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THE NON-VANISHING OF THE TRACE OF T_3

LIUBOMIR CHIRIAC, DAPHNE KURZENHAUSER, AND ERIN WILLIAMS

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 Δ 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

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

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

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

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

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 ω_i are p -adic units. We then search for positive integers S such that all the numbers ω_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] holds¹.

¹There 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 ω_1 and ω_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 ω_3 and ω_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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