

On an arithmetical question related to perfect numbers $$\operatorname{Paul}\,\operatorname{Lescot}$

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ON AN ARITHMETICAL QUESTION RELATED TO PERFECT NUMBERS

1. INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

For $n \ge 1$ an integer, we shall denote by $\sigma(n)$ the sum of the (positive) divisors of n.

The line of thought leading to this note started with [3, Exemple III, p. 380], where two integers k such that $\sigma(k^3)$ is a perfect square are given.

This suggests that we might look for numbers n such that $\sigma(n)$ be a square. One rapidly notices that $\sigma(66) = 144 = 12^2$; furthermore

$$\sigma(66) - 2.66 = 144 - 132 = 12,$$

whence

$$\sigma(66) = (\sigma(66) - 2.66)^2.$$

We were thus led to the following definition :

Definition. An integer n is termed quadratically perfect if

$$\sigma(n) = (\sigma(n) - 2n)^2.$$

As we have just established, 66 is such a number. A quick search yields three others : 1, 3 and 491536.

As a matter of fact, one has

Lemma 1. The only quadratically perfect primary integers are 1 and 3.

Proof. Let $n = p^k$ (p prime) be quadratically perfect ; if k = 0, n = 1. Let us then assume $k \ge 1$; we have

$$\sigma(n) = 1 + p + \dots + p^k,$$

whence, setting $S := \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} p^l$, we find

$$\sigma(n) - 2n = S - p^k$$

and

$$(S - p^k)^2 = (\sigma(n) - 2n)^2$$
$$= \sigma(n)$$
$$= S + p^k. \quad (*)$$

If $k \ge 2$, (*) gives us, by working modulo p^2 , that

$$S^2 \equiv S \pmod{p^2};$$

as $S \equiv 1 + p \pmod{p^2}$, it follows that

$$(1+p)^2 \equiv 1+p \pmod{p^2},$$

i.e. p^2 divides p, a contradiction. Therefore k = 1, S = 1 and (*) becomes

$$(1-p)^2 = 1+p,$$

 $p^k = 3^1 = 3.$

that is $p^2 = 3p$, p = 3 and $n = p^k = 3^1 =$

2. The main theorem

On the positive side, one has

Proposition 1. If m is a perfect number such that 2m - 1 is prime, then

$$n := m(2m - 1)$$

is quadratically perfect.

Remark. m = 6 (2m - 1 = 11) yields n = 66, and m = 496 (2m - 1 = 991) yields n = 491536.

Proof. Seeing that m and 2m - 1 are coprime, one has

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma(n) &= \sigma(m(2m-1)) \\ &= \sigma(m)\sigma(2m-1) \\ &= 2m(1+(2m-1)) \\ & \text{[as m is perfect and $2m-1$ is prime]} \\ &= 4m^2. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\sigma(n) - 2n = 4m^2 - 2m(2m - 1)$$

= 2m,

and

$$(\sigma(n) - 2n)^2 = (2m)^2 = 4m^2 = \sigma(n) ;$$

n is quadratically perfect.

A partial converse holds :

Theorem 1. Let n be an even quadratically perfect number ; then there exists an even perfect number m such that n = m(2m - 1).

Remark. It is well–known (see $e.g. \ [1, Theorem 277], or [2, pp.33-34]) that <math display="inline">m$ can then be written as

$$m = 2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$$

with $2^p - 1$ (hence also p) prime ; m = 6 corresponds to p = 2, and m = 496 to p = 5.

3. The proof of Theorem 1

For convenience, this will be broken up into four lemmas.

Let us write $n = 2^a x \ (a \ge 1, x \text{ odd})$; then

$$\sigma(n) = \sigma(2^a)\sigma(x)$$

= $(2^{a+1} - 1)\sigma(x)$

Lemma 2. There are integers b, e and f such that $\sigma(x) = be^2$ and

$$bce^2 - (bc^2 + 1)f - e = 0.$$

Proof. Let us define b as the square-free part of $2^{a+1} - 1$; then

$$2^{a+1} - 1 = bc^2,$$

for some $c \in \mathbf{N}$, $c \ge 1$. As $2^{a+1} - 1 \equiv -1 \pmod{4}$, $2^{a+1} - 1$ is not a square, therefore $b \ge 2$; in fact, $b \ge 3$ as b is odd.

As $(\sigma(n) - 2n)^2 = \sigma(n)$, we have

$$bc^{2}\sigma(x) = (2^{a+1} - 1)\sigma(x)$$
$$= \sigma(n)$$
$$= (\sigma(n) - 2n)^{2}$$

whence c divides $\sigma(n) - 2n$:

$$\sigma(n) - 2n = \epsilon cd,$$

with $\epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}$ and $d \ge 1$. It follows that

$$bc^2\sigma(x) = c^2d^2,$$

i.e. $b\sigma(x) = d^2$, and b divides d^2 ; b being square–free, b divides $d: d = be(e \ge 1)$. Therefore $b\sigma(x) = b^2 e^2$, *i.e.* $\sigma(x) = be^2$. It now appears that

$$b^{2}c^{2}e^{2} - (bc^{2} + 1)x = bc^{2}.be^{2} - 2^{a+1}x$$

= $(2^{a+1} - 1)\sigma(x) - 2n$
= $\sigma(n) - 2n$
= ϵcd
= $\epsilon cbe;$

therefore, bc divides x.

Let us then set $x = bcf(f \ge 1)$; as b > 1, bc > 1, $bc^2 = \sigma(x) \ge x + f$ and

$$b^{2}c^{2}e^{2} = bc^{2}\sigma(x)$$

$$\geq bc^{2}x + bc^{2}f$$

$$\geq bc^{2}x + bcf$$

$$= bc^{2}x + x,$$

thus $\epsilon = 1$.

We now get

that is

$$b^{2}c^{2}e^{2} - (bc^{2} + 1)bcf = cbe$$

 $bce^{2} - (bc^{2} + 1)f - e = 0.$

Lemma 3. c = 1, *i.e.* $2^{a+1} - 1$ is square-free.

Proof. We know that b > 1; then

$$be^2 = \sigma(x) = \sigma(bcf) \ge bcf + cf,$$

and, using Lemma 3.1:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 0 & = & bce^2 - (bc^2 + 1)f - e \\ \\ \geq & c(bcf + cf) - (bc^2 + 1)f - e \\ \\ = & (c^2 - 1)f - e. \end{array}$$

Assuming that c > 1, it would follow that $f \leq \frac{e}{c^2 - 1}$, whence that

$$bce^{2} = (bc^{2} + 1)f + e$$

$$\leq (bc^{2} + 1)\frac{e}{c^{2} - 1} + e$$

$$= \frac{e}{c^{2} - 1}(bc^{2} + c^{2})$$

$$= e(b+1)\frac{c^{2}}{c^{2} - 1}.$$

It would now appear that

$$e \leq \frac{b+1}{b} \frac{c}{c^2-1}$$

 $\leq \frac{4}{3} \frac{3}{8} = \frac{1}{2} < 1$

a contradiction.

Therefore c = 1.

Lemma 4. b is prime.

Proof. From Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2 follows that

$$be^2 - e - (b+1)f = 0.$$

As x = bcf = bf, one has $\sigma(bf) = \sigma(x) = be^2$.

We know that $b\geq 3$; let us assume that b is not prime, and let p denote the smallest prime factor of b. Then

 $\sigma(b) \ge b + p + 1 \ge b + 4$

and

$$f(b+4) \le f\sigma(b) \le \sigma(bf) = be^2,$$

whence

$$f(b+4) \le be^2 = e + (b+1)f,$$

and $3f \leq e$. It follows that

$$3be^2 = 3e + (3b + 3)f$$

 $\leq 3e + (b + 1)e$
 $= e(b + 4),$

hence $3b \leq 3be \leq b+4$, $2b \leq 4$ and $b \leq 2$, a contradiction. Therefore b is prime.

Lemma 5. b does not divide f.

Proof. Let us assume for a moment that b divides f; then, as

$$be^2 = e + bf + f,$$

b divides e. It follows that

$$be^2 = \sigma(bf) \ge bf + f + \frac{f}{b},$$

whence

$$\frac{f}{b} \le be^2 - bf - f = e,$$

thus $f \leq be$. Now

$$be^2 = e + bf + f$$

$$\leq e + b^2 e + be$$

and

$$be \leq b^{2} + b + 1 = b(b+1) + 1 < b(b+2).$$

It appears that e < b+2, hence $e \leq b+1 < 2b$; as b divides $e, \, e = b$ and

$$(b+1)f = be^2 - e = b^3 - b,$$

thus f = b(b-1). Now we have

$$\sigma(b^2(b-1)) = \sigma(bf) = be^2 = b^3 = b^2(b-1) + b^2,$$

an obvious contradiction as

$$\sigma(b^2(b-1)) \ge b^2(b-1) + b^2 + b + 1.$$

We conclude that b does not divide f.

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Conclusion

We may now write

thus b + 1 divides e : e = (b + 1)g, hence

$$(b+1)f = e(be-1)$$

= $(b+1)g(b(b+1)g-1)$

and f = g(b(b+1)g - 1). In particular, g divides f, and $g \neq f$. As

$$(b+1)\sigma(f) = bf + (b+1)g + f,$$

we obtain $\sigma(f) = f + g$; therefore g = 1 and f is prime. Furthermore, f = b(b+1) - 1.

Now let $m := 2^a(2^{a+1}-1) = 2^ab$; then m is perfect([1,Theorem 276], or [2,p.33]) and even, $2m - 1 = 2^{a+1}b - 1 = (b+1)b - 1 = f$ is prime, and

$$m(2m-1) = 2^a b f = 2^a x = n.$$

4. Final comments

It is reasonable to expect the converse of Proposition 2.1 to still hold for all odd $m \geq 5$; combined with the proof of the long–standing conjecture that there is no odd perfect number, this would imply the nonexistence of odd quadratically perfect numbers other than 1 and 3.

I wish to express my gratitude to Dr. Numa Lescot for checking with the help of a computer that there is at least no such number between 5 and 10^6 .

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