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# ALGEBRAIC PROPERTIES OF A FAMILY OF GENERALIZED LAGUERRE POLYNOMIALS

FARSHID HAJIR

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ABSTRACT. We study the algebraic properties of Generalized Laguerre Polynomials for negative integral values of the parameter. For integers  $r, n \geq 0$ , we conjecture that  $L_n^{(-1-n-r)}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n-j+r}{n-j} x^j / j!$  is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -irreducible polynomial whose Galois group contains the alternating group on  $n$  letters. That this is so for  $r = n$  was conjectured in the 50's by Grosswald and proven recently by Filaseta and Trifonov. It follows from recent work of Hajir and Wong that the conjecture is true when  $r$  is large with respect to  $n \geq 5$ . Here we verify it in three situations: i) when  $n$  is large with respect to  $r$ , ii) when  $r \leq 8$ , and iii) when  $n \leq 4$ . The main tool is the theory of  $p$ -adic Newton Polygons.

## 1. BACKGROUND AND SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The Generalized Laguerre Polynomial (GLP) is a one-parameter family defined by

$$L_n^{(\alpha)}(x) = (-1)^n \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n+\alpha}{n-j} \frac{(-x)^j}{j!}.$$

Here, as usual, the binomial coefficient  $\binom{t}{k}$  is defined to be  $t(t-1)\cdots(t-k+1)/k!$  for non-negative integers  $k$ ; the inclusion of the sign  $(-1)^n$  is not standard. Sometimes it is more convenient to work with the monic integral polynomial  $\mathcal{L}_n^{(\alpha)}(x) = n!L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$ . The monographs by Pólya-Szegő [PZ], Szegő [Sz], and Andrews-Askey-Roy [AAR] contain a wealth of facts about this and other families of orthogonal polynomials. To cite only two, we have the second order linear (hypergeometric) differential equation

$$xy'' + (\alpha + 1 - x)y' + ny = 0, \quad y = L_n^{(\alpha)}(x),$$

as well as the difference equation

$$L_n^{(\alpha-1)}(x) - L_n^{(\alpha)}(x) = L_{n-1}^{(\alpha)}(x).$$

A quick glance at the mathematical literature makes it clear that GLP has been extensively studied primarily because of the very important roles it plays in various branches of analysis and mathematical physics. However, not long after its appearance in the literature early in the twentieth century, it became evident, in the hands of Schur, that GLP also enjoys *algebraic* properties of great interest.

For instance, in 1931, Schur [Sc2] gave a pretty formula for the discriminant of  $\mathcal{L}_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$ :

$$(1) \quad \Delta_n^{(\alpha)} = \prod_{j=2}^n j^j (\alpha + j)^{j-1}.$$

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In [Sc1] and [Sc2], he showed that  $L_n^{(0)}(x)$  (classical Laguerre polynomial, first studied by Abel), and  $L_n^{(1)}(x)$  (derivative of classical Laguerre), are irreducible in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  for all  $n$ ; he also calculated their Galois groups.

Recently, a number of articles concentrating on the algebraic properties of GLP have appeared, including Feit [F], Coleman [C], Gow [Go], Hajir [H1], Filaseta-Williams [FW], Sell [S]. In all of these papers, the authors take a sequence  $(\alpha_n)_n$  of rational numbers and consider the irreducibility and Galois group of  $L_n^{(\alpha_n)}(x)$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . The best general such result to date is for constant sequences  $\alpha_n$ .

**Theorem.** (Filaseta-Lam/Hajir) *Suppose  $\alpha$  is a fixed rational number which is not a negative integer. Then for all but finitely many integers  $n \geq 0$ ,  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and has Galois group containing  $A_n$ .*

It should be noted that reducible GLP for rational values of the parameter  $\alpha$  do exist (already infinitely many exist in degrees 2, 3 or 4, cf. Section 6). The irreducibility part of the above theorem is due to Filaseta and Lam [FL]; the supplement on the Galois group was added in [H2]. The proof of both parts is effective.

At the values of the parameter  $\alpha$  excluded by the theorem of Filaseta and Lam (the negative integers), one finds some of the most interesting families of GLP, e.g. the truncated exponential series, and the Bessel Polynomials (see below). In this paper, we consider irreducibility and Galois groups of GLP for exactly these values of the parameter  $\alpha$ . Note that their exclusion from the theorem is quite necessary; namely, when  $\alpha$  is a negative integer,  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is reducible for all  $n \geq |\alpha|$ . Indeed, writing  $\alpha = -a$  with  $n = a + m$  where  $a$  is an integer in  $[1, n]$  we have

$$(2) \quad \mathcal{L}_n^{(-a)}(x) = x^a \cdot \mathcal{L}_m^{(a)}(x), \quad \mathcal{L}_m^{(a)}(0) \neq 0.^1$$

Given the above observation, namely that for small negative integral values of the parameter  $\alpha$ ,  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is a simple factor times a Laguerre polynomial of positive parameter, it is natural to replace the parameter  $\alpha$  by a parameter  $r$  via the translation

$$\alpha = -1 - n - r,$$

and to consider instead

$$(3) \quad \begin{aligned} L_n^{(r)}(x) &:= L_n^{(-1-n-r)}(x) \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n-j+r}{n-j} \frac{x^j}{j!}. \end{aligned}$$

It is also useful to note that

$$(4) \quad \mathcal{L}_n^{(r)}(x) := n! L_n^{(r)}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} (r+1)(r+2) \cdots (r+n-j) x^j,$$

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<sup>1</sup>Incidentally the repeated roots at the origin evident in the above factorization (for  $2 \leq a \leq n$  i.e.  $-n \leq \alpha \leq -2$ ) explain the presence of the factors  $\alpha + j$ ,  $j = 2, \dots, n$ , in (1). Their multiplicities in the discriminant (i.e.  $j - 1$ ) express the tameness of the corresponding ramified points in the extension  $\mathbb{C}(\alpha) \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}(\alpha)[x]/(L_n^{(\alpha)}(x))$  of function fields. It would be interesting to obtain a similarly conceptual explanation of the factors  $j^j$  as well.

is monic and has positive integer coefficients, assuming, as we do throughout the paper, that  $r$  is a non-negative integer.

The parametrization (3) is a natural one in some respects (in addition to being a convenient representation of the family of polynomials we wish to consider). For instance, differentiation with respect to  $x$  of  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  has the effect of lowering  $n$  by 1 and raising  $\alpha$  by 1, so in the new parametrization, differentiation leaves  $r$  fixed:

$$\partial_x L_n^{(r)}(x) = L_{n-1}^{(r)}(x).$$

Indeed, the most familiar such “derivative-coherent” sequence of polynomials, namely the truncations of the exponential series, is obtained when we set  $r = 0$ :

$$E_n(x) := L_n^{(0)}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{x^j}{j!}.$$

Let us review some known algebraic facts about  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  for small  $r \geq 0$ . The exponential Taylor polynomials  $E_n$  were first studied by Schur. He showed that they are irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  [Sc1], and have Galois group  $A_n$  or  $S_n$  (over  $\mathbb{Q}$ ) according to whether  $n$  is divisible by 4 or not [Sc2]. Coleman [C] gave a different proof of these results. For the case  $r = 1$ , irreducibility and the calculation of the Galois group using methods of Coleman and Schur, respectively, were established in [H1]. Moreover, in [H1], the values of  $n$  for which the splitting field of  $L_n^{(0)}(x)$  or  $L_n^{(1)}(x)$  can be embedded in an  $\tilde{A}_n$ -extension were determined using formulae of Feit [F] and a criterion of Serre [Se]. All of the above was carried out for  $r = 2$  by Sell in [S]. But perhaps the best-studied family of GLP is that of Bessel Polynomials (BP)  $z_n(x)$  which are, simply the monic GLP with  $r = n$ . Namely we have

$$z_n(x) := \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{(2n-j)!}{j!(n-j)!} x^j = \mathcal{L}_n^{(n)}(x).$$

Grosswald pointed out that the BPs play a distinguished role among GLPs due to certain “symmetries” which in our notation amounts to their invariance under exchange of  $r$  and  $n$ . They are arithmetically interesting as well (for example the prime 2 does not ramify in the algebra  $\mathbb{Q}[x]/(z_n(x))$  despite the presence of many powers of 2 in the discriminant of  $z_n$ , cf. (1)). Their irreducibility was conjectured by Grosswald [Gr], who also showed that their Galois group is always the full symmetric group (assuming his conjecture). The irreducibility of all BPs was proved, first for all but finitely many  $n$  by Filaseta [F1], and later for all  $n$  by Filaseta and Trifonov [FT].

As an extension of Grosswald’s conjecture, we have

**Conjecture 1.1.** *For integers  $r, n \geq 0$ ,  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .*

**Conjecture 1.2.** *For integers  $r, n \geq 0$ , if  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , then its Galois group over  $\mathbb{Q}$  contains the alternating group  $A_n$ .*<sup>2</sup>

There is already a fair bit of evidence for this pair of conjectures. As described above, they are true for all  $n$  if  $r = 0, 1, 2$  or  $r = n$ . In Sell [S], it was shown that  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible

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<sup>2</sup>Note that once we know the Galois group of a degree  $n$  polynomial  $f$  contains  $A_n$ , then it is either  $A_n$  or  $S_n$  according to whether the discriminant of  $f$  is a square or not; the latter is easily determined for our polynomials using Schur’s formula (1).

over  $\mathbb{Q}$  if  $\gcd(n, r!) = 1$ ; that is already enough to show that for each fixed  $r$ , Conjecture 1.1 is true for a positive proportion of integers  $n \geq 0$  (this proportion goes to zero quickly with  $r$  however).

Our first and main result is

**Theorem 1.3.** *For a fixed  $r \geq 0$ , all but finitely many  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  are irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and have Galois group (over  $\mathbb{Q}$ ) containing  $A_n$ .*

For a more precise (effective) statement, see Theorems 4.3 and 5.4. The irreducibility part of Theorem 1.3 is a companion of sorts for the Filaseta-Lam Theorem. As an illustration of the effectivity of our approach, and to gather more evidence for Conjectures 1.1 and 1.2, we prove the following theorem.

**Theorem 1.4.** *If  $0 \leq r \leq 8$ , then for all  $n$ ,  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible and has Galois group containing  $A_n$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .*

Investigating the irreducibility of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  for a fixed  $n$  and all large  $r$  has a different flavor; the methods we use here give us only a weak result (see Corollary 2.11). In a joint work with Wong [HW], using algebro-geometric and group-theoretic techniques, we prove that for each fixed  $n \geq 5$ , over a fixed number field  $K$ , all but finitely many  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  are irreducible and have Galois group containing  $A_n$ . In particular, for  $n \geq 5$ , Conjectures 1.1 and 1.2 hold for all  $r$  large enough with respect to  $n$ .

Here, we complement the above result of [HW] by showing that Conjectures 1.1 and 1.2 hold for all  $r \geq 0$  if  $n \leq 4$  (Theorem 6.3). As for the possibility of verifying further cases of these conjectures, the methods used by Filaseta and Trifonov [FT] in proving the irreducibility of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  for  $r = n$  should hopefully yield results in the middle range where  $r \approx n$ .

The basic strategy we use for proving irreducibility of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  was developed by Sell [S] for the case  $r = 2$  as an extension of the proof for  $r = 1$  given in [H1], which was itself an adaptation of Coleman's proof [C] for the case  $r = 0$ . Here is a sketch of it. We fix  $r \geq 0$  and suppose  $g$  is a proper divisor, in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$ . In Step 1, using a criterion of Coleman [C] formalized by Sell [S], we show that  $\deg(g)$  is divisible by  $n_0$ , the largest divisor of  $n$  which is co-prime to  $\binom{n+r}{r}$ . Then  $\deg(g)/n_0$  is at most  $r!$  so is bounded since  $r$  is fixed. In Step 2, thanks to a criterion of Filaseta [F2], we eliminate this bounded number of possibilities for  $\deg(g)/n_0$ , giving the desired contradiction. For Filaseta's criterion to apply, we require the existence of certain auxiliary primes and this is where we have to assume that  $n$  is large with respect to  $r$  so as to apply results from analytic number theory on the existence of primes in short intervals; these are gathered together in section 3.

We should point out that the Coleman and Filaseta criteria are both based on the theory of  $p$ -adic Newton polygons (which we review in the next section). Indeed, the key idea of Step 1 is the simple observation that if  $p$  is a prime divisor of  $n$  which does not divide the constant coefficient of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$ , then the  $p$ -adic Newton polygons of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  and  $E_n$  coincide.

For the computation of the Galois group, we use the criterion described in [H2], which was already implicit in Coleman [C] and is also based on Newton Polygons.

Finally, a bibliographic comment. In Grosswald's meticulously written treatise *Bessel Polynomials* [Gr], he considers not just the BP  $z_n(x)$  but "Generalized Bessel Polynomials (GBP)"  $z_n(x; a)$  and gives much information about their algebraic and analytic properties.

The GBP is just a different parametrization of GLP, as described on p. 36 of [Gr]. Therefore, even though it is not billed as such, Grosswald's book is a rich source of information about GLP.

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## 2. IRREDUCIBILITY CRITERIA

For a prime  $p$  and  $z \in \mathbb{Q}^*$ , we write  $\text{ord}_p(z)$  for the  $p$ -adic valuation of  $z$ :  $\text{ord}_p(z) = a$  where  $z = p^a m/n$  with integers  $m$  and  $n$  not divisible by  $p$ . It is convenient to put  $\text{ord}_p(0) = \infty$ . We extend the  $p$ -adic valuation  $\text{ord}_p$  to the algebraic closure  $\overline{\mathbb{Q}_p}$  of the  $p$ -adic completion  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  of  $\mathbb{Q}$  in the standard way, see Gouvea [G] for example.

For the convenience of the reader, we recall some facts from the theory of  $p$ -adic Newton Polygons as well as a useful corollary due originally to Dumas [D] but rediscovered and used in the context of GLP by Coleman [C]. References include Gouvea [G], Amice [A], Artin [Ar], and Hensel-Landsberg [HL]; the latter is, to the best of my knowledge, where the general notion of  $p$ -adic Newton Polygons originated. An excellent survey on the applications of Newton Polygons for irreducibility is Mott [M].

The  $p$ -adic Newton Polygon (or  $p$ -Newton polygon)  $NP_p(f)$  of a polynomial  $f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j x^j \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  is the lower convex hull of the set of points

$$S_p(f) = \{(j, \text{ord}_p(c_j)) \mid 0 \leq j \leq n\}.$$

It is the highest polygonal line passing on or below the points in  $S_p(f)$ . The vertices  $(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_r, y_r)$ , i.e. the points where the slope of the Newton polygon changes (including the rightmost and leftmost points) are called the *corners* of  $NP_p(f)$ ; their  $x$ -coordinates ( $0 = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_r = n$ ) are the *breaks* of  $NP_p(f)$ . For the  $i$ th edge, joining  $(x_{i-1}, y_{i-1})$  to  $(x_i, y_i)$ , we put

$$H_i = y_i - y_{i-1}, W_i = x_i - x_{i-1}, m_i = H_i/W_i, d_i = \gcd(H_i, W_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, r.$$

We call these quantities, respectively, the *height*, *width*, *slope* and *multiplicity* of the  $i$ th edge. We also put  $w_i = W_i/d_i$ ,  $h_i = H_i/d_i$ , so that  $w_i$  is the denominator, in lowest terms, of  $m_i = H_i/W_i = h_i/w_i$ . The  $i$ th edge is made up of  $d_i$  *segments* of width  $w_i$ . We call the  $i$ th edge *pure* if its multiplicity  $d_i$  is 1.

**Theorem 2.1** (Main Theorem of Newton Polygons). *Let  $(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_r, y_r)$  denote the successive vertices of  $NP_p(f)$ . Then there exist polynomials  $f_1, \dots, f_r$  in  $\mathbb{Q}_p[x]$  such that*

- i)  $f(x) = f_1(x)f_2(x) \cdots f_r(x)$ ,
- ii) the degree of  $f_i$  is  $W_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$ ,
- iii) all the roots of  $f_i$  in  $\overline{\mathbb{Q}_p}$  have  $p$ -adic valuation  $-m_i$ .

*Proof.* See any of the references given above. □

**Corollary 2.2** (Dumas). *With notation as in Theorem 2.1, suppose  $f(x) = g(x)h(x)$  is a factorization of  $f(x)$  over  $\mathbb{Q}_p$ . Then there exist integers  $0 \leq k_i \leq d_i$  such that  $\deg(g) = \sum_{i=1}^r k_i w_i$ . For each  $i = 1, \dots, r$ ,  $f_i$  possesses a  $\mathbb{Q}_p$ -irreducible factor of degree at least  $w_i$ ; in particular,  $f$  possesses a  $\mathbb{Q}_p$ -irreducible factor of degree at least  $\max(w_1, \dots, w_r)$ .*

*Proof.* By the Main Theorem of Newton Polygons, the segments of  $NP_p(g)$  and  $NP_p(h)$  together make up exactly the segments of  $NP_p(f)$ . Since the  $i$ th edge of  $NP_p(f)$  is made up of  $d_i$  segments of width  $w_i = W_i/d_i$ , we have  $\deg(g) = \sum_{i=1}^r k_i w_i$  with integers  $k_i$  in the range  $0 \leq k_i \leq d_i$ . Appealing to the Main Theorem again, we see that a pure edge must correspond to a  $\mathbb{Q}_p$ -irreducible polynomial, giving us the remaining claim.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.3** (Coleman). *Suppose  $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  and  $p$  is a prime. If an integer  $d$  divides the denominator (in lowest terms) of every slope of  $NP_p(f)$ , then  $d$  divides the degree of any factor  $g \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  of  $f$ .*

*Proof.* We give two proofs. First, this is clearly a special case of Dumas' corollary (the hypothesis is precisely that each  $w_i$  is divisible by  $d$ ). Now here is Coleman's proof. By Theorem 2.1, if  $\alpha \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}_p}$  is a root of an irreducible factor  $g$  of  $f$ , then  $p^{\text{ord}_p(n)}$  divides the ramification index of  $\mathbb{Q}_p(\alpha)/\mathbb{Q}_p$  which in turn divides  $[\mathbb{Q}_p(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}_p] = \deg(g)$ . This second proof is a little more revealing in that it identifies the mechanism behind the divisibility of the degree of  $g$  to be the existence of an inertia group of order divisible by  $d$ .  $\square$

**Remark.** This corollary has in fact appeared a number of times in the literature, see Mott [M] and references therein.

Although we will not need it, we mention in passing that the generalization by Dumas [D] of the celebrated Eisenstein Irreducibility Criterion is a simple consequence of the above Corollary.

**Corollary 2.4** (Eisenstein-Dumas Criterion). *Suppose  $f = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  is monic polynomial of degree  $n$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , and  $p$  is a prime. Let  $m = \text{ord}_p(a_0)$ . Assume  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ . If  $\text{ord}_p(a_j) \geq m(1 - j/n)$  for  $j = 0, \dots, n-1$ , then  $f$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .*

*Proof.* The geometric meaning of the last hypothesis is that  $NP_p(f)$  is "pure of slope  $-m/n$ ," meaning it has only one edge and its slope is  $-m/n$ . Since, by assumption,  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ , Coleman's Corollary implies that  $n$  divides the degree of any factor in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  of  $f$ .  $\square$

Now we recall Coleman's computation of the Newton Polygon of  $E_n(x)$  at an arbitrary prime  $p$ . Given an integer  $n \geq 1$  and a prime  $p$ , we will define  $s+1$  integers  $0 = k_0 < k_1 < \dots < k_s = n$  (where  $s$  is the number of non-zero  $p$ -adic digits of  $n$ ) called the pivotal indices associated to  $(n, p)$  as follows. Let us write  $n$  in base  $p$  recording only the non-zero digits, namely

$$n = b_1p^{e_1} + b_2p^{e_2} + \dots + b_s p^{e_s}, \quad 0 < b_1, \dots, b_s < p, \quad e_1 > e_2 > \dots > e_s \geq 0.$$

The *pivotal indices associated to  $(n, p)$*  are the partial sums

$$(5) \quad k_i = b_1p^{e_1} + b_2p^{e_2} + \dots + b_i p^{e_i}, \quad i = 0, \dots, s.$$

Note that  $k_0 = 0$  and  $k_s = n$ . This definition is motivated by Coleman's calculation of  $NP_p(E_n)$  (see Lemma 2.6 below). We will also see that a fundamental fact about the GLP  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  for  $r \geq 0$  is that its  $p$ -Newton polygons lies on or above  $NP_p(E_n)$ . To explain this, we introduce some more terminology.

**Definition 2.5.** *Suppose  $f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \frac{x^j}{j!} \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  and  $p$  is a prime number. Following Pólya and Szegő, we call  $f$   $p$ -Hurwitz integral if  $\text{ord}_p(a_j) \geq 0$  for  $j = 0, \dots, n$ . We call it*

Hurwitz integral if it is  $p$ -Hurwitz integral for all primes  $p$ , i.e. if the Hurwitz coefficients  $a_j$  are integral. We say that  $f$  is  $p$ -Coleman integral if  $f$  is  $p$ -Hurwitz integral and additionally  $\text{ord}_p(a_{k_i}) = 0$  for  $i = 0, \dots, s$  with  $k_i$  as defined in (5), i.e. the Hurwitz coefficients are all  $p$ -integral and the pivotal ones are  $p$ -units.

This definition is motivated by the following Lemma.

**Lemma 2.6.** *If  $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  is  $p$ -Coleman integral of degree  $n$ , then*

- i)  $NP_p(f) = NP_p(E_n)$ ;
- ii) *the breaks of  $NP_p(f)$  are precisely the pivotal indices associated to  $(n, p)$ ;*
- iii) *the slopes of  $NP_p(f)$  all have denominator divisible by  $p^{\text{ord}_p(n)}$ .*

*Proof.* We know from Coleman [C] that the breaks of  $NP_p(E_n)$  are the pivotal points associated to  $(n, p)$ . Since  $f$  is  $p$ -Hurwitz integral,  $NP_p(f)$  lies on or above  $NP_p(E_n)$ . On the other hand, by definition, the corners of  $NP_p(E_n)$  lie on  $NP_p(f)$ , so  $NP_p(f) = NP_p(E_n)$ . The last assertion iii) follows from ii) and (5).  $\square$

Our proof of Theorem 1.3 rests on the following two irreducibility criteria.

**Lemma 2.7** (The Coleman Criterion). *Suppose  $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  has degree  $n$  and  $p$  is a prime number. If  $f$  is  $p$ -Coleman integral, then  $p^{\text{ord}_p(n)}$  divides the degree of any factor  $g \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  of  $f$ . If  $f$  is  $p$ -Coleman integral for all primes  $p$  dividing  $n$ , then  $f$  is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ .*

*Proof.* This is essentially Theorem 1.7 of Sell [S]. By Lemma 2.6, the slopes of  $NP_p(f)$  all have denominator divisible by  $p^{\text{ord}_p(n)}$ . Now apply Corollary 2.3.  $\square$

Dumas's observed that the Newton Polygon of the product of two polynomials is formed by the concatenation, in ascending slope, of their edges (i.e. is their Minkowski sum, see the proof of Corollary 2.2); this is the key tool in the proof of the following criterion due to Filaseta (see [F2] for the proof of a slightly more general version, but note that the convention for Newton Polygons in that paper differs slightly from ours).

**Lemma 2.8** (Filaseta Criterion). *Suppose*

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j \frac{x^j}{j!} \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$$

*is Hurwitz-integral and  $|b_0| = 1$ . Let  $k$  be a positive integer  $\leq n/2$ . Suppose there exists a prime  $p \geq k + 1$  such that*

$$n(n-1) \cdots (n-k+1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}, \quad b_n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

*Then  $f(x)$  cannot have a factor of degree  $k$  in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ .*

We now give the key calculation allowing the application of the Coleman Criterion to our family of polynomials.

**Lemma 2.9.** *i) If  $p$  is a prime divisor of  $n$ , then  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is  $p$ -Coleman integral if and only if  $\binom{n+r}{r} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .*

*ii) If  $\text{ord}_p(n) > \text{ord}_p(r!)$ , then  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is  $p$ -Coleman integral.*

*Proof.* From (3), we see that

$$L_n^{(r)}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \frac{x^j}{j!}, \quad a_j = \frac{(n-j+1)(n-j+2)\cdots(n-j+r)}{r!},$$

is clearly Hurwitz integral. From (5) we have  $k_0 = 0$  and we also recall that

$$a_0 = \binom{n+r}{r} = (n+1)\cdots(n+r)/r!.$$

Since  $k_i \equiv 0 \pmod{p^{\text{ord}_p(n)}}$  for each  $i$ , we have  $a_{k_i} \equiv a_0 \pmod{p}$ . Thus, the pivotal coefficients  $a_{k_i}$  are all  $p$ -units if and only if  $a_0$  is a  $p$ -unit, i.e.  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is  $p$ -Coleman integral if and only if  $\text{ord}_p(a_0) = 0$ , proving i)

From the definition of  $a_0$ , we have

$$a_0 \equiv 1 \pmod{p^{\text{ord}_p(n) - \text{ord}_p(r!)}}$$

so ii) follows from i). □

**Theorem 2.10.** i) If  $\gcd(n, \binom{n+r}{r}) = 1$ , then  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .  
 ii) If  $\gcd(n, r!) = 1$ , then  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$

*Proof.* If  $n$  is coprime to  $\binom{n+r}{r}$ ,  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is  $p$ -Coleman integral for every prime divisor  $p$  of  $n$  by Lemma 2.9, so it is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  by the Coleman Criterion 2.7. Part ii), which was first obtained by Sell [S], follows from i) since  $\gcd(n, r!) = 1$  implies  $\gcd(n, \binom{n+r}{r}) = 1$  □

**Remark.** In connection with part i) of Lemma 2.9, note that  $p \nmid \binom{n+r}{r}$  if and only if there are no ‘‘carries’’ in the addition  $n+r$  in base  $p$ . Indeed, recalling that  $\text{ord}_p(n!) = \frac{n - \sigma_p(n)}{p-1}$  where  $\sigma_p(n)$  is the sum of the  $p$ -adic digits of  $n$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ord}_p(a_0) &= \text{ord}_p((n+r)!) - \text{ord}_p(n!) - \text{ord}_p(r!) \\ &= \frac{\sigma_p(n) + \sigma_p(r) - \sigma_p(n+r)}{p-1}. \end{aligned}$$

But the latter expression is precisely the number of carries in the base  $p$  addition of  $n$  and  $r$ . For example, if, say,  $n = p$  is prime, then  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  as long as  $-r \not\equiv 1, 2, \dots, p \pmod{p^2}$ . More generally, we have

**Corollary 2.11.** For each  $n$ , there is a set of integers  $r \geq 0$  of density at least  $\prod_{p|n} p^{-\text{ord}_p(n)-1}$  for which  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

*Proof.* If  $r \equiv 0 \pmod{p^{\text{ord}_p(n)+1}}$ , then the addition of  $n$  and  $r$  in base  $p$  cannot have a carry. Thus, if  $r$  is divisible by  $\prod_{p|n} p^{\text{ord}_p(n)+1}$ , then by Theorem 2.10 and the Remark following it,  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . □

### 3. PRIMES IN SHORT INTERVALS

For the proof of Theorem 1.3, we will need to establish the existence of primes of appropriate size, namely primes for which the Newton polygon of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  precludes the existence of factors of certain degrees. We will state two such results here, to be used in the next section.

The first is a well-known consequence of the Prime Number Theorem, generalizing Chebyshev's Postulate. For lack of a suitable reference with an explicit constant, a proof is supplied.

**Theorem 3.1.** *Given  $h \geq 2$ , there exists a constant  $C(h)$  such that whenever  $N > C(h)$ , the interval  $[N(1 - 1/h), N]$  contains a prime. We may take*

$$C(h) = e^{h+1/2}(1 - 1/h)^{-h}.$$

*Proof.* We have from Rosser and Schoenfeld [RS], that

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(x) &> \frac{x}{\log x - 0.5} && \text{for } 67 \leq x \\ \pi(x) &< \frac{x}{\log x - 1.5} && \text{for } e^{1.5} < x. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $h \geq 2$ , the first inequality applies for  $x = N$  and the second one applies for  $x = N - N/h$ , assuming only  $N \geq 67$ . We then have

$$\pi(N) - \pi(N - N/h) > \frac{N}{\log N - 0.5} - \frac{N - N/h}{\log N + \log(1 - 1/h) - 1.5}.$$

Combining the fractions, the right hand side is positive if and only if

$$\log N > 1/2 + h - h \log(1 - 1/h),$$

proving the lemma, for  $N \geq 67$ . We have  $C(2) = 4e^{2.5} > 48$ . For  $N \in [48, 67]$ , one easily checks by hand that the lemma holds. Note that  $C(h) \rightarrow e^{h-1/2}$  as  $h \rightarrow \infty$ .  $\square$

For Galois group computations in Section 5, we record

**Corollary 3.2.** *If  $n + r \geq 48$  and  $n \geq 8 + 5r/3$ , then there exists a prime  $p$  in the interval  $(n + r)/2 < p < n - 2$ .*

*Proof.* Apply the Theorem with  $h = 5$ .  $\square$

For the proof of Theorem 1.4, we will use the following result from Harborth-Kemnitz [HK], which is a combination of Theorem 3.1 together with a finite but long computation.

**Theorem 3.3** (Harborth-Kemnitz). *If  $n \geq 48683$ , then the interval  $(n, 1.001n]$  contains a prime.*

While Theorem 3.1 suffices for the proof of Theorem 1.3, we may also apply the following stronger, but less concrete, estimate.

**Theorem 3.4** (Baker-Harman-Pintz [BHP]). *There is an absolute constant  $A$ , such that for every  $x > A$ , the interval  $[x - x^{0.525}, x]$  contains a prime.*

#### 4. IRREDUCIBILITY OF $L_n^{(r)}(x)$ FOR LARGE $n$

We fix  $r \geq 0$ , and write  $n = n_0 n_1 = n_2 n_3$  where

$$(6) \quad n_1 = \prod_{p \mid \gcd(n, \binom{n+r}{r})} p^{\text{ord}_p(n)}, \quad n_3 = \prod_{\substack{p \mid n \\ \text{ord}_p(n) \leq \text{ord}_p(r!)}} p^{\text{ord}_p(n)}.$$

Note that the  $n_0$  is the largest divisor of  $n$  which is coprime to  $\binom{n+r}{r}$ . We also have  $n_2 \mid n_0$  (see the proof of Lemma 2.9), so  $n_1 \mid n_3 \mid \gcd(n, r!)$ . Consequently,

$$(7) \quad n_1 \leq r!,$$

which is a somewhat crude estimate (see the proof of Theorem 1.4) but suffices for the proof of Theorem 1.3.

**Lemma 4.1.** *If there is a prime  $p$  satisfying*

$$\max\left(\frac{n+r}{2}, n - n_0\right) < p \leq n,$$

*then  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .*

*Proof.* By Lemma 2.9 and Lemma 2.7, every  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ -factor of  $f$  has degree divisible by  $n_0$ . If  $n_1 = 1$ , then  $n = n_0$  and we are done, so we assume  $n_1 > 1$  and proceed by contradiction. We suppose  $f$  has a  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ -factor of positive degree  $k \leq n/2$ . We know that

$$k \in \{n_0, 2n_0, 3n_0, \dots, (n_1 - 1)n_0\}.$$

To eliminate these possibilities, we apply the Filaseta Criterion. Since the latter requires the constant coefficient to be 1, we renormalize our polynomial by setting

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= a_0^{-1} L_n^{(r)}(a_0 x) \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^n b_j \frac{x^j}{j!} \end{aligned}$$

with integral Hurwitz coefficients  $b_j = a_0^{j-1} a_j$  where  $a_0 = \binom{n+r}{r}$ . Note that  $b_0 = 1$  and  $b_n = a_0^{n-1}$ . Of course, the factorization over  $\mathbb{Q}$  of  $f(x)$  mirrors exactly that of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$ . With the hypotheses on  $p$ , we have  $p \geq k + 1$  (since  $k \leq n/2$ ). Moreover,  $p \geq n - k + 1$  since  $k \geq n_0$ . Finally,  $p \nmid b_n = a_0^{n-1}$  since  $(n+r)/2 < p < n+1$ . Applying the Filaseta Criterion 2.8 to  $f(x)$ , we find it does not have a factor of degree  $k$ , hence neither does  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$ , giving the desired contradiction.  $\square$

**Lemma 4.2.** *Given  $r \geq 0$ , there exists a constant  $B(r)$  such that for every integer  $n \geq B(r)$ , there exists a prime  $p$  satisfying*

$$\max\left(\frac{n+r}{2}, n - n_0\right) < p \leq n,$$

*where  $n_0$  is the largest divisor of  $n$  coprime to  $\binom{n+r}{r}$ . We may take either*

$$B(r) = e^{r+1/2} (1 - 1/r!)^{-r!} \text{ or } B(r) = \max(A, (r!)^{2.11}),$$

*where  $A$  is as in Theorem 3.4.*

*Proof.* By (7),  $n_1 \leq r!$ , so  $n - n_0 = n - n/n_1 \leq n(1 - 1/h)$  with  $h = r!$ . By Lemma 3.1, there exists a prime in the interval  $[n - n_0, n]$  assuming only  $n \geq e^{h+1/2}(1 - 1/h)^{-h}$ . Under this hypothesis, one easily verifies that  $(n + r)/2 < n - n_0$ ; indeed merely  $n/r > r!/(r! - 2)$  suffices. This establishes the lemma with  $B(r) = e^{r+1/2}/(1 - 1/r!)^{r!}$ .

Alternatively, if we apply Theorem 3.4 instead, we have  $[n - n_0, n]$  contains a prime once  $n > A$  and  $n - n/h \leq n - n^{0.525}$ , i.e. if  $n > \max(A, (r!)^{2.11})$ . While this gives a better bound than the one in the previous paragraph (polynomial vs. exponential in  $r!$ ), it would be effective only once the constant  $A$  is actually computed.  $\square$

Combining the above Lemmata gives the proof of the first part of Theorem 1.3. More precisely, we have proved

**Theorem 4.3.** *If  $n \geq B(r)$ , with  $B(r)$  as given in Lemma 4.2, then  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .*

## 5. GALOIS GROUPS

We begin by recalling a simple criterion based on ramification (as measured by the Newton polygon) for an irreducible polynomial to have “large” Galois group.

**Definition 5.1.** *Given  $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ , let  $\mathcal{N}_f$ , called the Newton Index of  $f$ , be the least common multiple of the denominators (in lowest terms) of all slopes of  $NP_p(f)$  as  $p$  ranges over all primes.*

To see that  $\mathcal{N}_f$  is well-defined, first note that 0 is defined to have denominator 1, so slope 0 segments of  $NP_p(f)$  do not contribute to  $\mathcal{N}_f$ . On the other hand, for  $p$  large enough, all coefficients of  $f$  have  $p$ -adic valuation 0 so  $NP_p(f)$  consists of a single slope 0 segment. For a monic polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , for example, the Newton Index requires merely the computation of  $NP_p(f)$  for the prime divisors  $p$  of its constant coefficient. Note also that  $\mathcal{N}_f$  divides the least common multiple of the first  $n$  positive integers, where  $n = \deg(f)$ .

The following result (see Hajir [H2] for a proof) can be quite useful for calculating the Galois group of polynomials with “generic” ramification.

**Theorem 5.2.** *Given an irreducible polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ ,  $\mathcal{N}_f$  divides the order of the Galois group of  $f$ . Moreover, if  $\mathcal{N}_f$  has a prime divisor  $q$  in the range  $n/2 < q < n - 2$ , where  $n$  is the degree of  $f$ , then the Galois group of  $f$  contains  $A_n$ .*

**Example.** If  $f(x) = L_5^{(3)}(x)$ , then  $f$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  by Lemma 2.9. An easy calculation shows  $\mathcal{N}_f = 60$ ; indeed we need only consider  $p = 2, 3, 5, 7$ , for which  $NP_p(f)$  has slopes whose denominators are divisible by, respectively, 4, 3, 5 and 2. Thus, the Galois group of  $f$  has order divisible by 60. Since the discriminant of  $f$  is not a square (by (1) or (8) below), the Galois group of  $f$  is  $S_5$ .

**Lemma 5.3.** *Suppose  $p$  is a prime in the interval  $(n + r)/2 < p \leq n$ . Then the  $p$ -Newton polygon of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  has  $-1/p$  as a slope. In particular,  $p | \mathcal{N}_{L_n^{(r)}(x)}$ .*

*Proof.* Under the assumptions, it is an exercise to calculate the  $p$ -Newton polygon of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  directly from (3); instead, we use the tools we have developed to get the result. According to Lemma 2.6, the corners of  $NP_p(E_n)$  have  $x$ -coordinate 0,  $p$ , and  $n$  (simply 0 and  $n$  if  $p = n$  of course), so it has  $-1/p$  as a slope. Writing  $L_n^{(r)}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j x^j / j!$ , one checks easily that

$\text{ord}_p(a_0) = \text{ord}_p(a_p) = 0$ , and we always have  $\text{ord}_p(a_n) = 0$  since  $a_n = 1$ . Since  $NP_p(L_n^{(r)})$  lies on or above  $NP_p(E_n)$ , and they agree at the corners of the latter, they must coincide.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.4.** *i) If there exists a prime  $p$  satisfying  $(n+r)/2 < p < n-2$ , and if  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , then its Galois group over  $\mathbb{Q}$  contains  $A_n$ .*

*ii) If  $n \geq \max(48-r, 8+5r/3)$ , and if  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , then its Galois group over  $\mathbb{Q}$  contains  $A_n$ .*

*iii) For  $n > B(r)$  with  $B(r)$  as in Lemma 4.2, the Galois group of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  contains  $A_n$ .*

*Proof.* We apply Corollary 3.2 in combination with Theorem 5.2 and Lemma 5.3. For iii), we require Theorem 4.3 as well.  $\square$

We have thus completed the proof of Theorem 1.3. We remark that Schur's original method ([Sc2], Satz A), which was used in [H1] for the case  $r = 1$ , would yield a proof of Theorem 5.4 as well.

**Remark.** By plugging in  $\alpha = -1-n-r$  in Schur's formula (1), the discriminant of  $n!L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is seen to be

$$(8) \quad \Delta_n^{(r)} = (-1)^{n(n-1)/2} \prod_{j=1}^{n-1} (j+1)^{j+1} (r+j)^{n-j}.$$

In particular,  $\Delta_n^{(r)} < 0$ , for  $n \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$  (recall our blanket assumption  $r \geq 0$ ). For these values of  $n$ , therefore, we know that the Galois group of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is not contained in  $A_n$ . If we fix  $n > 5, n \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$ , then by (8), the Galois group of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is contained in  $A_n$  if and only if  $r$  is the  $x$ -coordinate of an integral point on a (fixed) smooth curve of genus at least 1, of which there are only finitely many by Siegel's theorem. Thus, Conjecture 1.2 would imply that, for fixed  $n$ , the Galois group of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is  $S_n$  except for a (small) finite number of integers  $r \geq 0$ .

Similarly, for fixed  $r$ , if  $r$  is small, the proportion of  $n$  for which  $\Delta_n^{(r)}$  is a square can be large if  $r$  is small (as we have already seen for  $r = 0, 1, 2$ ). Filaseta has pointed out that this is not so for large  $r$ . Specifically, one can check that for  $r = 3$ ,  $\Delta_n^{(r)}$  is a square if and only if  $n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and  $n+2$  is 3 times a square; for  $r = 4, 5$ , the  $n$  for which  $\Delta_n^{(r)}$  is a square occur in Fibonacci-type recurrences, namely, for  $r = 4$ ,  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$  and  $2n+4 = \epsilon_3^j + \epsilon_3^{-j}$  for some  $j$ , and similarly for  $r = 5$ ,  $n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and  $2n+6 = \epsilon_{15}^j + \epsilon_{15}^{-j}$  for some  $j$ . Here  $\epsilon_3 = 2 + \sqrt{3}$ ,  $\epsilon_{15} = 4 + \sqrt{15}$  are the fundamental units of  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{15})$  respectively. For fixed  $r \geq 6$ , if  $n \equiv (r+1)^2 \pmod{4}$ , then for  $n$  large enough,  $\Delta_n^{(r)}$  cannot be a square because its  $p$ -valuation must be 1 for some prime  $p \in ((n+r)/2, n+r)$ ; on the other hand, if  $n \equiv r^2 \pmod{4}$ , then integers  $n$  for which  $\Delta_n^{(r)}$  is a square correspond to integral points on a smooth curve  $y^2 = c_r(x+2) \cdots (x+2\lfloor r/2 \rfloor)$  of positive genus (for some easily determined non-zero constant  $c_r$ ); there are, therefore, only finitely many such  $n$  by Siegel's theorem.

## 6. PROPERTIES OF $L_n^{(r)}(x)$ FOR $n \leq 4$

In this section, as well as the next, we establish more evidence for Conjectures 1.1 and 1.2 of a somewhat complementary nature to Theorem 1.3. Namely, we fix  $n$  and consider those  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$  for which  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . This point of view has a rather different flavor. For arbitrary  $n$ , the methods of this paper allowed us to get only a weak result (Corollary 2.11) in this direction. If  $n \geq 5$ , a much more fruitful, algebro-geometric, point of view, adopted in [HW], is to consider the covering of curves  $\mathcal{X}_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^1$  given by the projection-to- $y$  map, where  $\mathcal{X}_1 : \mathcal{L}_n^{(y)}(x) = 0$  is the projective curve defined by the  $n$ th degree GLP. The Galois closure of this cover, call it  $\mathcal{X}'$ , has monodromy group  $S_n$  (by Schur's result that  $\mathcal{L}_n^{(0)}(x)$  has Galois group  $S_n$ ). By estimating from below the genus of  $\mathcal{X}_1$  and other quotients of  $\mathcal{X}'$ , the following theorem was proved in [HW].

**Theorem 6.1** (Hajir-Wong). *Suppose an integer  $n \geq 5$  and a number field  $K$  are fixed. There is a finite subset  $\mathcal{E}(n, K) \subset K$  such that for  $\alpha \in K - \mathcal{E}(n, K)$ , we have i)  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $K$ , and ii) the Galois group of  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  contains  $A_n$  (if  $5 \leq n \leq 9$ ), is the full symmetric group (if  $n \geq 10$ ).*

Applying the theorem with  $K = \mathbb{Q}$ , we have the following nice complement to the main theorem 1.3 of this paper.

**Corollary 6.2.** *For each  $n \geq 5$ , there is a bound  $C_n$  such that Conjectures 1.1 and 1.2 hold for the pair  $(n, r)$  whenever  $r \geq C_n$ .*

**Remark.** The constant  $C_n$  in the above Corollary is ineffective since the proof of the Theorem preceding it rests on Faltings' theorem on finitude of rational points on curves of genus at least 2; for the Corollary, we could apply Siegel's theorem on integral points instead, but this does not resolve the effectivity issue either since for  $n \geq 5$ , the relevant curves have genus greater than 1.

For  $n \leq 4$ , on the other hand, GLP admitting proper factors over  $\mathbb{Q}$  turn out to be plentiful, as such factors correspond to rational points on certain curves of genus 0 or 1. In this section, we calculate the (very few) *integral* points on these curves effectively, thereby establishing Conjectures 1.1 and 1.2 for  $n \leq 4$  and all  $r \geq 0$ . We summarize the results in the following theorem. During the proof, we will give parametrizations for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $n \leq 4$ , for which  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is  $\mathbb{Q}$ -reducible. We also parametrize, for  $n = 4$ , an infinite family of specializations which are reducible but have exceptional Galois group  $D_4$ .

**Theorem 6.3.** (a) *If  $n \leq 4$  and  $r \geq 0$ , then  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and has Galois group containing  $A_n$ . If  $n \leq 3$ , this Galois group is in fact the full symmetric group  $S_n$ .*

(b) *For each  $n \in \{2, 3, 4\}$ , there exist infinitely many rational numbers  $\alpha$  such that  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is reducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .*

(c) *There are infinitely many rational numbers  $\alpha$  for which  $L_4^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  with Galois group not containing  $A_4$ .*

*Proof.* To prove irreducibility of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  for a fixed  $n$ , and arbitrary  $r \geq 0$ , the techniques we have used so far (the existence of ramification at primes dividing  $n!$ ) would have to be modified, because for suitable  $r$ , not all primes less than  $n$  ramify in the splitting field of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . We can take a more direct approach. For  $n = 2$ , the sign in the discriminant

formula (8) is already enough to show the irreducibility of all  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  for  $n = 2$ , and the same formula shows that  $L_2^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is reducible exactly when  $\alpha + 2$  is a rational square. It also shows that  $L_3^{(r)}(x)$  does not have Galois group  $A_3$ .

Now suppose  $n = 3$ . Let  $s = r + 1$  and put

$$f(x) := 3!L_3^{(r)}(x - r - 1) = x^3 + 3sx + 2s.$$

We need to show that  $f(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . It suffices to show that  $f$  does not vanish on  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose  $f(m) = 0$  for some integer  $m$ . Writing

$$s = \frac{-m^3}{3m + 2},$$

we see that for an odd prime  $p$  dividing  $s$ ,  $\text{ord}_p(s) = 3\text{ord}_p(m)$  because  $p|s$  implies  $p|m$  which implies  $p \nmid 3m + 2$ . Let us write  $s = 2^a s_0$ ,  $m = 2^b m_0$  where  $s_0$  and  $m_0$  are odd integers. We then have

$$2^{b-1} \cdot 3 \cdot m_0 + 1 = -2^{3b-a-1}.$$

Thus,  $3b \geq a + 1$ . If  $3b = a + 1$ , then  $2^{b-1} \cdot 3 \cdot m_0 = -2$  which is not possible, so  $3b > a + 1$ . By (6),  $2^{b-1} \cdot 3 \cdot m + 1$  is even, so we must have  $b = 1$ . But then  $a \in \{0, 1, 2\}$  and each of these is easily eliminated. Thus,  $f(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Moreover, we see immediately that  $L_3^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is *reducible* over  $\mathbb{Q}$  for infinitely many rational numbers  $\alpha$ , and that this is so exactly for those of the form

$$\alpha = \frac{m^3 - 9m - 6}{3m + 2}, \quad m \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

For  $n = 4$ , we consider linear factors and quadratic factors separately. We start by simplifying the model via killing the trace term as before, i.e. we reparametrize with  $s = r + 1$  again and define

$$g(x, s) := 4!L_4^{(s-1)}(x - s) = x^4 + 6sx^2 + 8sx + 3s^2 + 6s.$$

A  $\mathbb{Q}$ -linear factor  $(x - x_0)$  of  $g(x, s_0)$  for a rational number  $s_0$  corresponds exactly to a (finite) rational point  $(x_0, s_0)$  on the curve  $\mathcal{X}_1 : g(x, s) = 0$ . It is easy to see that this curve has genus 1, so is elliptic ( $(0, 0)$  is on it). Upon using the Cayley-Hermite formula, (implemented in Maple 7 for example), to put  $\mathcal{X}_1$  in Weierstrass form, we find it is birational to the minimal Weierstrass model  $384H2 : Y^2 = X^3 + X^2 - 25X + 119$ , of conductor  $384 = 2^7 \cdot 3$ , where

$$x = 6 \frac{4X + Y + 28}{X^2 - 22X - 95}, \quad s = -216 \frac{X^2 + 10X + 8Y + 129}{X^4 - 44X^3 + 294X^2 + 4180X + 9025}.$$

Here we are using the notation from Cremona's table (available, for instance, in a very usable format at [PRT]), from which we learn that this elliptic curve has infinite Mordell-Weil group over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , generated by the point  $P_1 = (-1, 12)$  of infinite order and the 2-torsion point  $P_0 = (-7, 0)$ . This completes the proof of (b). By the usual height arguments, it is not difficult to show that the only integral points on  $g(x, s) = 0$  are

$$(0, 0), (0, -2), (3, -1), (4, -2), (-1, -1), (-2, -2), (-3, -3), (3, -27), (-3, -9).$$

All but the last two of these correspond to the trivial factorizations (see (2)). This verifies that for  $n = 4$  and integers  $r \geq 0$  (as well as integers  $r \leq -11$ ),  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  does not have a

linear factor over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Note the exceptional factorization for  $s = -9, -27$ , i.e.  $r = -10, -28$ , corresponds to the factors  $x - 6$  and  $x - 30$  in  $L_4^{(5)}(x)$  and  $L_4^{(23)}(x)$  respectively.

The quadratic factors of  $L_4^{(r)}(x)$  are also parametrized by a curve ( $\mathcal{X}_2$  let us call it), for which we can find a model by writing

$$g(x, s) = x^4 + 6sx^2 + 8sx + 3s^2 + 6s = (x^2 + Ax + B)(x^2 - Ax + C)$$

and equating coefficients. A simple elimination of the resulting equations gives us the curve

$$\mathcal{X}_2 : h(A^2, s) = 0,$$

where

$$h(z, s) := z^3 + 12sz^2 + 24s(s-1)z - 64s^2,$$

is the cubic resolvent of  $g(x, s)$ . One checks that  $\mathcal{X}_2$  also has genus 1 and is birational to  $384H1 : Y^2 = X^3 + X^2 - 35X + 69$  via

$$A = \frac{-6Y}{X^2 + 4X - 23}, \quad s = \frac{-27(X-3)^2}{(2X-5)(X^2 + 4X - 23)}.$$

Thus,  $\mathcal{X}_1$  and  $\mathcal{X}_2$  in fact form an isogeny class of order 2. (Note in passing that, with respect to the projection-to- $s$  map, the fiber product  $\mathcal{X}' = \mathcal{X}_1 \times_{\mathbb{P}^1} \mathcal{X}_2$  is the minimal Galois cover of either). In particular,  $\mathcal{X}_2$  also has rank 1, with Mordell-Weil group generated by  $P_1 = (1, 6)$  together with 2-torsion point  $(3, 0)$ . We find the integral points on this curve correspond exactly to the previously known trivial factorizations, namely  $(0, 0), (\pm 2, -2), (\pm 2, -1), (\pm 4, -2)$ . This completes the proof of conjecture 1.1 for  $n \leq 4$ .

Turning to the Galois group over  $\mathbb{Q}$  of  $g(x, s)$ , we know that it contains  $A_4$  if and only if the cubic resolvent  $h(z, s)$  does not have a rational root, i.e. if and only if the curve  $\mathcal{Y}_2 : h(z, s) = 0$ , over which  $\mathcal{X}_2$  is a double cover, does not have a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -rational point. Considering  $h(z, s)$  as a quadratic in  $s$  with discriminant  $(4z)^2(3z^2 - 20z + 36)$ , we see that the integral (or rational) points on  $\mathcal{Y}_2$  correspond the integral (rational) points on the conic  $w^2 = 3z^2 - 20z + 36$ . This already suffices to prove (c), and one can give an explicit formula

$$s = \frac{z(12 - 6z \pm \sqrt{3z^2 - 20z + 36})}{8(3z - 8)}, \quad (3z - 10)^2 - 3w^2 = -8,$$

for rational values of the parameter  $s$  at which  $L_4^{(s-1)}(x)$  has dihedral Galois group  $D_4$  (hence is not contained in  $A_4$ ); it is clear that the values of  $s, w, z$  can be parametrized by the trace of powers of the fundamental unit of  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$  or a corresponding suitable recurrence. If  $s$  is restricted to the integers, then by Gauss's Lemma,  $z$  and  $w$  are also integers, and one again shows that  $s = 0, -1, -2$  give the only integral points on the model  $\mathcal{Y}_2$ ; we omit the details. This completes the proof of Conjecture 1.2 for  $n \leq 4$ , as well as that of the theorem.  $\square$

**Remark.** The Galois group of  $L_4^{(4)}(x)$  is  $A_4$  for infinitely many integers  $r$ , namely exactly those expressible as  $r = -2 + \sqrt{12k^2 + 1}$ , with  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  (these can be parametrized by the trace of powers of the fundamental unit of  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$ ), or by a suitable recurrence.

## 7. PROOF OF THEOREM 1.4

Now we want to prove Conjectures 1.1 and 1.2 for arbitrary  $n$  and small  $r$ .

*Proof of Theorem 1.4.* As mentioned earlier, the cases  $r = 0, 1, 2$  have already appeared in the literature, missing only the calculation of a few Galois groups for small  $n$ . Since it is no extra work we give a uniform proof here for all  $0 \leq r \leq 8$ . By Theorem 4.3, this has been reduced to a finite calculation, but the bound given there is prohibitively large, since  $B(8)$  is greater than  $2 \cdot 10^{17511}$ .

We begin by sharpening the bound (7). Recall our notation that  $n_0$  is the largest divisor of  $n$  coprime to  $\binom{n+r}{n}$ , and  $n_1 = n/n_0$  is its complement. We have  $n_1 | \gcd(n, r!)$ .

We claim that for  $r \leq 8$  and all  $n \geq 1$ ,  $n_1 \leq 840$ . We know that in this range,  $n_1 | 8! = 2^7 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7$ , so it suffices to prove that  $\text{ord}_2(n_1) < 4$ ,  $\text{ord}_3(n_1) < 2$ . Both of these facts follow easily from the following observation. Recall that a prime  $p$  divides  $\binom{n+r}{n}$  if and only if there is a carry in the base- $p$  addition of  $n$  and  $r$ . Thus, if  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{p^a}$ , and  $r < p^a$ , then  $p$  does not divide  $\binom{n+r}{n}$  so  $p$  does not divide  $n_1$ . Since  $8 < 2^4$  and  $8 < 3^2$ , we are done. In general, by this argument we have, for a given fixed  $r$ , that

$$n_1 \leq \prod_{p|r!} p^{\lfloor \log_p(r) \rfloor}.$$

Thus, for  $0 \leq r \leq 8$  and  $n \geq 1$ , we have  $n - n_0 = n(1 - 1/n_1) \leq (839/840)n$ . By Theorem 3.3, the interval  $(839n/840, n]$  contains a prime for  $n \geq 48742$  (note that  $1/839 = 0.00119\dots > 0.001$ ; one checks easily then that we can replace 48742 by 44350 if we wish). For  $0 \leq r \leq 8$ ,  $n \geq 9$ , we have  $n - n_0 \geq (n+r)/2$ ; we have therefore shown that for  $0 \leq r \leq 8$ ,  $n \geq 48742$ , there exists a prime  $p$  in the range  $\max((n+r)/2, n - n_0) < p \leq n$ . This proves the irreducibility of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  for  $n \geq 48742$  by Lemma 4.1.

Now we need to handle the small degrees. By Theorem 6.3, we can take  $n \geq 4$ . Using PARI, for each pair  $(n, r)$  in the box  $4 \leq n \leq 48741$ ,  $0 \leq r \leq 8$ , we calculated  $n_0$  and checked i) whether  $n = n_0$ , and ii) whether the smallest prime exceeding  $\max((n+r)/2, n - n_0)$  is at most  $n$  (PARI is equipped with a table of primes). If i) holds, then  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible by Theorem 2.10, and if ii) holds, then  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible by Lemma 4.1. It took PARI only a few seconds to verify that among these 438642 pairs  $(r, n)$ , only 24 cases remain (listed in Table 1) where neither Lemma 4.1 nor Theorem 2.10 applies. We verified using PARI's routine `polisirreducible` that for these remaining pairs,  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible.

In order to supply a more tangible certificate of irreducibility, we list in Table 1, with one exception, a prime  $\ell$  such that the reduction  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible in  $\mathbb{F}_\ell[x]$ . The pair  $(4, 5)$  is exceptional because the discriminant of  $L_4^{(5)}(x)$  is a square, so by a theorem of Stickelberger, this polynomial is never irreducible over a prime field  $\mathbb{F}_\ell$ . It is simple enough to check that  $L_4^{(5)}(x)$  has no linear factor, and we can verify that it has no quadratic factor, for example, by applying Lemma 1 from [FL] to  $4!L_4^{(5)}(x)$  with  $k = 2, \ell = 1, p = 7$ . The very last entry in the table is also interesting. Although  $L_{120}^{(8)}$  is not  $p$ -Coleman integral for any prime divisor  $p$  of 120, one checks that all slopes of its  $p$ -Newton polygon are divisible by  $p$  for  $p = 3$  and  $p = 5$ . By Corollary 2.3, 15 divides the degree of any irreducible factor of  $L_{120}^{(8)}$ . Thus, even though  $n_0 = 1$ , we can apply Lemma 2.10 with  $n_0 = 15$  and  $p = 107$  to get the irreducibility of  $L_{120}^{(8)}$ .

Now let us turn to the computation of the Galois group. Of course, we need only consider  $n \geq 4$ . When  $n < 8$ ,  $(n/2, n - 2)$  does not contain prime, so we cannot apply Jordan's

criterion. For the 36 polynomials  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  with  $0 \leq r \leq 8$  and  $4 \leq n \leq 7$ , we used the PARI routine `polgalois` to verify that the Galois group contains  $A_n$ .

Now suppose  $n \geq 8$  and  $r \leq 8$ . By Theorem 5.4, ii), we are done if  $n \geq 48$ . Of the remaining pairs  $(r, n)$ , when  $((n+r)/2, n-2)$  contains a prime, we apply Theorem 5.4, i). There remain 47 cases, listed in Table 2. In these 47 cases, since  $n \geq 8$ , there exists a prime in the interval  $(n/2, n-2)$ , labelled  $q$  in Table 2. We check in each case that  $NP_q(L_n^{(r)}(x))$  has at least one slope with denominator  $q$ , then apply Theorem 5.2. Thus, in all cases, the Galois group of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  contains  $A_n$ .  $\square$

$r$	$n$	$\ell$	$r$	$n$	$\ell$	$r$	$n$	$\ell$
3	6	13	6	10	17	7	42	79
4	4	17	6	12	29	8	6	17
4	6	29	6	20	311	8	8	29
5	4	*	7	4	13	8	10	137
5	6	23	7	6	47	8	12	173
5	20	149	7	10	47	8	24	191
6	4	13	7	12	47	8	42	113
6	6	31	7	20	271	8	120	613

**Table 1**

$r$	$n$	$q$	$r$	$n$	$q$	$r$	$n$	$q$
1	9	5	4	13	7	7	11	7
1	13	7	5	8	5	7	12	7
2	8	5	5	9	5	7	13	7
2	9	5	5	10	7	7	15	11
2	12	7	5	11	7	7	19	11
2	13	7	5	12	7	8	8	5
3	8	5	5	13	7	8	9	5
3	9	5	6	8	5	8	10	7
3	11	7	6	9	5	8	11	7
3	12	7	6	10	7	8	12	7
3	13	7	6	11	7	8	13	7
4	8	5	6	12	7	8	14	11
4	9	5	6	13	7	8	15	11
4	10	7	7	8	5	8	18	11
4	11	7	7	9	5	8	19	11
4	12	7	7	10	7			

**Table 2**

## 8. A QUESTION

Given  $f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j x^j \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ , let us say  $g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j b_j x^j$  is an *admissible modification* of  $f(x)$  if  $b_j \in \mathbb{Z}$  for all  $0 \leq j \leq n$  and  $b_0 = \pm 1, b_n = 1$ . We could also allow  $b_n = -1$ , but since multiplication by  $-1$  is harmless when it comes to irreducibility and Galois groups, we can dispense with it.

Already in Schur's original treatment of  $E_n(x) = L_n^{(0)}(x)$ , he proved not just the irreducibility of  $E_n$  but also of all its admissible modifications. In [FT], Filaseta and Trifonov prove the irreducibility of all admissible modifications of the Bessel polynomials  $z_n(x) = n!L_n^{(n)}(x)$ . Also, the Filaseta-Lam theorem quoted in the introduction was in fact proved for all admissible modifications of  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  for  $n$  large enough with respect to  $\alpha$ . These results, combined with Conjecture 1.1 suggest the following question.

**Question 8.1.** *For which pairs of non-negative integers  $(r, n)$  is it true that every admissible modification of  $L_n^{(r)}(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ ?*

The particular strategy developed in this paper would not appear to be suitable for answering this question, but techniques of [FT] and [FL], suitably altered, would hopefully apply.

Some experimentation reveals that there are exceptions already for  $n = 2$ . Indeed, suppose  $r = 4m^2 - 1$  and the modifying coefficients  $(b_0, b_1, b_2)$  are  $(-1, m, 1)$ . The resulting admissible modification of  $2L_2^{(r)}(x)$  is

$$x^2 + 8m^3x - 4m^2(4m^2 + 1) = (x - 2m)(x + 2m + 8m^3).$$

If one does not allow the modification of the constant coefficient, then it is not hard to show that the resulting admissible modifications of  $L_2^{(r)}(x)$  are always irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Moreover, a PARI calculation for  $n = 3$  and  $r \leq 100$ , with modification coefficients  $(b_0, b_1, b_2, b_3)$  satisfying  $|b_0| = 1$ ,  $b_3 = 1$ ,  $|b_1|, |b_2| \leq 100$  turned up only irreducible polynomials (more than 2 million of them).

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