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# On Near Perfect Number and k-Hyper Perfect Number 

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#### Abstract

In this paper we shall see another generalization of a near perfect number with a fixed redundant divisor and also establish results concerning the number of positive divisors of certain forms of near perfect numbers and hyper perfect numbers.


KEYWORDS: Perfect number, Near perfect number, k-Near perfect number, Hyper perfect number, k-Hyper perfect number.

## I. INTRODUCTION

A positive integer n is said to be a perfect number if

$$
\sigma(n)=2 n
$$

where the function $\sigma(n)$ is the sum of all positive divisors of n . Many have studied the properties and results concerning perfect numbers. In the meanwhile P.Pollack and V. Shevlev[1] introduced the concept of Near perfect numbers and defined a positive integer n is a Near perfect number if

$$
\sigma(n)=2 n+d
$$

where d is called the redundant divisor and the function $\sigma(n)$ is the sum of all positive divisors of n . Further study led them to define $k$-Near perfect number as follows. A positive integer n is said to be a k -Near perfect number, if

$$
\sigma(n)=2 n+\sum_{i=1}^{k} d_{i}
$$

where $d_{i}$ 's are the proper divisors of n and are called redundant divisors of n and the function $\sigma(n)$ is the sum of all positive divisors of n . Manoli and Bear [7] defined n as a k-hyper perfect number, if

$$
\sigma(n)=\frac{k+1}{k} n+\frac{k-1}{k}
$$

where the function $\sigma(n)$ is the sum of all positive divisors of $n$.

## II. NOTATIONS

Notation 1: The function $\sigma(n)$ denotes the sum of all positive divisors of $n$.
Notation 2: The function $\tau(n)$ is the number of positive divisors of $n$.
Notation 3: $(a, b)$ is the greatest common factor of the two positive integers $a$ and $b$.

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## III.MAIN RESULTS

Theorem 1: If $p$ and $2^{p}-1$ are primes then $2^{p}\left(2^{p}-1\right)$ is a Near Perfect Number with redundant divisor $2^{p}$. Proof:

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

By the definition of near perfect number we have

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

Hence $2^{p}\left(2^{p}-1\right)$ is a Near Perfect Number with redundant divisor $2^{p}$.

Theorem 2: If $n=2^{p}\left(2^{p}-1\right)$ is a Near Perfect Number then $\tau(n)=2(p+1)$.
Proof:

$$
\begin{aligned}
n & =2^{p}\left(2^{p}-1\right) \\
\tau(n) & =\tau\left(2^{p}\left(2^{p}-1\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $2^{p}-1$ is a prime and $p>1$ we have $\left(2^{p}, 2^{p}-1\right)=1$ hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tau(n) & =\tau\left(2^{p}\right) \tau\left(2^{p}-1\right) \\
& =2(p+1)
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence the proof.
Lemma 3: If $p$ and $2^{p}-1$ are primes then $\left(2^{p-1},\left(2^{p}-1\right)^{2}\right)=1$.
Proof: On contrary assume that $\left(2^{p-1},\left(2^{p}-1\right)^{2}\right)=d>1$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\Rightarrow d \mid 2^{p-1} \text { and } d \mid\left(2^{p}-1\right)^{2} \\
d \mid 2^{p-1} \Rightarrow d \in\left\{2,2^{2}, 2^{3}, \ldots, 2^{p-1}\right\}=A \\
d \mid\left(2^{p}-1\right)^{2} \Rightarrow d \in\left\{\left(2^{p}-1\right),\left(2^{p}-1\right)^{2}\right\}=B \\
\Rightarrow d \in A \text { and } d \in B \\
\quad \Rightarrow d \in A \cap B
\end{gathered}
$$

This contradicts the fact $A \cap B=\varnothing$ hence the proof.

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Theorem 4: If both $p$ and $2^{p}-1$ are primes then $n=2^{p-1}\left(2^{p}-1\right)^{2}$ is a Near Perfect Number with redundant divisor $2^{p}-1$.
Proof: See [1]

Theorem 5: If $n=2^{p-1}\left(2^{p}-1\right)^{2}$ is a Near Perfect Number then $\tau(n)=3 p$.
Proof:

$$
\begin{aligned}
n & =2^{p-1}\left(2^{p}-1\right)^{2} \\
\tau(n) & =\tau\left(2^{p-1}\left(2^{p}-1\right)^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

By lemma 3 we have $\left(2^{p-1},\left(2^{p}-1\right)^{2}\right)=1$ hence

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

Since $2^{p}-1$ is a prime $\tau\left(2^{p}-1\right)^{2}=3$ hence

$$
\tau(n)=3 p
$$

Hence the proof.
Corollary 6: If $n=2^{p-1}\left(2^{p}-1\right)^{2}$ is a Near Perfect Number then $\tau(\tau(n))=\left\{\begin{array}{l}3 \text { if } p=3 \\ 4 \text { if } p \neq 3\end{array}\right.$
Proof: From previous theorem we have $\tau(n)=3 p$
Case 1: $p=3$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tau(\tau(n)) & =\tau(9) \\
& =3
\end{aligned}
$$

Case 2: $p \neq 3$
In this case since $p$ is a prime we have $\tau(p)=2$ and $(3, p)=1$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tau(\tau(n)) & =\tau(3 p) \\
& =\tau(3) \tau(p) \\
& =2(2) \\
& =4
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence the proof.

Lemma 7: If $k+1=p$ and $p^{q}-k$ are primes then $\left(p^{q-1}, p^{q}-k\right)=1$.
Proof:

$$
\begin{equation*}
k+1=p \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

On contrary assume that $\left(p^{q-1}, p^{q}-k\right)=d>1$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Rightarrow d \mid p^{q-1} \text { and } d \mid p^{q}-k \\
& d \mid p^{q-1} \Rightarrow d \in\left\{p, p^{2}, p^{3}, \ldots, p^{q-1}\right\}=A \\
& d \mid p^{q}-k \Rightarrow d \in\left\{p^{q}-k\right\}=B
\end{aligned}
$$

Since the element $p^{q}-k \in B$ is a prime it can at most be equal to $\mathrm{p} \in A$. Hence assume that $p=p^{q}-k$

$$
\begin{equation*}
p+k=p^{q} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

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But

$$
\begin{aligned}
p & \equiv 0(\bmod p) \\
\Rightarrow p^{q} & \equiv 0(\bmod p) \text { and } p+k \equiv k(\bmod p)
\end{aligned}
$$

Substituting in (2) we get

$$
k \equiv 0(\bmod p)
$$

Substituting in (1) we get

$$
1 \equiv 0(\bmod p)
$$

This contradicts the fact that $p$ is a prime.
Hence $p \neq p^{q}-k$. Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
& d \in A \text { and } d \in B \\
& \Rightarrow d \in A \cap B
\end{aligned}
$$

This contradicts the fact that $A \cap B=\varnothing$. Hence $\left(p^{q-1}, p^{q}-k\right)=1$.

Theorem 8: [2] If $k+1=p$ and $p^{q}-k$ are primes then the number of the form $n=p^{q-1}\left(p^{q}-k\right)$ is a k-hyper perfect number.
Proof: See [2].

Theorem 9: If n is a k-hyper perfect number of the form $n=p^{q-1}\left(p^{q}-k\right)$ then $\tau(n)=2 q$.
Proof:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n=p^{q-1}\left(p^{q}-k\right) \\
& \tau(n)=\tau\left(p^{q-1}\left(p^{q}-k\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

By lemma 7 we have $\left(p^{q-1}, p^{q}-k\right)=1$

$$
\Rightarrow \tau(n)=\tau\left(p^{q-1}\right) \tau\left(p^{q}-k\right)
$$

Since $p^{q}-k$ is a prime $\tau\left(p^{q}-k\right)=2$

$$
\Rightarrow \tau(n)=2 q
$$

Hence the proof.
Corollary 10: If n is a k-hyper perfect number of the form $n=p^{q-1}\left(p^{q}-k\right)$ then $\tau(\tau(n))= \begin{cases}3 & \text { if } q=2 \\ 4 & \text { if } q \neq 2\end{cases}$
Proof: From previous theorem we have $\tau(n)=2 q$
Case 1: $q=2$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tau(\tau(n)) & =\tau(2 q) \\
& =\tau(4) \\
& =3
\end{aligned}
$$

Case 2: $q \neq 2$
In this case since $q$ is prime we have $(2, q)=1$ and $\tau(q)=2$

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$$
\begin{aligned}
\tau(\tau(n)) & =\tau(2 q) \\
& =\tau(2) \tau(q) \\
& =2(2) \\
& =4
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence the proof.

## IV. CONCLUSION

In this paper we have generalized near perfect number with a fixed redundant divisor and also we have proved some results concerning the number of positive divisors of certain Near perfect numbers and Hyper perfect numbers.

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