

# THE NON-VANISHING OF THE TRACE OF $T_3$

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ABSTRACT. A generalized Lehmer conjecture predicts that, for every positive integer  $n$ , the trace of the Hecke operator  $T_n$  in level one does not vanish, unless the space of cusp forms acted upon is trivial. So far, this has only been established for  $n = 2$ . In this paper, we use  $p$ -adic methods to prove the statement for  $n = 3$ .

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Consider the Delta function

$$\Delta(z) = q \prod_{n \geq 1} (1 - q^n)^{24} = \sum_{n \geq 1} \tau(n) q^n, \quad (q = \exp(2\pi iz))$$

which is the unique normalized cusp form of weight 12 for the full modular group. A famous open question, due to Lehmer [Leh47], asks whether there exists an integer  $n \geq 1$  such that  $\tau(n)$  is zero. It is widely believed not only that  $\Delta$  has no vanishing Fourier coefficients, but also that the same phenomenon occurs whenever the space of cusp forms for  $\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$  is one-dimensional, i.e., the weight  $2k$  is in the set  $\{12, 16, 18, 20, 22, 26\}$ . For these values, the  $n$ -th Fourier coefficient of the corresponding normalized cusp form coincides with the trace of the Hecke operator  $T_n$  acting on the space of cusp forms of weight  $2k$  and level one, which will be denoted by  $\mathrm{Tr} T_n(2k)$ .

Motivated by the above, Rouse [Rou06] proposed a “Generalized Lehmer Conjecture”, which posits that the trace  $\mathrm{Tr} T_n(2k)$  does not vanish for *all* even weights  $2k \geq 16$  or  $2k = 12$ . In fact, [Rou06, Conjecture 1.5] predicts the non-vanishing of the trace of  $T_n$ , with  $n \geq 1$  not a square, in every level  $N$  coprime to  $n$ . As evidence, Rouse proved the case  $n = 2$  using a computational algorithm.

In this paper, we make further progress on the Generalized Lehmer Conjecture by proving it for  $n = 3$  and level one.

**Theorem 1.** *Suppose that  $2k \geq 16$  or  $2k = 12$ . Then  $\mathrm{Tr} T_3(2k) \neq 0$ .*

We mention that the analogous statement for  $n = 2$  also follows from a recent paper of Chiriac and Jorza [CJ22], where a stronger result was obtained—namely that  $\mathrm{Tr} T_2(2k)$  takes no repeated values, except for 0, which occurs only when the space is trivial. Their proof combines 2-adic results from [CJ21] and a new application of classical bounds on linear forms in logarithms in the context of exponential sums with more than two terms. The case  $n = 3$  appears to be more difficult because of the presence of additional terms in the exponential sums defining the trace.

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We take our lead from [CJ22] and use the Eichler-Selberg trace formula to express the trace of  $T_3$  in terms of linear recurrence sequences. This reduces the problem to proving the non-vanishing of three subsequences, according to some congruence classes of  $k$  (see Proposition 3). To this end, we employ a general practical method, based on  $p$ -adic arguments, developed by Mignotte and Tzanakis [MT91]. This method has found applications in the study of ternary sequences, particularly Berstel's sequence [MT93]. The idea is that given an equation of the form  $u_n = c$  and a conjectured set  $\mathcal{M}$  of solutions  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , a suitable choice of primes possessing certain properties can guarantee that  $\mathcal{M}$  does indeed include all solutions; we elaborate on the specifics in Section 4.

## 2. BACKGROUND

In this section, we briefly review some basic facts from the theory of modular forms for the full modular group  $\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ , that is, of level one. For a more comprehensive account, the reader is referred to [Kil15].

Let  $\mathfrak{h} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \mathrm{Im}(z) > 0\}$  be the upper half-plane. A modular form of even weight  $2k$  and level one is a holomorphic function  $f : \mathfrak{h} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  with the following properties:

- (i)  $f(z+1) = f(z)$  and  $f(-1/z) = z^{2k}f(z)$  for all  $z \in \mathfrak{h}$ ;
- (ii)  $f(z)$  is bounded as  $\mathrm{Im}(z) \rightarrow \infty$ .

Every modular form  $f$  admits a unique Fourier expansion  $f(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a(n)q^n$ , and if  $a(0) = 0$  we call  $f$  a cusp form. In addition, a cusp form  $f$  is normalized if  $a(1) = 1$ .

Denote by  $\mathcal{S}_{2k}$  the set of cusp forms of weight  $2k$  and level one. This is a vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$  of finite dimension  $d$ , namely

$$d = \begin{cases} \lfloor k/6 \rfloor - 1 & \text{if } k \equiv 1 \pmod{6} \\ \lfloor k/6 \rfloor & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The space  $\mathcal{S}_{2k}$  is endowed with the action of certain linear transformations, called Hecke operators. These can be defined, for all positive integer  $m$ , as linear maps  $T_m : \mathcal{S}_{2k} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_{2k}$  given by

$$T_m \left( \sum_{n \geq 1} a(n)q^n \right) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \left( \sum_{d | \gcd(m, n)} d^{2k-1} a(mn/d^2) \right) q^n.$$

If  $p$  is a prime number, the effect of  $T_p$  on  $f(z) = \sum_{n \geq 1} a(n)q^n$  can be described as

$$T_p f = \sum_{n \geq 1} (a(pn) + p^{2k-1} a(n/p)) q^n,$$

with the understanding that  $a(n/p) = 0$  whenever  $p \nmid n$ . It turns out that the characteristic polynomial of  $T_m$  has integer coefficients. In particular, its trace  $\mathrm{Tr} T_m(2k)$  is also an integer.

A common way to compute traces of Hecke operators is using the Eichler-Selberg trace formula. This involves the Hurwitz class number  $H(n)$ , which counts the weighted number of equivalence classes of positive definite binary quadratic forms of discriminant  $-n$ . More precisely, the class containing  $x^2 + y^2$  is weighted by  $1/2$ , and the class containing  $x^2 + xy + y^2$  is weighted by  $1/3$ . For instance,  $H(3) = 1/3$  and  $H(12) = 4/3$ , whereas  $H(8) = H(11) = 1$ . We also set  $H(n) = 0$  if  $n \equiv 1$  or  $2 \pmod{4}$ , and  $H(0) = -1/12$ .

Following Zagier's Appendix to [Lan76], we recall the following version of the Eichler-Selberg trace formula on  $\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ : for all integers  $m \geq 1$  and  $k \geq 2$  we have

$$\mathrm{Tr} T_m(2k) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{|t| \leq 2\sqrt{m}} P_{2k}(t, m) H(4m - t^2) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{dd'=m} \min(d, d')^{2k-1},$$

where  $P_{2k}(t, m)$  is the coefficient of  $x^{2k-2}$  in the power series expansion of  $(1 - tx + mx^2)^{-1}$ . It is not hard to verify (see, for example, the proof of [CJ22, Lemma 3]) that  $P_{2k}(t, m)$  satisfies the following combinatorial formula:

$$P_{2k}(t, m) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (-1)^j \binom{2k-2-j}{j} m^j t^{2k-2-2j}. \quad (1)$$

Since our main interest is in the case  $m = 3$ , we compute

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{Tr} T_3(2k) &= -\frac{1}{2} P_{2k}(0, 3) H(12) - P_{2k}(1, 3) H(11) - P_{2k}(2, 3) H(8) - P_{2k}(3, 3) H(3) - 1 \\ &= -\frac{2}{3} P_{2k}(0, 3) - P_{2k}(1, 3) - P_{2k}(2, 3) - \frac{1}{3} P_{2k}(3, 3) - 1, \end{aligned}$$

which combined with (1) gives

$$\mathrm{Tr} T_3(2k) = -1 - 2 \cdot (-3)^{k-2} - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (-1)^j \binom{2k-2-j}{j} 3^j (1 + 2^{2k-2-2j} + 3^{2k-3-2j}). \quad (2)$$

### 3. THE TRACE AS A SUM OF RECURRENT SEQUENCES

Our immediate goal is to manipulate identity (2) in order to obtain certain recurrent sequences. The following lemma summarizes the calculations needed.

**Lemma 2.** *For any  $u, v \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ , consider the sequence  $\{\alpha_n\}_{n \geq 0}$  defined as*

$$\alpha_n := \sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^j \binom{2n-j}{j} u^j v^{n-j}.$$

*Then for every integer  $n \geq 2$  we have the recurrence relation*

$$\alpha_n = (v - 2u)\alpha_{n-1} - u^2\alpha_{n-2},$$

*where  $\alpha_0 = 1$  and  $\alpha_1 = v - u$ .*

*Proof.* The generating function of the sum given by the right-hand side is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^j \binom{2n-j}{j} u^j v^{n-j} x^n.$$

Setting  $m = n - j$  and changing variables gives us

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^j \binom{2m+j}{j} u^j v^m x^j x^m &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (vx)^m \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (-1)^j \binom{(2m+1)+j-1}{j} (ux)^j \\ &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (vx)^m \frac{1}{(1+ux)^{2m+1}} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{1+ux} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{vx}{(1+ux)^2} \right)^m \\ &= \frac{1}{1+ux} \left( 1 - \frac{vx}{(1+ux)^2} \right)^{-1} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{1+ux} \left( \frac{1+2ux+u^2x^2-vx}{(1+ux)^2} \right)^{-1} \\ &= \frac{1+ux}{1+(2u-v)x+u^2x^2} \end{aligned}$$

where in (3) we have used the negative binomial series

$$(1+x)^{-d} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (-1)^j \binom{d+j-1}{j} x^j,$$

and in (4) used the formula for the sum of a geometric series. Now, let  $G(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \alpha_n x^n$  be the generating function of the sequence  $\{\alpha_n\}_{n \geq 0}$ . As

$$\alpha_n + (2u-v)\alpha_{n-1} + u^2\alpha_{n-2} = 0$$

for  $n \geq 2$ , it follows that  $G(x)$  satisfies

$$(G(x) - 1 + (u-v)x) + (2u-v)x(G(x) - 1) + u^2x^2G(x) = 0.$$

This further shows that

$$G(x) = \frac{1+ux}{1+(2u-v)x+u^2x^2}.$$

The generating functions of both sequences are the same, so the statement of the lemma follows. □

Using Lemma 2, we are now prepared to prove the main result of this section.

**Proposition 3.** *Let  $\{a_n\}_{n \geq 0}$  and  $\{b_n\}_{n \geq 0}$  be the sequences given by the recurrences*

$$a_n = -5a_{n-1} - 9a_{n-2} \text{ for } n \geq 2, \quad a_0 = 1, \quad a_1 = -2$$

and

$$b_n = -2b_{n-1} - 9b_{n-2} \text{ for } n \geq 2, \quad b_0 = 1, \quad b_1 = 1,$$

respectively. Then for all integers  $k \geq 2$ , we have that

$$\text{Tr } T_3(2k) = \begin{cases} -1 - a_{k-1} - b_{k-1} & \text{if } k \equiv 2 \pmod{3} \\ -1 - a_{k-1} - b_{k-1} - 3^{k-1} & \text{if } k \equiv 1, 3 \pmod{6} \\ -1 - a_{k-1} - b_{k-1} + 3^{k-1} & \text{if } k \equiv 0, 4 \pmod{6} \end{cases}.$$

*Proof.* In view of identity (2), we can write  $\text{Tr } T_3(2k) = -1 - S_1 - S_2 - S_3$ , where

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &= \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (-1)^j \binom{2k-2-j}{j} 3^j \\ S_2 &= \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (-1)^j \binom{2k-2-j}{j} 3^j 2^{2k-2j-2} \\ S_3 &= 2 \cdot (-3)^{k-2} + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (-1)^j \binom{2k-2-j}{j} 3^{2k-3-j}. \end{aligned}$$

Setting  $u = 3$  and  $v = 1$  in Lemma 2, we see that  $S_1$  is equal to  $a_{k-1}$ . Similarly,  $u = 3$  and  $v = 4$  give that  $S_2$  is equal to  $b_{k-1}$ . It remains to show that

$$S_3 = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k \equiv 2 \pmod{3} \\ -3^{k-1} & \text{if } k \equiv 1, 3 \pmod{6} \\ 3^{k-1} & \text{if } k \equiv 0, 4 \pmod{6}. \end{cases}$$

Equivalently, for every  $n \geq 1$ , we must prove that

$$2(-3)^{n-1} - \sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^j \binom{2n-j}{j} 3^{2n-j-1} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \\ -3^n & \text{if } n \equiv 0, 2 \pmod{6} \\ 3^n & \text{if } n \equiv 3, 5 \pmod{6} \end{cases}.$$

To do this, we introduce an auxiliary sequence defined as

$$d_n := \sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^j \binom{2n-j}{j} 3^{n-j}.$$

Applying Lemma 2 with  $u = 1$  and  $v = 3$ , we see that  $\{d_n\}$  is a sequence with initial values  $d_0 = 1$  and  $d_1 = 2$ , and  $d_n = d_{n-1} - d_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 2$ . Induction verifies that  $\{d_n\}$  is a periodic sequence of period 6, and

$$\sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^j \binom{2n-j}{j} 3^{n-j} = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \pmod{6} \\ -2 & \text{if } n \equiv 4 \pmod{6} \\ 1 & \text{if } n \equiv 0, 2 \pmod{6} \\ -1 & \text{if } n \equiv 3, 5 \pmod{6}. \end{cases}$$

Adding  $2(-1)^n$  to both sides yields

$$2(-1)^n + \sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^j \binom{2n-j}{j} 3^{n-j} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{6} \\ 3 & \text{if } n \equiv 0, 2 \pmod{6} \\ -3 & \text{if } n \equiv 3, 5 \pmod{6} \end{cases},$$

and multiplying by  $-3^{n-1}$  gives the desired result. □

As  $\text{Tr } T_3$  is the sum of recurrent sequences, it is also a recurrent sequence. The following corollary makes this observation explicit.

**Corollary 4.** Let  $\{t_k\}_{k \geq 2}$  be the sequence defined as  $t_k := \text{Tr } T_3(2k)$ . Then  $\{t_k\}$  has initial values given by the table below

$k$	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$t_k$	0	0	0	0	252	0	-3348	-4284

and for every  $k \geq 10$  it satisfies the recurrence relation

$$t_k = -6t_{k-1} - 21t_{k-2} - 62t_{k-3} - 180t_{k-4} - 486t_{k-5} - 945t_{k-6} - 486t_{k-7} + 2187t_{k-8}.$$

*Proof.* It is easy to compute the initial values directly from Proposition 3. The characteristic polynomial of  $\{t_k\}$ , denoted by  $t(x)$ , is the product of the characteristic polynomials of the individual sequences that comprise  $\text{Tr } T_3(2k)$ .

Obviously, one can regard the constant  $-1$  as a trivial recurrent sequence with characteristic polynomial  $x - 1$ . The characteristic polynomials of  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  are  $x^2 + 5x + 9$  and  $x^2 + 2x + 9$ , respectively. Finally, let  $\{c_n\}$  be the sequence satisfying  $c_n = -27c_{n-3}$  for  $n \geq 3$  with the initial conditions  $c_0 = -1$ ,  $c_1 = 0$ , and  $c_2 = -9$ ; its characteristic polynomial is  $x^3 + 27$ . Using induction, one can show that

$$c_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \\ -3^n & \text{if } n \equiv 0, 2 \pmod{6} \\ 3^n & \text{if } n \equiv 3, 5 \pmod{6} \end{cases}$$

for all  $n \geq 0$ . We obtain that

$$\begin{aligned} t(x) &= (x - 1)(x^2 + 5x + 9)(x^2 + 2x + 9)(x^3 + 27) \\ &= x^8 + 6x^7 + 21x^6 + 62x^5 + 180x^4 + 486x^3 + 945x^2 + 486x - 2187 \end{aligned}$$

and the conclusion follows. □

#### 4. THE NON-VANISHING OF THE TRACE

With  $a_n$  and  $b_n$  as they appear in Proposition 3, let  $u_n = a_n + b_n$ . We know that

$$\text{Tr } T_3(2k) = \begin{cases} -1 - u_{k-1} & \text{if } k \equiv 2 \pmod{3} \\ -1 - u_{k-1} - 3^{k-1} & \text{if } k \equiv 1, 3 \pmod{6} \\ -1 - u_{k-1} + 3^{k-1} & \text{if } k \equiv 0, 4 \pmod{6} \end{cases}.$$

To establish Theorem 1, we must prove that  $\text{Tr } T_3(2k) = 0$  if and only if  $k \in \{2, 3, 4, 5, 7\}$ . In fact, we will completely determine when the sequences  $\{u_n\}$  and  $\{u_n \pm 3^n\}$  take the value  $-1$ . Our main tool is the previously mentioned result of Mignotte and Tzanakis. Their setup works for any  $k$ -th degree recurrence  $\{u_n\}$  with integer coefficients, as long as its characteristic polynomial  $g(x)$  has  $k$  *distinct* complex roots  $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_k$ .

Given a fixed integer  $c$ , to solve the equation  $u_n = c$  (for  $n$ ), we choose an odd prime  $p$ , not dividing the discriminant or any of the coefficients of  $g(x)$ , such that all the roots  $\omega_i$  are  $p$ -adic units. We then search for positive integers  $S$  such that all the numbers  $\omega_i^S$  are congruent to some common integer  $A$  modulo  $p$ . If  $A$  has the same order  $R$  both modulo  $p$  and modulo  $p^2$ , then the following result [MT91, Theorem 1] holds<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>1</sup>There is a typo in the statement of [MT91, Theorem 1], namely the part “if  $n \in \mathcal{P}$ ” in (ii) is omitted. The correct version appears in [MT93, Theorem 1].

**Proposition 5** (Mignotte and Tzanakis). *Suppose that  $\mathcal{M}$  is a finite set of solutions  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  to the equation  $u_m = c$ , where either  $c \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  or  $c = 0$ . Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a complete system of residues modulo  $S$  such that  $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{P}$  and which satisfies the following conditions:*

- (i)  $u_m = c$  for each  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ ;
- (ii) if  $n \in \mathcal{P}$  and  $u_n \equiv cA^r \pmod{p}$  for some  $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, R-1\}$ , then  $n \in \mathcal{M}$ ;
- (iii)  $u_{m+S} \not\equiv Au_m \pmod{p^2}$  for every  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ .

Then  $u_n = c$  implies  $n \in \mathcal{M}$ .

It is important to emphasize that  $\mathcal{M}$  contains *all* integer solutions, not just positive integers. To extend the definition of  $u_n$  to negative integers is straightforward. Indeed, since the characteristic polynomial of  $\{u_n\}$  is assumed to have distinct roots, the general term is of the form

$$u_n = \alpha_1 \omega_1^n + \dots + \alpha_k \omega_k^n,$$

with  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{Q}(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_k)$ . Therefore, it makes sense to talk about  $u_n$  for every integer  $n$ . This will play a role in the proof of Proposition 6 below.

While directly tackling the sequence from Corollary 4 with this method is certainly possible, we take a more gradual approach. This has the advantage of better illustrating the “dead-ends” one can run into when searching for appropriate choices of  $p$  and  $S$ . To perform this search, we used a combination of SageMath and Pari/GP.

**Proposition 6.** *Let  $u_n = a_n + b_n$  where  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  are the sequences given in Proposition 3. Extend the definition of  $\{u_n\}$  to all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  as described above. Then*

- (a)  $u_n = -1$  if and only if  $n \in \{1, 4\}$ ;
- (b)  $u_n + 3^n = -1$  if and only if  $n \in \{2, 6\}$ ;
- (c)  $u_n - 3^n = -1$  if and only if  $n \in \{-1, 3\}$ .

*Proof.* We begin by including a table of the first few values of the relevant sequences, with the occurrences of the value  $-1$  circled:

$n$	$-1$	$0$	$1$	$2$	$3$	$4$	$5$	$6$
$u_n$	$-2/3$	$2$	$\textcircled{-1}$	$-10$	$26$	$\textcircled{-1}$	$-10$	$-730$
$u_n + 3^n$	$-1/3$	$3$	$2$	$\textcircled{-1}$	$53$	$80$	$233$	$\textcircled{-1}$
$u_n - 3^n$	$\textcircled{-1}$	$1$	$-4$	$-19$	$\textcircled{-1}$	$-82$	$-253$	$-1459$

We also note that the characteristic polynomial of the sequence  $\{u_n\}$  is

$$g(x) = (x^2 + 2x + 9)(x^2 + 5x + 9) = x^4 + 7x^3 + 28x^2 + 63x + 81$$

and its discriminant is  $2^5 \cdot 3^8 \cdot 11$ .

- (a) We choose  $p = 59$ . The roots  $\omega_1$  and  $\omega_2$  of  $x^2 + 2x + 9$ , written 59-adically, are

$$12 + 43 \cdot 59 + 28 \cdot 59^2 + O(59^3)$$

and

$$45 + 15 \cdot 59 + 30 \cdot 59^2 + O(59^3).$$

Since  $\left(\frac{12}{59}\right) = \left(\frac{45}{59}\right) = 1$ , we see that  $\omega_1^{29} \equiv \omega_2^{29} \equiv 1 \pmod{59}$ .

Similarly, the roots  $\omega_3$  and  $\omega_4$  of  $x^2 + 5x + 9$ , written 59-adically, are  $5 + 55 \cdot 59 + 57 \cdot 59^2 + O(59^3)$  and  $49 + 3 \cdot 59 + 59^2 + O(59^3)$ . As before,  $\omega_3^{29} \equiv \omega_4^{29} \equiv 1 \pmod{59}$ . Thus, all the roots of  $g(x)$  satisfy  $\omega_i^{29} \equiv 1 \pmod{59}$ .

We now apply Proposition 5 with  $p = 59$ ,  $S = 29$ ,  $A = 1$  (so  $R = 1$ ),  $c = -1$ ,  $\mathcal{M} = \{1, 4\}$  and  $\mathcal{P} = \{0, \dots, 28\}$ . Condition (i) is clear. Next, a simple computer check shows that the only  $n$  in the range  $0 \leq n \leq 28$  for which  $u_n \equiv -1 \pmod{59}$  are  $n = 1$  and  $n = 4$ .

For requirement (iii), we compute

$$\begin{aligned} u_{1+S} &\equiv 707 \not\equiv u_1 \pmod{59^2} \\ u_{4+S} &\equiv 766 \not\equiv u_4 \pmod{59^2}. \end{aligned}$$

In conclusion, the elements of  $\mathcal{M}$  are the only integers  $n$  such that  $u_n = -1$ .

(b) For convenience, let  $u'_n := u_n + 3^n$ . We claim that the set of solutions to  $u'_n = -1$  is  $\mathcal{M} = \{2, 6\}$ .

The characteristic polynomial of  $u'_n$  is  $g(x)(x-3) = x^5 + 4x^4 + 7x^3 - 21x^2 - 108x - 243$ , which has discriminant  $2^{11} \cdot 3^{12} \cdot 11^3$ . While  $3^{29} \equiv 1 \pmod{59}$ , we note that the choice from part (a):  $(p, S, A) = (59, 29, 1)$ , will not work. Indeed, requirement (ii) is not satisfied, for

$$u'_{24} = 326954692403 \equiv -1 \pmod{59}$$

even though  $24 \notin \mathcal{M}$ .

Fortunately, there are other relatively small values of  $p$  which will work. More precisely, we take  $p = 251$ . The roots of  $g(x)(x-3)$  reduced modulo 251 are 3, 45, 68, 181, and 201, and

$$3^{125} \equiv 45^{125} \equiv 68^{125} \equiv 181^{125} \equiv 201^{125} \equiv 1 \pmod{251}.$$

Therefore  $(p, S, A) = (251, 125, 1)$  is a valid triple. Once again, one can use software to verify that requirement (ii) is met for the choice  $\mathcal{P} = \{0, \dots, 124\}$ . For (iii), we find that

$$\begin{aligned} u'_{2+S} &\equiv 24597 \not\equiv u'_2 \pmod{251^2} \\ u'_{6+S} &\equiv 34386 \not\equiv u'_6 \pmod{251^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 5 tells us that  $u'_n = u_n + 3^n = -1$  only when  $n \in \{2, 6\}$ .

(c) Now let  $u''_n := u_n - 3^n$ . This case is different from the previous ones because it is the first time that we encounter a negative solution, namely

$$u''_{-1} = u_{-1} - 3^{-1} = (-2/3) - (1/3) = -1.$$

As a result, we take  $\mathcal{M} = \{-1, 3\}$ . To accommodate for the negative value in  $\mathcal{M}$ , we let  $\mathcal{P} = \{-1, \dots, 27\}$ .

The characteristic polynomial of  $u''_n$  is also  $g(x)(x-3)$ , so the choice  $(p, S, A) = (59, 29, 1)$  passes the root requirement. As before, software verifies requirement (ii), and we see that

$$\begin{aligned} u''_{-1+S} &\equiv 2418 \not\equiv u''_{-1} \pmod{59^2} \\ u''_{3+S} &\equiv 3303 \not\equiv u''_3 \pmod{59^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Applying Proposition 5, we obtain that  $u''_n = -1$  only when  $n \in \{-1, 3\}$ . □



## 5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The methods used in this paper are amenable to generalization for larger values of  $n$ , as well as other congruence subgroups. For instance, one can similarly establish the non-vanishing of the trace of  $T_3$  in level 2, denoted by  $\text{Tr } T_3(2k, \Gamma_0(2))$ . Indeed, work by Frechette, Ono, and Papanikolas [FOP04, Theorem 2.3] gives that for all  $k \geq 2$

$$\text{Tr } T_3(2k, \Gamma_0(2)) = -2 - b_{k-1} - (-3)^{k-1},$$

where  $\{b_n\}$  is the sequence from Proposition 3, namely  $b_0 = b_1 = 1$  and  $b_n = -2b_{n-1} - 9b_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 2$ . Applying Proposition 5 with  $u_n = b_n \pm 3^n$  and  $(p, S, A) = (11, 5, 1)$  we find that the only zeros occur for  $2k \in \{4, 6\}$ , which is precisely when the space of weight- $2k$  cusp forms on  $\Gamma_0(2)$  (of dimension  $\lfloor k/2 \rfloor - 1$ ) is trivial.

We also remark that in the case of level 4 or level 8, the situation is even easier, for

$$\text{Tr } T_3(2k, \Gamma_0(4)) = -3 - (-3)^{k-1}$$

and

$$\text{Tr } T_3(2k, \Gamma_0(8)) = -4,$$

as can be seen from [FOP04, Proposition 2.1].

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