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About Very Perfect Numbers

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About Very Perfect Numbers¹

A natural number n is named very perfect if $\sigma(\sigma(n))=2n$ (see [1]).

Theorem. The square of an odd prime number can't be very perfect number.

Proof. Let be $n=p^2$, where p is an odd prime number, t en $\sigma(n)=1+p+p^2$, $\sigma(\sigma(n))=\sigma(1+p+p^2)=2p^2$. We decompose $\sigma(n)$ in canonical form, from where $1+p+p^2=p_1^{\alpha_1}p_2^{\alpha_2}\dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$. Because p(p+1)+1 is odd, in the canonical decompose must be only odd primes.

$$\sigma(\sigma(n)) = (1 - p_1 - ... - p_n^{\alpha})...(1 - p_k + ... + p_k^{\alpha}) = \frac{p_1^{\alpha_1 - 1} - 1}{p_1 - 1} ... \frac{p_k^{\alpha_k - 1} - 1}{p_k - 1} = 2p^2.$$

$$Because \frac{p_1^{\alpha_k - 1} - 1}{p_1 - 1} > 2, ..., \frac{p_k^{\alpha_k - 1} - 1}{p_k - 1} > 2,$$

one gets that $2p^2$ can't be decomposed in more than two factors, so each one > 2, therefore $k \le 2$.

 $\begin{array}{ll} \textbf{Case 1. For } k=1 \text{ we find } \sigma(n)=1+p+p^2=& p_1^{|\alpha_i|}, \text{ from where one} \\ \text{gets } p_1^{\alpha_i-1}=p_1(1+p-p^2) \text{ and } \\ \sigma(\sigma(n))=& \frac{p_1^{|\alpha_i-1|}-1}{p_1-1}=2p^2, \\ p_1(1+p+p^2)-1=2p^2(p_1-1), \text{ from where } p_1-1=p_1(pp_1-2p-p_1). \text{ The right} \end{array}$

 $p_1(1+p+p^2)-1=2p^2(p_1-1)$, from where $p_1-1=p$ (pp_1-2p-p_1). The right side is divisible by p_1 thus p_1-1 is a p multiple. Because $p_1>2$ it results $p_1\geq p-1$ and

 $\begin{array}{l} p_i^2 \geq (p+1)^2 > p^2 + p + 1 = p_1^{\alpha_i} \; , \\ \text{thus } \alpha_i = 1 \; \text{and } \sigma(n) = p^2 + p + 1 = p_1, \; \sigma(\sigma(n)) = \sigma(p_1) = 1 + p_1 \; . \; \text{If n is very perfect} \\ \text{then } 1 + p_1 = 2p^2 \; \text{or } p^2 + p + 2 = 2p^2. \; \text{The solutions of the equation are } p = -1 \\ \text{and } p = 2 \; \text{which is a contradiction.} \end{array}$

Case 2. For k=2 we have $\sigma(n)=p^2+p+1=\frac{p_1^{\alpha_1}p_2^{\alpha_2}}{p_1^{\alpha_1}-1}$, $\sigma(\sigma(n))=\frac{(1+p_1+...+p_1^{\alpha_1}(1+p_2+...+p_2^{\alpha_2})=\frac{p_1^{\alpha_2-1}-1}{p_1-1}}{\frac{p_1^{\alpha_2-1}-1}{p_1-1}}>2$ and $\frac{p_2^{\alpha_2-1}-1}{p_2-1}>2$ it results $\frac{p_1^{\alpha_1-1}}{p_1-1}=p$ and $\frac{p_2^{\alpha_2-1}-1}{p_2-1}=2p$ (or inverse), thus then $\frac{p_1^{\alpha_1-1}}{p_1^{\alpha_1-1}}=p(p_1-1), \ p_2^{\alpha_2-1}-1=2p(p_2-1), \\ p_1^{\alpha_1-1}p_2^{\alpha_2-1}-p_1^{\alpha_2-1}-p_2^{\alpha_2-1}+1=2p^2(p_2-1)(p_2-1),$

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FLORENTIN SMARANDACHE

thus
$$\sigma(n) = p^2 + p + 1 = p_1^{\alpha_1 - 1} p_2^{\alpha_2 - 1}$$
 and $p_1 p_2 (p^2 + p + 1) = 2p^2 (p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) + p_1^{\alpha_1 - 1} + p_2^{\alpha_2 - 1} - 1$ or $p_1 p_2 p(p + 1) + p_1 p_2 - 1 = 2p^2 (p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) + (p_1^{\alpha_1 + 1} - 1) + (p_2^{\alpha_2 - 1} - 1) = 2p^2 (p_1 - 1) (p_2 - 1) + p(p_1 - 1) + 2p(p_2 - 1)$ accordingly p divides $p_1 p_2 - 1$, thus $p_1 p_2 > p + 1$ and $p_1^2 p_2^2 \ge (p + 1)^2 > p^2 + p + 1 = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2}$. Hence: Π_1) If $\alpha_1 = 1$ and $n = 2p^2$, then $\sigma(n) = p^2 + p + 1 = p_1 p_2^{\alpha_2}$.

and
$$\frac{p_1^2 - 1}{p_1 - 1} = p$$
 and $\frac{p_2^{\alpha_2 + 1} - 1}{p_2 - 1} = 2p$,

thus $p_1 + 1 = p$ wich is a contradiction.

$$\Pi_2$$
) If $\alpha_2 = 1$ and $n = 2p^2$, then $\sigma(n) = p^2 + p + 1 = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2$

and
$$\frac{p_1^{\alpha_1-1}}{p_1-1} = p$$
 and $\frac{p_2^2-1}{p_2-1} = 2p$,

thus $p_2+1=2p$, $p_2=2p-1$ and $\sigma(n)=p^2+p+1=p_1^{\alpha_1}$ (2p+1), from where $4\sigma(n)=(2p-1)(2p+3)+7=4p_1^{\alpha_2}(2p-1)$, accordingly 7 is divisible by 2p-1 and thus p is divisible by 4 which is a contradiction.

Reference:

1 Suryanarayama, Elemente der Mathematik, 1969.

["Octogon", Braşov, Vol. 5, No. 2, 53-4, October 1997.]