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THE MATHEMATICAL BEAUTY OF THE PERFECT NUMBERS

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ABSTRACT

Mathematicians have been fascinated for centuries by the properties and patterns of numbers. They have noticed that some numbers are equal to the sum of all of their factors (not including the number itself). Such numbers are called perfect numbers. Thus a positive integer is called a perfect number if it is equal to the sum of its proper positive divisors. The search for perfect numbers began in ancient times. The four perfect numbers 6, 28, 496, and 8128 seem to have been known from ancient times. In this paper, we will investigate some important properties of perfect numbers. We give easy and simple proofs of theorems using finite series. We give our own alternative proof of the well-known Euclid's Theorem (Theorem I). We will also prove some important theorems which play key roles in the mathematical theory of perfect numbers.

KEYWORDS

Prime Numbers, Perfect numbers, and Triangular numbers., Perfect square, Pascal Triangles.



1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Throughout history, there have been studies on perfect numbers. It is not known when perfect numbers were first studied and indeed the first studies may go back to the earliest times when numbers first aroused curiosity [6]. It is rather likely, although not completely certain, that the Egyptians would have come across such numbers naturally given the way their methods of calculation worked, where detailed justification for this idea is given [6]. Perfect numbers were studied by Pythagoras and his followers, more for their mystical properties than for their number theoretic properties [6]. Although, the four perfect numbers 6, 28, 496 and 8128 seem to have been known from ancient times and there is no record of these discoveries [6]. The First recorded mathematical result concerning perfect numbers which is known occurs in Eculid's Elements written around 300BC [6].

Theorem 1. If $2^k - 1$ (k>1) is prime, then $n = 2^{k-1} (2^k - 1)$ is a perfect number.

Proof: We will show that n = sum of its proper factors.

We will find all the proper factors of $2^{k-1}(2^k-1)$, and add them.

Since 2^k -1 is prime, let $p = 2^k$ -1. Then $n = p(2^k$ -1)

Let us list all factors of 2^{k-1} and other proper factors of n as follows.

Factors of 2*k*-1 Other Proper Factors

1	p
2	2p
2^2	2^2p
2^3	2^3p
:	:
:	:
2^{k-1}	2^{k-2} 1

Adding the first column, we get:

$$1+2+2^{2}+2^{3}...+2^{k-3}+2^{k-2}+2^{k-1}$$

$$=2^{k}-1$$

$$=p$$

Adding the second column, we get:

$$p + 2p + 2^{2}p + 2^{3}p \dots + 2^{k-4}p + 2^{k-3}p + 2^{k-2}p$$

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

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

Now adding the two columns together, we get:

The Mathematical Beauty of The Perfect Numbers

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

Hence. n is a perfect number.

Remark I: A question can be raised if k is prime by itself

 \Rightarrow 2^{k-1}(2^k-1) is a perfect number. The answer is negative as it will be easily shown that it does not work for k=11.

Corollary 1: If 2^k -1 is prime, then $n=2^{k-1}+2^k+2^{k+1}...+2^{2k-2}$ is a perfect number.

Proof: We have:

$$n = 2^{k-1} + 2^k + 2^{k+1} \dots + 2^{2k-2} = 2^{k-1} (1 + 2 + 2^2 + 2^3 \dots + 2^{k-1})$$

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

 \Rightarrow *n* is a perfect number by Theorem 1.

Remark II: Every even perfect number n is of the form

 $n = 2^{k-1}(2^k-1)$. We will not prove this, but we will accept and use it.

So, the converse to Theorem 1 is also true. This is called Euler's Theorem.

Next we will show how Remark II applies to the first four perfect numbers. Note that:

$$6 = 2 \cdot 3 = 2^{1} (2^{2} - 1) = 2^{2-1} (2^{2} - 1)$$

$$28 = 4 \cdot 7 = 2^{2} (2^{3} - 1) = 2^{3-1} (2^{3} - 1)$$

$$496 = 16 \cdot 31 = 2^{4} (2^{5} - 1) = 2^{5-1} (2^{5} - 1)$$

$$8128 = 64 \cdot 127 = 2^{6} (2^{7} - 1) = 2^{7-1} (2^{7} - 1)$$

Theorem II: The sum of the reciprocals of the factors of a perfect number is n is equal to 2.

Proof: Let $n = 2^{k-1} (2^k - 1)$ where $p = 2^k - 1$ and is prime. Let us list all the possible factors of n.

Factors of 2^{k-1} Other Factors

Sum of reciprocals of factors of 2 k-1

$$\begin{split} &1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^{2}} + \frac{1}{2^{3}} \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \\ &= \frac{2^{k-1}}{2^{k-1}} + \frac{2^{k-1}}{2(2^{k-1})} + \frac{2^{k-1}}{2^{2}(2^{k-1})} \dots + \frac{1}{(2^{k-1})} \\ &= \frac{2^{k-1}}{2^{k-1}} + \frac{2^{k-1} \cdot 2^{-1}}{2^{k-1}} + \frac{2^{k-1} \cdot 2^{-2}}{2^{k-1}} \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \\ &= \frac{2^{k-1}}{2^{k-1}} + \frac{2^{k-2}}{2^{k-1}} + \frac{2^{k-3}}{2^{k-1}} \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \\ &= \frac{2^{k-1}}{2^{k-1}} + 2^{k-2} + 2^{k-3} \dots + 1}{2^{k-1}} \\ &= \frac{2^{k} - 1}{2^{k-1}} = \frac{p}{2^{k-1}} \end{split}$$

Sum of reciprocals of other factors

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{2p} + \frac{1}{2^{2}p} + \frac{1}{2^{3}p} \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k-1}p}$$

$$= \frac{2^{k-1}}{2^{k-1}p} + \frac{2^{k-1}}{2(2^{k-1}p)} + \frac{2^{k-1}}{2^{2}(2^{k-1}p)} \dots + \frac{1}{(2^{k-1}p)}$$

$$= \frac{2^{k-1}}{2^{k-1}p} + \frac{2^{k-1} \cdot 2^{-1}}{2^{k-1}p} + \frac{2^{k-1} \cdot 2^{-2}}{2^{k-1}p} \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k-1}p}$$

$$= \frac{2^{k-1}}{2^{k-1}p} + \frac{2^{k-2}}{2^{k-1}p} + \frac{2^{k-3}}{2^{k-1}p} \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k-1}p}$$

$$= \frac{2^{k-1} + 2^{k-2} + 2^{k-3} \dots + 1}{2^{k-1}p}$$

$$= \frac{2^{k} - 1}{2^{k-1}p} = \frac{p}{2^{k-1}p} = \frac{1}{2^{k-1}}$$

Now the sums of reciprocals of all factors are equal to:

$$= \frac{p}{2^{k-1}} + \frac{1}{2^{k-1}}$$

$$= \frac{p+1}{2^{k-1}}$$

$$= \frac{2^k - 1 + 1}{2^{k-1}}$$

$$= \frac{2^k}{2^{k-1}} = 2$$

Factors of 8128 are: 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64,127, 254, 508, 1016, 2032, 4064, and 8128. Note that

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{32} + \frac{1}{64} + \frac{1}{127} + \frac{1}{254} + \frac{1}{508} + \frac{1}{1016} + \frac{1}{2032} + \frac{1}{4064} + \frac{1}{8128}$$

$$= \frac{8128 + 4064 + 2032 + 1026 + 508 + 254 + 127 + 64 + 32 + 16 + 8 + 4 + 2 + 1}{8128}$$

$$= \frac{16256}{8128} = 2$$

The following shows application of Theorem III.

Corollary III. No power of a prime can be a perfect number.

Proof:. Let p be prime and let $n = p^k$. The factors of n are 1, p, p^2 , $p^3 ldot p^k$.

Now, we have:

$$1 + \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{p^{2}} + \frac{1}{p^{3}} \dots + \frac{1}{p^{k}}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{p^{k-1} + p^{k-2} + p^{k-3} \dots + p + 1}{p^{k}}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{p^{k} - 1}{p^{k} (p - 1)}$$

$$\leq 1 + \frac{p^{k} - 1}{p^{k}}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{p^{k}}{p^{k}} - \frac{1}{p^{k}}$$

$$= 1 + 1 - \frac{1}{p^{k}}$$

$$= 2 - \frac{1}{p^{k}} < 2.$$

Therefore, n is not a perfect number.

Theorem III: If n is a perfect number such that $n = 2^{k-1}(2^k-1)$, then the product of the positive divisor's of n is equal to n^k .

Proof: We list factors of n as in Theorem 2

Factors	of 2^{k-1}	Other	Factors
I actors	01 2	Ouici	1 actors

1	P
2	2p
2^2	2^2p
2^3	2^3p
:	:
:	:
2^{k-1}	$2^{k-1} p$

Product of column 1 =

$$1*2*2^2*2^3...*2^{k-1} = 2^{1+2+3...+(k-1)} = 2^{\frac{k(k-1)}{2}}$$

Product of column 2 =

$$p \cdot 2p \cdot 2^{2} p \dots \cdot 2^{k-1} p$$

$$= p^{k} (1 \cdot 2 \cdot 2^{2} \dots 2^{k-1})$$

$$= p^{k} (2^{\frac{k(k-1)}{2}}),$$

Therefore the products of both columns are

$$= 2^{\frac{k(k-1)}{2}} \cdot p^{k} \cdot 2^{\frac{k(k-1)}{2}}$$

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

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

$$= n^{k}.$$

Example 1: Apply Theorem IV to n = 28

$$n = 28 = 2^2(2^3-1)$$
 (Here $k = 3$)

Factors of 28 are 1, 2, 4, 7, 14, and 28

The product of the factors of 28 =

$$1 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 7 \cdot 14 \cdot 28$$
$$= 28 \cdot 28 \cdot 28$$
$$= 28^{3}$$

Example 2: Apply Theorem IV to n = 496

$$n = 496 = 2^4(2^5-1)$$
 (Here $k = 5$)

Factors of 496 are 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 31, 62, 124, and 496

The products of the factors of 496 =

$$1 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 8 \cdot 16 \cdot 31 \cdot 62 \cdot 124 \cdot 248 \cdot 496$$
$$= 496 \cdot 496 \cdot 496 \cdot 496 \cdot 496$$
$$= 496^{5}$$

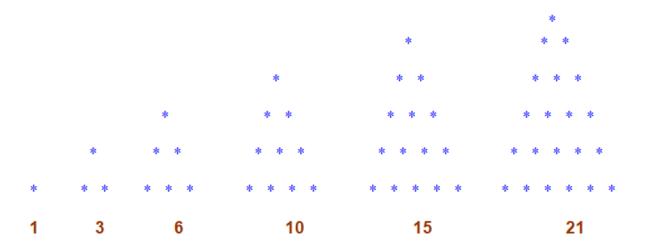
Triangular Numbers

The triangular numbers are formed by partial sum of the series 1+2+3+4+5+6+7...+n. In other words, triangular numbers are those counting numbers that can be written as $T_n = 1+2+3+...+n$. So,

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\begin{split} T_{1} &= 1 \\ T_{2} &= 1 + 2 + 3 \\ T_{3} &= 1 + 2 + 3 = 6 \\ T_{4} &= 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 = 10 \\ T_{5} &= 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 = 15 \\ T_{6} &= 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 = 21 \\ T_{7} &= 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 = 28 \\ T_{8} &= 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 + 8 = 36 \\ T_{9} &= 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 9 = 45 \\ T_{10} &= 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 9 + 10 = 55 \\ \end{split}
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The sequence 1, 3, 6, 10, 15, ..., n(n + 1)/2, ... shows up in many places of mathematics[1]. The Greek called them triangular numbers [1]. The triangular number $\frac{1}{n}$ is a figurate number that can be represented in the form of a triangular grid of points where the first row

Contains a single element and each subsequent row contains one more element than the previous one as shown below [2].



Theorem IV: Every triangular number is a <u>binomial coefficient</u>.

Proof without words Refer to the following Pascal's Triangle [and see the red colored numbers.

Theorem V. Every even perfect number n is a triangular number.

Proof: n is a perfect number \Rightarrow n= $2^{k-1}(2^k-1)$ by Remark III. Hence,

$$n = \frac{2^k (2^k - 1)}{2} = \frac{(m+1)m}{2}$$
, where m=2^k-1. Thus n is a triangular number.

Corollary II If T is a perfect number, then 8T +1 is a perfect square.

Proof: T is a perfect number \Rightarrow T is a triangular number.

$$\Rightarrow T = \frac{(m+1)m}{2} \text{ for some positive integer m.}$$

$$\Rightarrow 8T+1 = 4m(m+1)+1$$

$$= 4m^2 + 4m+1$$

$$= (2m+1)^2$$

References

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