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

(1)
$$P_n^g(X) = \frac{X}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n g(k) P_{n-k}^g(X) \quad \text{for all} \quad n \ge 1,$$

where $P_0^g(X) := 1$.

Let for the moment $g(n) = \sigma(n) = \sum_{t|n} t$ be the sum of all divisors of n. Then we obtain the powers of the Euler product

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

This is essentially an identity involving powers of the Dedekind eta function $\eta(\tau) = q^{1/24} \prod_{n \geq 1} (1 - q^n)$ (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]).

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

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

Hence,

(2)
$$P_n^g(X) = \frac{1}{n!}X(X+1)\cdots(X+n-1) = \frac{1}{n!}\sum_{k=1}^n S_{n,k}X^k$$

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]

(3)
$$L_n^{(\alpha)}(X) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n+\alpha}{n-k} \frac{(-X)^k}{k!} \qquad (\alpha > -1).$$

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 $(P_n^g(X))_{n\geq 0}$ 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 $\tilde{P}_n^g(X) = X^{-1}P_n^g(X)$, we show that $\tilde{P}_n^g(X)$ 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 $0 \le m, j \le d$ define

$$b_{m} = \sum_{\mu=0}^{m} (-1)^{\mu} {m \choose \mu} g(-\mu),$$

$$c_{j} = (-1)^{j} \left(b_{0} {d \choose j} + \sum_{\iota=1}^{d-j} \iota b_{\iota} {d-\iota \choose j} \right).$$

Then the polynomials $P_n^g(X)$ satisfy the following d+2 term recurrence relations with $P_0^g(X) = 1$ and

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

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

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

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 $0 \le m \le d$ 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

$$X \sum_{n \ge 1} g(n) \frac{q^n}{n} = X \left(\sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{b_0}{n} + \sum_{m=1}^d b_m \frac{(n+1)\cdots(n+m-1)}{(m-1)!} \right) q^n$$
$$= X b_0 \sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{q^n}{n} + X \sum_{m=1}^d b_m \sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{(n+1)\cdots(n+m-1)}{(m-1)!} q^n$$

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

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

Our exponential generating function is therefore

$$F(q,X) := \exp\left(X \sum_{n \ge 1} g(n) \frac{q^n}{n}\right)$$
$$= \exp\left(-b_0 X \log(1-q) + X \sum_{m=1}^d b_m \left(\frac{1}{(1-q)^m} - 1\right)\right).$$

Thus,

$$\begin{split} &\frac{\partial}{\partial q} F(q,X) \\ &= F(q,X) \frac{\partial}{\partial q} \left(-b_0 X \log(1-q) + X \sum_{m=1}^d b_m \left(\frac{1}{(1-q)^m} - 1 \right) \right) \\ &= X F(q,X) \left(\frac{b_0}{1-q} + \sum_{m=1}^d \frac{m \, b_m}{(1-q)^{m+1}} \right). \end{split}$$

Thus,

$$(1-q)^{d+1} \frac{\partial}{\partial q} F(q, X) = XF(q, X) \left(b_0 (1-q)^d + \sum_{m=1}^d m \, b_m (1-q)^{d-m} \right),$$

or

$$\left(\sum_{j=0}^{d+1} (-1)^j \binom{d+1}{j} q^j\right) \times \left(\sum_{n\geq 1} n \, P_n^g(X) q^{n-1}\right)$$

$$= X \left(\sum_{n\geq 0} P_n^g(X) q^n\right) \left(b_0 (1-q)^d + \sum_{m=1}^d m \, b_m (1-q)^{d-m}\right).$$

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,

$$\left(\sum_{j=0}^{d+1} (-1)^j \binom{d+1}{j} q^j\right) \times \left(\sum_{n\geq 1} n \, P_n^g(X) q^{n-1}\right)$$

$$= X \left(\sum_{n\geq 0} P_n^g(X) q^n\right) \left(\sum_{j=0}^d c_j q^j\right).$$

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 $(P_n^g(X))_{n\geq 0}$ 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 $(P_n^g(X))_{n\geq 0}$ 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 $P_0^g(X) = 1$, $P_1^g(X) = XP_0^g(X)$, and

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

for all $n \geq 1$.

Proof of Lemma 1. We obtain for x = -N and $0 \le N \le d$:

$$\sum_{m=0}^{d} \sum_{\mu=0}^{m} (-1)^{\mu} \binom{m}{\mu} Q (-\mu) \frac{-N(-N+1)\cdots(-N+m-1)}{m!}$$

$$= \sum_{m=0}^{N} \sum_{\mu=0}^{m} (-1)^{\mu} \binom{m}{\mu} Q (-\mu) (-1)^{m} \binom{N}{m}$$

$$= \sum_{\mu=0}^{N} \sum_{m=\mu}^{N} (-1)^{m+\mu} \frac{N!}{\mu! (m-\mu)! (N-m)!} Q (-\mu)$$

$$= \sum_{\mu=0}^{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-\mu} (-1)^{m} \frac{N!}{\mu! m! (N-m-\mu)} Q (-\mu)$$

$$= \sum_{\mu=0}^{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-\mu} (-1)^{m} \binom{N-\mu}{m} \binom{N}{\mu} Q (-\mu) = \sum_{\mu=0}^{N} \delta_{N,\mu} \binom{N}{\mu} Q (-\mu)$$

$$= Q (-N).$$

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]):

(4)
$$P_n(X) = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{n!}{k!} \binom{n-1}{k-1} X^k = X \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \frac{X^k}{(k+1)!} = X \widetilde{P}_n(X).$$

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 $L_{n-1}^{(1)}\left(X\right)=\sum_{k=0}^{n-1}\binom{(n-1)+1}{(n-1)-k}\frac{(-X)^k}{k!}$ is the n-1st generalized Laguerre polynomial with $\alpha=1$ (compare with (3) form the Introduction).

Proof. From the explicit formula (4) we obtain

$$P_{n}(X) = X \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} {n-1 \choose k} \frac{X^{k}}{(k+1)!} = X \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(n-1)!}{k! (n-1-k)!} \frac{X^{k}}{(k+1)!}$$

$$= \frac{X}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{n!}{(k+1)! (n-1-k)!} \frac{X^{k}}{k!} = \frac{X}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} {n \choose n-1-k} \frac{X^{k}}{k!}$$

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

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]):

(5)
$$P_n(X) = X \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{(k+1)!} {n+k \choose 2k+1} X^k = X \widetilde{P}_n(X).$$

Note that

(6)
$$\widetilde{P}_n(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} A_{n,k} \frac{X^k}{(k+1)!}, \quad A_{n,k} \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

In our case $A_{n,k} = \binom{n+k}{2k+1}$.

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 $|A_{n,0}| = 1$ 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 $A_{n,k} = \binom{n+k}{2k+1}$, $k = 0, \ldots, n-1$, 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, $n-1\mid\frac{n!}{(k+1)!}A_{n,k}$ for $k=0,\ldots,n-3$ and $n-1\mid\frac{n!}{(n-1)!}A_{n,n-2}=(2n-2)\,n$. 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 $p^2\mid n^2(n-1)\frac{(n-2)!}{p!}p!=n!A_{n,0}$.

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

$$P_0(X) = 1, \ P_1(X) = XP_0(X), \ P_2(X) = \frac{1}{2}((X+3)P_1(X) + XP_0(X)),$$

and

$$P_{n+1}(X) = \frac{1}{n+1} (3(X+n) P_n(X) + (X-3n+3) P_{n-1}(X) + (n-2) P_{n-2}(X)),$$

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 q(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

(7)
$$XP_n^g(X) = \alpha_n P_{n+1}^g(X) + \beta_n P_n^g(X) + \gamma_n P_{n-1}^g(X)$$

for some α_n , β_n , and γ_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 $any \ n \ge 2$.

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 $g(2)^3 - 2g(2)g(3) + g(4) = 0$.

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 $g(2)^3 - 2g(2)g(3) + g(4) = 64 - 72 + 16 = 8 \neq 0$.

Proof of Corollary 1. For $g\left(x\right)=x^{\ell},\,x>0$, we obtain $g''\left(x\right)=\left(\ell-1\right)\ell x^{\ell-2}$ for the second derivative which is positive for $\ell>1$ or $\ell<0$ and negative for $0<\ell<1$. This implies $g\left(x\right)$ 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 $g\left(2\right)^3-2g\left(2\right)g\left(3\right)+g\left(4\right)=2^{3\ell}-2^{\ell+1}3^{\ell}+4^{\ell}=2^{\ell}\left(4^{\ell}-2\cdot3^{\ell}+2^{\ell}\right)\neq0$ for $\ell\neq0,1$.

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

$$A_{n,n} = \frac{1}{n!}, \quad n \ge 0,$$

$$A_{n,n-1} = \frac{1}{n!}g(2)\binom{n}{2}, \quad n \ge 1,$$

$$A_{n,n-2} = \frac{1}{n!}\left(3g(2)^2\binom{n}{4} + 2g(3)\binom{n}{3}\right), \quad n \ge 2,$$

$$A_{n,n-3} = \frac{1}{n!}\left(15g(2)^3\binom{n}{6} + 20g(2)g(3)\binom{n}{5} + 6g(4)\binom{n}{4}\right), \quad n \ge 3.$$

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

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

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)
$$(n+1)!A_{n+1,n} - n!A_{n,n-1} = g(2) \binom{n+1}{2} - g(2) \binom{n}{2} = g(2) n,$$

$$(n+1)!A_{n+1,n-1} - n!A_{n,n-2}$$

$$= 3g(2)^2 \binom{n+1}{4} + 2g(3) \binom{n+1}{3} - 3g(2)^2 \binom{n}{4} - 2g(3) \binom{n}{3}$$

$$= 3g(2)^2 \binom{n}{3} + 2g(3) \binom{n}{2},$$

$$(n+1)!A_{n+1,n-2} - n!A_{n,n-3}$$

$$= 15g(2)^3 \binom{n+1}{6} + 20g(2)g(3) \binom{n+1}{5} + 6g(4) \binom{n+1}{4}$$

$$- 15g(2)^3 \binom{n}{6} - 20g(2)g(3) \binom{n}{5} - 6g(4) \binom{n}{4}$$

$$= 15g(2)^3 \binom{n}{5} + 20g(2)g(3) \binom{n}{4} + 6g(4) \binom{n}{3}.$$

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

$$(n+1)!P_{n+1}^{g}\left(X\right)-n!XP_{n}^{g}\left(X\right)-n!g\left(2\right)nP_{n}^{g}\left(X\right)$$

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

$$(n+1)!A_{n+1,n-1} - n!A_{n,n-2} - n!g(2) nA_{n,n-1}$$

$$= 3g(2)^{2} \binom{n}{3} + 2g(3) \binom{n}{2} - g(2)^{2} n \binom{n}{2} = 2 \left(g(3) - g(2)^{2}\right) \binom{n}{2},$$

$$(n+1)!A_{n+1,n-2} - n!A_{n,n-3} - n!g(2) nA_{n,n-2}$$

$$= 15g(2)^{3} \binom{n}{5} + 20g(2)g(3) \binom{n}{4} + 6g(4) \binom{n}{3}$$

$$-g(2)n \left(3g(2)^{2} \binom{n}{4} + 2g(3) \binom{n}{3}\right)$$

$$= g(2)^{3} \left(15\binom{n}{5} - 3n\binom{n}{4}\right) + g(2)g(3) \left(20\binom{n}{4} - 2n\binom{n}{3}\right)$$

$$+ 6g(4) \binom{n}{3}$$

$$= -12g(2)^{3} \binom{n}{4} + g(2)g(3) (3n - 15) \binom{n}{3} + 6g(4) \binom{n}{3}.$$

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

$$(n+1)!P_{n+1}^{g}(X) - n!XP_{n}^{g}(X) - n!g(2)nP_{n}^{g}(X) - (n-1)!2\left(g(3) - g(2)^{2}\right)\binom{n}{2}P_{n-1}^{g}(X)$$

equals 0.

For the coefficient of X^{n-2} we obtain now

$$(n+1)!A_{n+1,n-2} - n!A_{n,n-3} - n!g(2) nA_{n,n-2}$$

$$- (n-1)!2 \left(g(3) - g(2)^2\right) \binom{n}{2} A_{n-1,n-2}$$

$$= -12g(2)^3 \binom{n}{4} + g(2)g(3)(3n-15) \binom{n}{3} + 6g(4) \binom{n}{3}$$

$$- 2\left(g(3) - g(2)^2\right) \binom{n}{2}g(2) \binom{n-1}{2}$$

$$= g(2)^3 \left(-12\binom{n}{4} + 2\binom{n}{2}\binom{n-1}{2}\right)$$

$$+ g(2)g(3) \left((3n-15)\binom{n}{3} - 2\binom{n}{2}\binom{n-1}{2}\right) + 6g(4)\binom{n}{3}$$

$$= 6\left(g(2)^3 - 2g(2)g(3) + g(4)\right) \binom{n}{3}.$$

This means the polynomial

$$(n+1)!P_{n+1}^{g}(X) - n!XP_{n}^{g}(X) - n!g(2)nP_{n}^{g}(X) - (n-1)!2\left(g(3) - g(2)^{2}\right)\binom{n}{2}P_{n-1}^{g}(X)$$

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

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

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n-m+1} g(k) A_{n-k,m-1} X^{m}.$$

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,

$$A_{n,n-1} = \frac{1}{n} \left(A_{n-1,n-2} + g(2) A_{n-2,n-2} \right) = \frac{1}{n} \left(A_{n-1,n-2} + \frac{g(2)}{(n-2)!} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{n!} \left((n-1)! A_{n-1,n-2} + g(2) (n-1) \right) = \frac{g(2)}{n!} \binom{n}{2},$$

$$A_{n,n-2} = \frac{1}{n} \left(A_{n-1,n-3} + g(2) A_{n-2,n-3} + g(3) A_{n-3,n-3} \right)$$

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{n!} \left(3g(2)^2 \binom{n}{4} + 2g(3) \binom{n}{3} \right),$$

$$A_{n,n-3} = \frac{1}{n} (A_{n-1,n-4} + g(2) A_{n-2,n-4} + g(3) A_{n-3,n-4} + g(4) A_{n-4,n-4})$$

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

$$+ g(3) \frac{g(2)}{(n-3)!} \binom{n-3}{2} + \frac{g(4)}{(n-4)!} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n!} \left((n-1)! A_{n-1,n-4} + 15g(2)^3 \binom{n-1}{5} + 8g(2) g(3) \binom{n-1}{4} \right)$$

$$+ 12g(2) g(3) \binom{n-1}{4} + 6g(4) \binom{n-1}{3} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n!} \left(15g(2)^3 \binom{n}{6} + 20g(2) g(3) \binom{n}{5} + 6g(4) \binom{n}{4} \right).$$

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 $P_n^{\sigma}(X)$). We have for $g(n) = n^2$:

(9)
$$\widetilde{P}_n(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} A_{n,k} \frac{X^k}{(k+1)!}, \quad \text{where } A_{n,k} = \binom{n+k}{2k+1} \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

We have shown in this paper that these polynomials satisfy a four term recursion and that they are not orthogonal. Numerical calculations for $n \le 100$ indicate that the polynomials are also irreducible. For $n \le 100$ 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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