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## ON AN ARITHMETICAL QUESTION RELATED TO PERFECT NUMBERS

## 1. Introduction and statement of the problem

For $n \geq 1$ 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 $\sigma\left(k^{3}\right)$ 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

$$
\sigma(n)=(\sigma(n)-2 n)^{2}
$$

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 $k \geq 1$; we have

$$
\sigma(n)=1+p+\ldots+p^{k},
$$

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

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

and

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(S-p^{k}\right)^{2} & =(\sigma(n)-2 n)^{2} \\
& =\sigma(n) \\
& =S+p^{k} . \tag{*}
\end{align*}
$$

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

$$
S^{2} \equiv S \quad\left(\bmod p^{2}\right) ;
$$

as $S \equiv 1+p\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$, it follows that

$$
(1+p)^{2} \equiv 1+p \quad\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)
$$

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

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

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

## 2. The main theorem

On the positive side, one has
Proposition 1. If $m$ is a perfect number such that $2 m-1$ is prime, then

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

is quadratically perfect.
Remark. $m=6(2 m-1=11)$ yields $n=66$, and $m=496(2 m-1=991)$ yields $n=491536$.
Proof. Seeing that $m$ and $2 m-1$ are coprime, one has

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

Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma(n)-2 n & =4 m^{2}-2 m(2 m-1) \\
& =2 m,
\end{aligned}
$$

and

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

$n$ 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 $n=m(2 m-1)$.
Remark. It is well-known (see e.g. [1,Theorem 277], or [2,pp.33-34]) that $m$ can then be written as

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

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 $n=2^{a} x$ ( $a \geq 1, x$ odd) ; then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma(n) & =\sigma\left(2^{a}\right) \sigma(x) \\
& =\left(2^{a+1}-1\right) \sigma(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

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

$$
b c e^{2}-\left(b c^{2}+1\right) f-e=0 .
$$

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

$$
2^{a+1}-1=b c^{2}
$$

for some $c \in \mathbf{N}, c \geq 1$. As $\left.2^{a+1}-1 \equiv-1(\bmod 4)\right), 2^{a+1}-1$ is not a square, therefore $b \geq 2$; in fact, $b \geq 3$ as $b$ is odd.

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
b c^{2} \sigma(x) & =\left(2^{a+1}-1\right) \sigma(x) \\
& =\sigma(n) \\
& =(\sigma(n)-2 n)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

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

$$
\sigma(n)-2 n=\epsilon c d,
$$

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

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

i.e. $b \sigma(x)=d^{2}$, and $b$ divides $d^{2} ; b$ being square-free, $b$ divides $d: d=b e(e \geq 1)$.

Therefore $b \sigma(x)=b^{2} e^{2}$, i.e. $\sigma(x)=b e^{2}$. It now appears that

$$
\begin{aligned}
b^{2} c^{2} e^{2}-\left(b c^{2}+1\right) x & =b c^{2} . b e^{2}-2^{a+1} x \\
& =\left(2^{a+1}-1\right) \sigma(x)-2 n \\
& =\sigma(n)-2 n \\
& =\epsilon c d \\
& =\epsilon c b e
\end{aligned}
$$

therefore, $b c$ divides $x$.
Let us then set $x=b c f(f \geq 1)$; as $b>1, b c>1, b e^{2}=\sigma(x) \geq x+f$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
b^{2} c^{2} e^{2} & =b c^{2} \sigma(x) \\
& \geq b c^{2} x+b c^{2} f \\
& \geq b c^{2} x+b c f \\
& =b c^{2} x+x
\end{aligned}
$$

thus $\epsilon=1$.
We now get

$$
b^{2} c^{2} e^{2}-\left(b c^{2}+1\right) b c f=c b e
$$

that is

$$
b c e^{2}-\left(b c^{2}+1\right) f-e=0
$$

Lemma 3. $c=1$, i.e. $2^{a+1}-1$ is square-free.
Proof. We know that $b>1$; then

$$
b e^{2}=\sigma(x)=\sigma(b c f) \geq b c f+c f
$$

and, using Lemma 3.1 :

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =b c e^{2}-\left(b c^{2}+1\right) f-e \\
& \geq c(b c f+c f)-\left(b c^{2}+1\right) f-e \\
& =\left(c^{2}-1\right) f-e
\end{aligned}
$$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
b c e^{2} & =\left(b c^{2}+1\right) f+e \\
& \leq\left(b c^{2}+1\right) \frac{e}{c^{2}-1}+e \\
& =\frac{e}{c^{2}-1}\left(b c^{2}+c^{2}\right) \\
& =e(b+1) \frac{c^{2}}{c^{2}-1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It would now appear that

$$
\begin{aligned}
e & \leq \frac{b+1}{b} \frac{c}{c^{2}-1} \\
& \leq \frac{4}{3} \frac{3}{8}=\frac{1}{2}<1
\end{aligned}
$$

a contradiction.
Therefore $c=1$.

Lemma 4. b is prime.
Proof. From Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2 follows that

$$
b e^{2}-e-(b+1) f=0
$$

As $x=b c f=b f$, one has $\sigma(b f)=\sigma(x)=b e^{2}$.
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

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

and

$$
f(b+4) \leq f \sigma(b) \leq \sigma(b f)=b e^{2}
$$

whence

$$
f(b+4) \leq b e^{2}=e+(b+1) f
$$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
3 b e^{2} & =3 e+(3 b+3) f \\
& \leq 3 e+(b+1) e \\
& =e(b+4)
\end{aligned}
$$

hence $3 b \leq 3 b e \leq b+4,2 b \leq 4$ 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

$$
b e^{2}=e+b f+f
$$

$b$ divides $e$. It follows that

$$
b e^{2}=\sigma(b f) \geq b f+f+\frac{f}{b}
$$

whence

$$
\frac{f}{b} \leq b e^{2}-b f-f=e
$$

thus $f \leq b e$.
Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
b e^{2} & =e+b f+f \\
& \leq e+b^{2} e+b e
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
b e & \leq b^{2}+b+1 \\
& =b(b+1)+1 \\
& <b(b+2) .
\end{aligned}
$$

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

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

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

$$
\sigma\left(b^{2}(b-1)\right)=\sigma(b f)=b e^{2}=b^{3}=b^{2}(b-1)+b^{2},
$$

an obvious contradiction as

$$
\sigma\left(b^{2}(b-1)\right) \geq b^{2}(b-1)+b^{2}+b+1
$$

We conclude that $b$ does not divide $f$.

## Conclusion

We may now write

$$
\begin{aligned}
(b+1) \sigma(f)= & \sigma(b) \sigma(f) \\
& {[\text { by Lemma 3.3] }} \\
= & \sigma(b f)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\text { [as } b \text { and } f \text { are coprime, by Lemmas } 3.3 \text { and 3.4] }
$$

$$
=b e^{2}
$$

$$
=b f+e+f
$$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
(b+1) f & =e(b e-1) \\
& =(b+1) g(b(b+1) g-1)
\end{aligned}
$$

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

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

we obtain $\sigma(f)=f+g$; therefore $g=1$ and $f$ is prime.
Furthermore, $f=b(b+1)-1$.
Now let $m:=2^{a}\left(2^{a+1}-1\right)=2^{a} b$; then $m$ is perfect $([1$, Theorem 276], or [2,p.33]) and even, $2 m-1=2^{a+1} b-1=(b+1) b-1=f$ is prime, and

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

## 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 $10^{6}$.

## References

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