}\binom{n}{4}+g(2) g(3)(3 n-15)\binom{n}{3}+6 g(4)\binom{n}{3} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Going back we observe that the coefficient of $X^{n-1}$ of

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (n+1)!P_{n+1}^{g}(X)-n!X P_{n}^{g}(X)-n!g(2) n P_{n}^{g}(X) \\
& -(n-1)!2\left(g(3)-g(2)^{2}\right)\binom{n}{2} P_{n-1}^{g}(X)
\end{aligned}
$$

equals 0 .
For the coefficient of $X^{n-2}$ we obtain now

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (n+1)!A_{n+1, n-2}-n!A_{n, n-3}-n!g(2) n A_{n, n-2} \\
& -(n-1)!2\left(g(3)-g(2)^{2}\right)\binom{n}{2} A_{n-1, n-2} \\
= & -12 g(2)^{3}\binom{n}{4}+g(2) g(3)(3 n-15)\binom{n}{3}+6 g(4)\binom{n}{3} \\
& -2\left(g(3)-g(2)^{2}\right)\binom{n}{2} g(2)\binom{n-1}{2} \\
= & g(2)^{3}\left(-12\binom{n}{4}+2\binom{n}{2}\binom{n-1}{2}\right) \\
& +g(2) g(3)\left((3 n-15)\binom{n}{3}-2\binom{n}{2}\binom{n-1}{2}\right)+6 g(4)\binom{n}{3} \\
= & 6\left(g(2)^{3}-2 g(2) g(3)+g(4)\right)\binom{n}{3} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This means the polynomial

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (n+1)!P_{n+1}^{g}(X)-n!X P_{n}^{g}(X)-n!g(2) n P_{n}^{g}(X) \\
& -(n-1)!2\left(g(3)-g(2)^{2}\right)\binom{n}{2} P_{n-1}^{g}(X)
\end{aligned}
$$

can only be 0 if $g(2)^{3}-2 g(2) g(3)+g(4)=0$.

Example 3. For $g(n)=\sigma(n)$, we obtain $27-24+7=10 \neq 0$.

Proof of Lemma 3. From the recursive definition (1) we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{m=0}^{n} A_{n, m} X^{m} & =P_{n}^{g}(X)=\frac{X}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} g(k) P_{n-k}^{g}(X) \\
& =\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} g(k) \sum_{m=0}^{n-k} A_{n-k, m} X^{m+1} \\
& =\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n-m+1} g(k) A_{n-k, m-1} X^{m}
\end{aligned}
$$

In particular $A_{n, n}=\frac{1}{n} A_{n-1, n-1}=\frac{1}{n!}$. (This follows by induction. In the cases of the other coefficients below also induction is applied.) Further,

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{n, n-1} & =\frac{1}{n}\left(A_{n-1, n-2}+g(2) A_{n-2, n-2}\right)=\frac{1}{n}\left(A_{n-1, n-2}+\frac{g(2)}{(n-2)!}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{n!}\left((n-1)!A_{n-1, n-2}+g(2)(n-1)\right)=\frac{g(2)}{n!}\binom{n}{2} \\
A_{n, n-2} & =\frac{1}{n}\left(A_{n-1, n-3}+g(2) A_{n-2, n-3}+g(3) A_{n-3, n-3}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{n}\left(A_{n-1, n-3}+\frac{g(2)^{2}}{(n-2)!}\binom{n-2}{2}+\frac{g(3)}{(n-3)!}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{n!}\left((n-1)!A_{n-1, n-3}+3 g(2)^{2}\binom{n-1}{3}+2 g(3)\binom{n-1}{2}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{n!}\left(3 g(2)^{2}\binom{n}{4}+2 g(3)\binom{n}{3}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{n, n-3}= & \frac{1}{n}\left(A_{n-1, n-4}+g(2) A_{n-2, n-4}+g(3) A_{n-3, n-4}+g(4) A_{n-4, n-4}\right) \\
= & \frac{1}{n}\left(A_{n-1, n-4}+\frac{g(2)}{(n-2)!}\left(3 g(2)^{2}\binom{n-2}{4}+2 g(3)\binom{n-2}{3}\right)\right. \\
& \left.+g(3) \frac{g(2)}{(n-3)!}\binom{n-3}{2}+\frac{g(4)}{(n-4)!}\right) \\
= & \frac{1}{n!}\left((n-1)!A_{n-1, n-4}+15 g(2)^{3}\binom{n-1}{5}+8 g(2) g(3)\binom{n-1}{4}\right. \\
& \left.+12 g(2) g(3)\binom{n-1}{4}+6 g(4)\binom{n-1}{3}\right) \\
= & \frac{1}{n!}\left(15 g(2)^{3}\binom{n}{6}+20 g(2) g(3)\binom{n}{5}+6 g(4)\binom{n}{4}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

## 6. Open Question

We proved that the polynomials $P_{n}^{g}(X)$ attached to $g(n)=n$ are irreducible and have real roots. Moreover, the roots interlace. Actually we were able to identify these polynomials with certain Laguerre polynomials which satisfy a three term recurrence relation. As indicated in the introduction, our main interest are the roots of $P_{n}^{\sigma}(X)$, since these roots dictate the vanishing properties of powers the Dedekind eta function [HNR17, HLN18], including the Lehmer conjecture [Le47]. Since $n \leq \sigma(n) \leq n^{2}$ properties of $P_{n}^{\sigma}(X)$ are expected to be deduced from the polynomials attached to $g(n)=n$ and $g(n)=n^{2}$ (as for example the size of the coefficients of $\left.P_{n}^{\sigma}(X)\right)$. We have for $g(n)=n^{2}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widetilde{P}_{n}(X)=\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} A_{n, k} \frac{X^{k}}{(k+1)!}, \quad \text { where } A_{n, k}=\binom{n+k}{2 k+1} \in \mathbb{Z} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

We have shown in this paper that these polynomials satisfy a four term recursion and that they are not orthogonal. Numerical calculations for $n \leq$ 100 indicate that the polynomials are also irreducible. For $n \leq 100$ we have checked that they have real roots and that the roots interlace. We end with this observation and ask the question of whether these facts hold for general $n$.

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