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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

 $\sigma(n) = 2n$ 

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

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

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

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

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  $2^p (2^p - 1)$  is a Near Perfect Number with redundant divisor  $2^p$ . **Proof:** 

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

$$\sigma(n) = \sigma(2^{p}(2^{p} - 1))$$
  

$$= \sigma(2^{p})\sigma(2^{p} - 1)$$
  

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

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

By the definition of near perfect number we have

$$d = \sigma(n) - 2n$$
  
=  $(2^{p+1} - 1)2^p - (2^p - 1)2^{p+1}$   
=  $2^p (2^{p+1} - 1 - 2(2^p - 1))$   
=  $2^p (2^{p+1} - 1 - 2^{p+1} + 2)$   
=  $2^p$ 

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

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

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

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

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

$$= 2(p+1)$$

Hence the proof.

Lemma 3: If p and  $2^{p} - 1$  are primes then  $(2^{p-1}, (2^{p} - 1)^{2}) = 1$ . Proof: On contrary assume that  $(2^{p-1}, (2^{p} - 1)^{2}) = d > 1$   $\Rightarrow d \mid 2^{p-1}$  and  $d \mid (2^{p} - 1)^{2}$   $d \mid 2^{p-1} \Rightarrow d \in \{2, 2^{2}, 2^{3}, ..., 2^{p-1}\} = A$   $d \mid (2^{p} - 1)^{2} \Rightarrow d \in \{(2^{p} - 1), (2^{p} - 1)^{2}\} = B$   $\Rightarrow d \in A$  and  $d \in B$  $\Rightarrow d \in A \cap B$ 

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

 $\tau(\tau(n)) = \tau(9)$ 

Hence the proof.

**Corollary 6:** If  $n = 2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)^2$  is a Near Perfect Number then  $\tau(\tau(n)) = \begin{cases} 3 & \text{if } p = 3 \\ 4 & \text{if } p \neq 3 \end{cases}$ **Proof:** From previous theorem we have  $\tau(n) = 3p$ Case 1: p = 3,

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

$$\tau(p) = 2 \text{ and } (3, p) = 1$$
  
 $\tau(\tau(n)) = \tau(3p)$   
 $= \tau(3)\tau(p)$   
 $= 2(2)$   
 $= 4$ 

Hence the proof.

Lemma 7: If k + 1 = p and  $p^q - k$  are primes then  $(p^{q-1}, p^q - k) = 1$ . Proof: k + 1 = p(1) On contrary assume that  $(p^{q-1}, p^q - k) = d > 1$   $\Rightarrow d \mid p^{q-1}$  and  $d \mid p^q - k$   $d \mid p^{q-1} \Rightarrow d \in \{p, p^2, p^3, ..., p^{q-1}\} = A$  $d \mid p^q - k \Rightarrow d \in \{p^q - k\} = B$ 

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

$$p + k = p^q \tag{2}$$



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But

 $p \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  $\Rightarrow p^{q} \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \text{ and } p + k \equiv k \pmod{p}$ 

Substituting in (2) we get

Substituting in (1) we get

 $1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ 

 $k \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ 

This contradicts the fact that p is a prime.

Hence  $p \neq p^q - k$ . Since

 $d \in A \text{ and } d \in B$  $\Rightarrow d \in A \cap B$ 

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Hence the proof.

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

$$\tau(\tau(n)) = \tau(2q)$$
$$= \tau(4)$$
$$= 3$$

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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$$\tau(\tau(n)) = \tau(2q)$$
$$= \tau(2)\tau(q)$$
$$= 2(2)$$
$$= 4$$

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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