# THE THIRD TERM IN LENS SURGERY POLYNOMIALS 

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#### Abstract

It is well-known that the second coefficient of the Alexander polynomial of any lens space knot is -1 . We show that the non-zero third coefficient condition of the Alexander polynomial of a lens space knot $K$ in $S^{3}$ confines the surgery to the one realized by the $(2,2 g+1)$-torus knot, where $g$ is the genus of $K$. In particular, such a lens surgery polynomial coincides with $\Delta_{T(2,2 g+1)}(t)$.


## 1. Introduction

1.1. Lens space knots. If a knot $K$ in a homology sphere $Y$ yields a lens space by an integral Dehn surgery, then we call $K$ a lens space knot in $Y$. The result obtained by a Dehn surgery is written by $Y_{p}(K)$. Hence, the lens space surgery is presented as $Y_{p}(K)=L(p, q)$. The homology class represented by the dual knot of the surgery is identified with an element $k$ in $(\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z})^{\times}$. Precisely it is explained in Section 2. The pair $(p, k)$ is called a lens surgery parameter.

We call a polynomial $\Delta(t)$ lens surgery polynomial (in $Y$ ) if there exists a lens space knot $K$ in $Y$ such that $\Delta(t)=\Delta_{K}(t)$. It is well-known that any lens surgery polynomials have interesting properties.

In [5], Ozsváth and Szabó proved that any lens surgery polynomials in $S^{3}$ are flat and alternating. If the absolute values of all coefficients of a polynomial are smaller than or equal to 1 , we call the polynomial flat. If the non-zero coefficients of a polynomial are alternating sign in order, then we call the polynomial alternating. We call a polynomial $\Delta$ trivial, if $\Delta=1$.

Any lens space knot with trivial Alexander polynomial in $S^{3}$ is isotopic to the unknot due to [4]. Generally, if $K$ is a lens space knot, then the degree of the Alexander polynomial coincides with the Seifert genus $g$.

In this paper we use the following notations for coefficients of any lens surgery polynomial:

$$
\Delta(t)=t^{-g} \sum_{i=0}^{2 g} \alpha_{i} t^{i}=\sum_{i=-g}^{g} a_{i} t^{i} .
$$

In other words, this equality implies $\alpha_{i}=a_{i-g}$. By the symmetry of Alexander polynomial we obtain $a_{i}=a_{-i}$ and $\alpha_{i}=\alpha_{2 g-i}$.

We consider non-trivial lens surgery polynomials from now. Then due to the author [7] and Hedden and Watson [3], any lens surgery polynomial in $S^{3}$ becomes the following form around the top coefficient $t^{g}$ :

$$
\Delta=t^{g}-t^{g-1}+\cdots
$$

[^0]In [3], it is shown that any L-space knot has the same form. Namely, the second coefficient from the top has -1 .

In [7], it is proven that the second top coefficient of any lens space knot in any L-space homology sphere is -1 .
1.2. Third top term of lens space polynomial. Let $T(p, q)$ be the right-handed $(p, q)$ torus knot. Teragaito asked an interesting question about the next coefficient:

Question 1.1. If a non-trivial lens surgery polynomial in $S^{3}$ has the following form:

$$
\Delta=t^{g}-t^{g-1}+t^{g-2}+\cdots,
$$

then does $\Delta$ coincide with $\Delta_{T(2,2 g+1)}$ ?
In other words, if a lens surgery polynomial is not a $(2,2 g+1)$-torus knot polynomial for some integer $g$, then $\alpha_{2}=0$ ?

Here we give an affirmative answer for this question.
Theorem 1.2. Teragaito's question (Question 1.1) is true.
This theorem is true even if the lens space knot $K$ lies in an L-space homology sphere and satisfies $2 g(K) \leq p$ by applying the same method.

Theorem 1.15 in [7] gave a criterion for a lens space knot $K$ to satisfy $\Delta_{K}(t)=$ $\Delta_{T(2,2 g+1)}(t)$ for some positive integer $g$. On the other hand, we can also say that Theorem 1.2 gives a new criterion for a lens space knot to have the same Alexander polynomial as that of $T(2,2 g+1)$.
1.3. Realization of lens surgery. We define the following terminology.

Definition 1.3. Let $p, k$ be relatively prime positive integers. If a lens surgery $Y_{p}(K)=$ $L(p, q)$ in a homology sphere $Y$ has the lens surgery parameter $(p, k)$, then we say that the parameter $(p, k)$ is realized by a lens space knot $K$.

Corollary 1.4. Let $K$ be a lens space knot in $S^{3}$ with the surgery parameter $(p, k)$. The Alexander polynomial $\Delta_{K}(t)$ has the following form:

$$
\Delta_{K}=t^{g}-t^{g-1}+t^{g-2}+\cdots,
$$

if and only if $(p, k)$ is realized by $T(2,2 g+1)$.
This condition in this corollary is equivalent to the condition of $k=2$.
1.4. The cases of lens space knots $K_{p, k}$ in $Y_{p, k}$. Consider a simple (1,1)-knot in a lens space yielding a homology sphere by some integer slope. The 'simple' is defined in [6] and [9]. If such a ( 1,1 )-simple knot generates the 1st homology of the lens space, we can always find such a slope. Hence any simple ( 1,1 )-knot is parameterized by a relatively prime integers $(p, k)$. The dual knot is a lens space knot in the homology sphere. The dual knot is denoted by $K_{p, k}$ and the homology sphere by $Y_{p, k}$. The reader should probably understand these facts by reading [6] and [9]. The main result in [2] gave a formula of the Alexander polynomial of $K_{p, k}$ by using $p, k$. Here we give the following conjecture:

Conjecture 1.5. If the third top term of the symmetrized Alexander polynomial $\Delta_{K_{p, k}}(t)$ is non-zero, then $\Delta_{K_{p, k}}(t)$ coincides with $\Delta_{T(2,2 g+1)}(t)$ for some integer $g$, in other words, $k=2$ holds.

This conjecture can be easily checked by a computer program ( $p \leq 600$ ) based on the formula in [2]. Conjecture 1.5 is true under a little strong condition that $Y_{p, k}$ is homeomorphic to $S^{3}$, because of Theorem 1.2. The essential point is what if the third top term of $\Delta_{K_{p, k}}$ is non-zero, then $Y_{p, k}$ is homeomorphic to $S^{3}$. Notice that in [7] the author proved that $k=2$ holds if and only if $Y_{p, k}$ is homeomorphic to $S^{3}$ and $K_{p, k}$ is isotopic to $T(2,2 g+1)$ for some integer $g$. This condition is also equivalent to the equality $\Delta_{K_{p, k}}(t)=\Delta_{T(2,2 g+1)}(t)$.

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## 2. Preliminaries and Proofs

2.1. Brief preliminaries. Here we define the lens surgery parameter $(p, k)$.

Definition 2.1. Let $K$ be a knot in a homology sphere $Y$. Suppose that $Y_{p}(K)=L(p, q)$ and the dual knot $\tilde{K}$ has $[\tilde{K}]=k[c] \in H_{1}(L(p, q), \mathbb{Z})$ for some orientation of $\tilde{K}$. Here the dual knot is the core knot in the solid torus obtained by the Dehn surgery. Furthermore, $c$ is either of core circles of genus one Heegaard decomposition of $L(p, q)$. Then we call ( $p, k$ ) lens surgery parameter. The integer $k$ is called a dual class.

If $L(p, q)$ is a Dehn surgery of a homology sphere, the surgery parameter $(p, k)$ is relatively prime and $q=k^{2} \bmod p$. Note that we adopt the orientation of $L(p, q)$ as the $p / q$-surgery of the unknot in $S^{3}$.

The ambiguity of the orientation of $\tilde{K}$ and the choices of the core circles of genus one Heegaard decomposition give (at most) four possibilities of the dual class $k_{0},-k_{0}, k_{0}^{-1},-k_{0}^{-1}$ (in $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ ), for some integer $k_{0}$. We always take the minimal integer $k$ as a representative satisfying $0<k<p / 2$.

For any integer $i$ we define the integer $[i]_{p}$ to be the integer with $i \equiv[i]_{p} \bmod p$ and $-\frac{p}{2}<[i]_{p} \leq \frac{p}{2}$. Let $k_{2}$ be the absolute value of the integer $\left[k^{\prime}\right]_{p}$ satisfying $k k^{\prime} \equiv 1 \bmod p$. We call $k_{2}$ the second dual class. We set $k k_{2} \equiv e \bmod p, e= \pm 1, m=\frac{k k_{2}-e}{p}, q=\left[k^{2}\right]_{p}$, $q_{2}=\left[\left(k_{2}\right)^{2}\right]_{p} . \quad c=\frac{(k-1)(k+1-p)}{2}$ and for some non-zero integer $\ell$

$$
I_{\ell}:= \begin{cases}\{1,2, \cdots, \ell\} & \ell>0 \\ \{\ell+1, \cdots,-1,0\} & \ell<0\end{cases}
$$

From these data, we can compute the coefficient $a_{i}$ due to [8].
Proposition 2.2 (Proposition 2.3 in [7]). Let $K$ be a lens space knot in $S^{3}$. For any integer $i$ with $|i| \leq p / 2$, the $i$-th coefficient of the Alexander polynomial

$$
a_{i}=-e\left(m-\#\left\{j \in I_{k} \mid\left[q_{2}(j+k i+c)\right]_{p} \in I_{e k_{2}}\right\}\right) .
$$

To prove Theorem 1.2, we use the non-zero curve defined in [7]. First, we extend the coefficients $a_{i}$ of the Alexander polynomial periodically as $\bar{a}_{i}=a_{[i]_{p}}$. By the estimate in [1] proven in [4], $\bar{a}_{i}$ is determined, where $g(K)$ is the Seifert genus of $K$.

We define $A$-matrix and $d A$-matrix as follows:

$$
A_{i, j}=\bar{a}_{k_{2}(i+j e k-c)}, d A_{i, j}=A_{i, j}-A_{i-1, j},
$$

where $c=(k-1)(k+1-p) / 2$. Due to the formula (9) in Lemma 2.6 in [7], we have

$$
d A_{i, j}=E_{e k_{2}}\left(q_{2} i+k_{2}(j+e)\right)-E_{e k_{2}}\left(q_{2} i+k_{2} j\right)= \begin{cases}1 & {\left[q_{2} i+k_{2} j\right]_{p} \in I_{-k_{2}}}  \tag{1}\\ -1 & {\left[q_{2} i+k_{2} j\right]_{p} \in I_{k_{2}}} \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

We put $A_{i, j}$ on each lattice point $(i, j)$ in $\mathbb{Z}^{2} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2}$. For a non-zero coefficient $A_{i, j}$ we draw a horizontal positive or negative arrow on $(i, j)$ according to $A_{i, j}=1$ or -1 respectively, where a positive (or negative) arrow means a horizontal arrow with positive (or negative) in the $i$-direction. After that, we connect the horizontally adjacent arrows with the same orientation and compatibly connect arrows around the non-zero $d A_{i, j}$ as in [7]. Then we can obtain an infinite family of simple curves on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ with no finite ends (i.e., they are properly embedded curves in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ ). The arrows are not-increasing with respect to the $j$-coordinate. We call the curves non-zero curves.

Proposition 2.3 ([7]). Any non-zero curve for any lens space knot in $S^{3}$ is included in a non-zero region $\mathcal{N}$. In each non-zero region there is a single component non-zero curve.

Here a non-zero region $\mathcal{N}$ (introduced in [7]) is defined as follows. First, we consider the union of $2 g+1$ box-shaped neighborhoods of a vertical sequent lattice points corresponding to $\alpha_{0}, \alpha_{1} \cdots, \alpha_{2 g}$. Two adjacent box neighborhoods are overlapped with a horizontal unit segment. Next, we take the infinite parallel copies moved by $n \cdot \mathbf{v}$ where $\mathbf{v}$ is the vector $\left(1,-k_{2}\right)$ and $n$ is any integer. We denote the union of the infinite parallel copies of $\mathcal{N}$ and call it non-zero region. Moving a non-zero region $\mathcal{N}$ by $n \cdot(0, p)$ for any integer $n$, we obtain infinite non-zero regions on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.

The following lemma is important to prove the main theorem. This is also the case of $m=0$ in Lemma 4.4 in [7].

Lemma 2.4. If there exist integers $i_{0}, j_{0}$ such that $d A_{i_{0}, j_{0}}=-d A_{i_{0}, j_{0}+1}=-1$, then for any integer $i$, there are no two adjacent zeros in the sequence $\left\{d A_{i, s} \mid s \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$.

Proof. We assume the existence of integers $i_{0}, j_{0}$. Let $x$ be $i_{0}+\left(j_{0}-1\right) e k$. Using the formula (1), we have $\left[q_{2} x\right]_{p} \in I_{-k_{2}},\left[q_{2} x+k_{2}\right]_{p} \in I_{k_{2}}$, and $\left[q_{2} x+2 k_{2}\right]_{p} \in I_{-k_{2}}$. Hence, the sequence $\left[q_{2} x+s k_{2}\right]_{p}$ starts at $\left[q_{2} x\right]_{p}$ and returns in $I_{-k_{2}}$ at $s=2$. Therefore, we have $p-k_{2}<\left(q_{2} x+2 k_{2}\right)-q_{2} x<p+k_{2}$ and this means $p<3 k_{2}$.

We suppose $d A_{i, j}=d A_{i, j+1}=0$ for some integers $i, j$. Then $\left[q_{2}(i+j e k)\right]_{p},\left[q_{2}(i+j e k)+\right.$ $\left.k_{2}\right]_{p} \notin I_{-k_{2}} \cup I_{k_{2}}$. This implies $p-k_{2}-k_{2} \geq k_{2}$. This contradicts the inequality above.

If for an integer $I$, the sequence $\left\{d A_{I, s} \mid s \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$ has no adjacent zeros, for any integer $i$ the same thing holds because the $\left\{d A_{i, s} \mid s \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$ is a parallel copies of $\left\{d A_{I, s} \mid s \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$. Hence, the desired condition is satisfied.

Note that this lemma holds for any relatively prime positive integers $(p, k)$. Actually, to prove this lemma we do not require that the matrices $A$ and $d A$ come from a lens space knot in $S^{3}$. In particular, if any $K_{p, k}$ in $Y_{p, k}$ (defined in Section 1.4) has non-zero third term in the Alexander polynomial, then $p<3 k_{2}$ holds. To prove Conjecture 1.5, first we should probably classify $\left(Y_{p, k}, K_{p, k}\right)$ in the case of $3 k_{2}<p$.
2.2. Proof of Theorem 1.2. Let $K$ be a lens space knot with lens surgery parameter $(p, k)$ and with $g=g(K)$. Suppose that $\alpha_{0}=1, \alpha_{1}=-1$, and $\alpha_{2}=1$. Now we assume that $2 g-k_{2} \geq 3$. Since any non-zero curve has no finite ends, $\alpha_{4}=-1$ holds naturally.

Hence, we can assume that

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\alpha_{0}=1  \tag{*}\\
\alpha_{1}=-1 \\
\alpha_{3}=1 \\
\alpha_{4}=-1
\end{array}\right.
$$

Let $i, j$ be fixed integers with $k_{2}(i+j e k-c)=-g \bmod p$. Then $A_{i, j}=\alpha_{0}=1$. $A_{i-1, j}=A_{i-1, j+1}=A_{i-1, j+2}=A_{i-1, j+3}=0$, because any non-zero curve is included in a non-zero region $\mathcal{N}$ due to Proposition 2.3.

We notice that the assumption of Lemma 2.4 is satisfied. Thus, we have $d A_{i, j}=1$, $d A_{i, j+1}=-1, d A_{i, j+2}=1$, and $d A_{i, j+3}=-1$. The local values for matrices $A$ and $d A$ are drawn in the top pictures in Figure 1.

Our situation falls into the following two cases (I), and (II) as in Figure 2.
(I): $A_{i+1, j+1}=-1$, and $A_{i+1, j+2}=1$
(II): $A_{i+1, j+1}=0$, and $A_{i+1, j+2}=0$.

In the case of (I), we obtain $d A_{i+1, j+1}=d A_{i+1, j+2}=0$. This contradicts Lemma 2.4.
Next, consider the case of (II). We claim $A_{i+2, j+1}=A_{i+2, j+2}=0$. If $A_{i+2, j+1}$ or $A_{i+2, j+2}$ is non-zero, then the non-zero term is included in the non-zero region right next to $\mathcal{N}$, because there is only one non-zero curves in any non-zero region (Proposition 2.3). This implies that by seeing the vertical coordinate in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, we have

$$
p-2 k_{2} \leq 2 .
$$

Since $2 k_{2}<p$, we have $p=2 k_{2}+1$ or $2 k_{2}+2$. The equality $p=2 k_{2}+1$ means it gives a $(2,2 g+1)$-torus knot surgery. We consider the case of $p=2 k_{2}+2$. Since $p, k_{2}$ are relatively prime, $k_{2}$ is an odd number. The equality $p=2 k_{2}+2$ can be deformed into $k_{2}^{2}-1=\frac{k_{2}-1}{2} p \equiv 0 \bmod p$. It is a lens space surgery yielding $L(p, 1)$. This is the $k_{2}=1$ case only due to [4]. Thus the claim above is true.

The remaining cases are $-2 \leq-2 g+k_{2} \leq 1$. By using Theorem 1.15 and Theorem 4.20 in [7], the cases are realized by the $(2,2 g+1)$-torus knot surgeries or the lens surgery on $T(3,4)$ or $\operatorname{Pr}(-2,3,7)$. The knots $T(3,4)$ and $\operatorname{Pr}(-2,3,7)$ both do not satisfy ( $*$ ). Thus, our remaining cases satisfying this condition $(*)$ give the equality $\Delta_{K}(t)=\Delta_{T(2,2 g+1)}$.
2.3. Proof of Corollary 1.4. We give a proof of Corollary 1.4. Let $K$ be a lens space knot in $S^{3}$ with parameter $(p, k)$. If $\Delta_{K}(t)$ has $\alpha_{0}=-\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}=1$, then $\Delta_{K}(t)=\Delta_{T(2,2 g+1)}$ holds by Theorem 1.2. Using Theorem 1.15, the lens surgery parameter is $(p, 2)$. The parameter is realized by a $(2,2 g+1)$-torus knot.

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Figure 1. Case (I) and (II)


Figure 2. An $A$-matrix of (II)
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