# On odd near-perfect and deficient-perfect numbers with *k* distinct prime divisors

Carlo Francisco E. Adajar and Richell O. Celeste

February 19, 2018



# Table of Contents

- Introduction
  - The Search for Odd Perfect Numbers
  - Near-Perfect and Deficient-Perfect Numbers
- 2 A Theoretical Result
- A Computational Result
- 4 References

Definition

#### Definition

• Let  $\sigma(n)$  denote the sum of the divisors of n. A **perfect number** is a positive integer n for which  $\sigma(n) = 2n$ .

#### Definition

- Let  $\sigma(n)$  denote the sum of the divisors of n. A **perfect number** is a positive integer n for which  $\sigma(n) = 2n$ .
- ② A perfect number is the sum of its proper divisors, i.e., its divisors other than itself.

1 The even perfect numbers have been completely characterized.

1 The even perfect numbers have been completely characterized.

## Theorem (Euclid)

If p and  $2^p - 1$  are both prime, then  $2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$  is a perfect number.

1 The even perfect numbers have been completely characterized.

## Theorem (Euclid)

If p and  $2^p - 1$  are both prime, then  $2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$  is a perfect number.

#### Theorem (Euler)

Every even perfect number is of the form  $2^{p-1}(2^p-1)$ , where p and  $2^p-1$  are both prime.

1 The even perfect numbers have been completely characterized.

## Theorem (Euclid)

If p and  $2^p - 1$  are both prime, then  $2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$  is a perfect number.

#### Theorem (Euler)

Every even perfect number is of the form  $2^{p-1}(2^p-1)$ , where p and  $2^p-1$  are both prime.

Odd perfect numbers, however, have proven to be more elusive.



Theorem (Ochem and Rao, 2012)

There are no odd perfect numbers less than  $10^{1500}$ .

#### Theorem (Ochem and Rao, 2012)

There are no odd perfect numbers less than  $10^{1500}$ .

## Theorem (Nielsen, 2015)

Any odd perfect number must have at least ten distinct prime factors.

#### Theorem (Ochem and Rao, 2012)

There are no odd perfect numbers less than  $10^{1500}$ .

## Theorem (Nielsen, 2015)

Any odd perfect number must have at least ten distinct prime factors.

#### Theorem (Ochem and Rao, 2012)

Any odd perfect number must have at least 101 prime factors in total (counting multiplicities).

#### Theorem (Dickson, 1913)

For any positive integer k, there are finitely many odd perfect numbers with k distinct prime factors.

#### Theorem (Dickson, 1913)

For any positive integer k, there are finitely many odd perfect numbers with k distinct prime factors.

#### Theorem (Nielsen, 2003)

Suppose n is an odd number with k distinct prime factors and m is the denominator of  $\frac{\sigma(n)}{n}$  (in lowest terms). Then

$$n<(m+1)^{4^k}$$

#### Theorem (Dickson, 1913)

For any positive integer k, there are finitely many odd perfect numbers with k distinct prime factors.

#### Theorem (Nielsen, 2003)

Suppose n is an odd number with k distinct prime factors and m is the denominator of  $\frac{\sigma(n)}{n}$  (in lowest terms). Then

$$n<(m+1)^{4^k}$$

#### Remark

This implies, in particular, that an odd near-perfect number with k distinct prime factors is less than  $2^{4^k}$ .

## Theorem (Pollack, 2011)

There are at most  $4^{k^2}$  odd perfect numbers with k distinct prime factors.

Definition (Pollack and Shevelev, 2012)

## Definition (Pollack and Shevelev, 2012)

• A **near-perfect number** is a positive integer *n* that is the sum of all but one of its proper divisors.

## Definition (Pollack and Shevelev, 2012)

- A **near-perfect number** is a positive integer *n* that is the sum of all but one of its proper divisors.
- Equivalently, a near-perfect number is a positive integer n for which  $\sigma(n) = 2n + d$ , where d divides n.

## Definition (Pollack and Shevelev, 2012)

- A **near-perfect number** is a positive integer *n* that is the sum of all but one of its proper divisors.
- Equivalently, a near-perfect number is a positive integer n for which  $\sigma(n) = 2n + d$ , where d divides n.
- d is known as the **redundant divisor** of n.

Example

#### Example

• 12 is a near-perfect number because 12 = 1 + 2 + 3 + 6, and 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 are the proper divisors of 12. In this case, 4 is the redundant divisor.

#### Example

- 12 is a near-perfect number because 12 = 1 + 2 + 3 + 6, and 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 are the proper divisors of 12. In this case, 4 is the redundant divisor.
- $\sigma(12) 2 \cdot 12 = 28 24 = 4$ .

## Example

- 12 is a near-perfect number because 12 = 1 + 2 + 3 + 6, and 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 are the proper divisors of 12. In this case, 4 is the redundant divisor.
- $\sigma(12) 2 \cdot 12 = 28 24 = 4$ .

#### Remark

12 is the smallest near-perfect number.

#### Example

- 12 is a near-perfect number because 12 = 1 + 2 + 3 + 6, and 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 are the proper divisors of 12. In this case, 4 is the redundant divisor.
- $\sigma(12) 2 \cdot 12 = 28 24 = 4$ .

#### Remark

12 is the smallest near-perfect number.

#### Remark

See sequence A181595 of the OEIS for more discussion.



Definition (Tang et. al., 2013)

## Definition (Tang et. al., 2013)

• A **deficient-perfect** number is a positive integer n for which  $\sigma(n) = 2n - d$ , where d divides n.

## Definition (Tang et. al., 2013)

- A **deficient-perfect** number is a positive integer n for which  $\sigma(n) = 2n d$ , where d divides n.
- In this case, d is known as the **deficiency divisor** of n.

## Definition (Tang et. al., 2013)

- A **deficient-perfect** number is a positive integer n for which  $\sigma(n) = 2n d$ , where d divides n.
- In this case, d is known as the **deficiency divisor** of n.

#### Example

## Definition (Tang et. al., 2013)

- A **deficient-perfect** number is a positive integer n for which  $\sigma(n) = 2n d$ , where d divides n.
- In this case, *d* is known as the **deficiency divisor** of *n*.

#### Example

• Every power of 2 is a deficient-perfect number with d = 1.

#### Definition (Tang et. al., 2013)

- A **deficient-perfect** number is a positive integer n for which  $\sigma(n) = 2n d$ , where d divides n.
- In this case, *d* is known as the **deficiency divisor** of *n*.

#### Example

- Every power of 2 is a deficient-perfect number with d = 1.
- 10 is a deficient-perfect number with d = 2.

#### Definition (Tang et. al., 2013)

- A **deficient-perfect** number is a positive integer n for which  $\sigma(n) = 2n d$ , where d divides n.
- In this case, *d* is known as the **deficiency divisor** of *n*.

#### Example

- Every power of 2 is a deficient-perfect number with d = 1.
- 10 is a deficient-perfect number with d = 2.

#### Remark

See sequence A271816 of the OEIS for more discussion.



 Like with perfect numbers, even near-perfect and deficient-perfect numbers have some known constructions.

- Like with perfect numbers, even near-perfect and deficient-perfect numbers have some known constructions.
- Like with perfect numbers, odd near-perfect and deficient-perfect numbers are much rarer.

- Like with perfect numbers, even near-perfect and deficient-perfect numbers have some known constructions.
- Like with perfect numbers, odd near-perfect and deficient-perfect numbers are much rarer.
- Tang, Ren, Li showed that any odd near-perfect number must have at least four odd distinct prime factors.

- Like with perfect numbers, even near-perfect and deficient-perfect numbers have some known constructions.
- Like with perfect numbers, odd near-perfect and deficient-perfect numbers are much rarer.
- Tang, Ren, Li showed that any odd near-perfect number must have at least four odd distinct prime factors.
- Tang and Feng showed the same for any odd deficient-perfect number.

# Odd Near-Perfect and Deficient-Perfect Numbers

• In 2012, Donovan Johnson found the smallest odd near-perfect number:  $173369889 = 3^4 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 11^2 \cdot 19^2$ .

# Odd Near-Perfect and Deficient-Perfect Numbers

- In 2012, Donovan Johnson found the smallest odd near-perfect number:  $173369889 = 3^4 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 11^2 \cdot 19^2$ .
- In February 2016, the authors found the smallest deficient-perfect number:  $9018009 = 3^2 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 11^2 \cdot 13^2$ .

# Table of Contents

- Introduction
- 2 A Theoretical Result
- 3 A Computational Result
- 4 References

#### Lemma

Suppose  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k$  are k distinct primes, and  $M \in \mathbb{R}$ .

#### Lemma

Suppose  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k$  are k distinct primes, and  $M \in \mathbb{R}$ .

The set

$$\{\sigma_{-1}(p_1^{r_1}p_2^{r_2}\ldots p_k^{r_k})\geq M: r_1,r_2,\ldots,r_k\in 2\mathbb{N}\},\$$

if nonempty, contains its minimum.

#### Lemma

Suppose  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k$  are k distinct primes, and  $M \in \mathbb{R}$ .

The set

$$\{\sigma_{-1}(p_1^{r_1}p_2^{r_2}\dots p_k^{r_k})\geq M: r_1,r_2,\dots,r_k\in 2\mathbb{N}\},$$

if nonempty, contains its minimum.

The set

$$\{\sigma_{-1}(p_1^{r_1}p_2^{r_2}\dots p_k^{r_k})\leq M: r_1,r_2,\dots,r_k\in 2\mathbb{N}\cup\{\infty\}\},\$$

if nonempty, contains its maximum.



**1** The proof is by induction on k.

- **1** The proof is by induction on k.
- ② In the near-perfect case, this inductive proof can be adapted into a recursive algorithm.

- **1** The proof is by induction on k.
- In the near-perfect case, this inductive proof can be adapted into a recursive algorithm.
- **③** In particular, given a set of odd primes  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k$ , by using i. and setting M = 2, we can find a minimal lower bound  $M_k > 2$  for  $\sigma_{-1}(n)$  over all odd abundant squares n with prime factors  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k$ . Since no odd perfect squares can be perfect, we must have  $M_k > 2$ .

### Algorithm:

• Calculate  $m_{\infty}$ .

#### Algorithm:

- **1** Calculate  $m_{\infty}$ .
- ② For each eligible  $r_1$ , calculate  $m_{r_1}$ . Stop as soon as  $m_{r_1} = m_{\infty}$ .

#### Algorithm:

- **1** Calculate  $m_{\infty}$ .
- ② For each eligible  $r_1$ , calculate  $m_{r_1}$ . Stop as soon as  $m_{r_1} = m_{\infty}$ .
- **3** Find the minimum of all computed values of  $\sigma_{-1}(p_1^{r_1})m_{r_1}$ . This is the desired minimal element.

**1** Recall: if n is near-perfect, we have  $\sigma_{-1}(n) = \frac{2\frac{n}{d}+1}{\frac{n}{d}}$ . By noting that  $\frac{n}{d}$  must have all its prime factors in  $\{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k\}$ , we can limit the number of cases we need to check.

- Recall: if n is near-perfect, we have  $\sigma_{-1}(n) = \frac{2\frac{n}{d}+1}{\frac{n}{d}}$ . By noting that  $\frac{n}{d}$  must have all its prime factors in  $\{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k\}$ , we can limit the number of cases we need to check.
- ② Thus, if  $\sigma_{-1}(n) \geq M_k$ , we have  $\frac{n}{d} \leq \frac{1}{M_k 2}$ .

- Recall: if n is near-perfect, we have  $\sigma_{-1}(n) = \frac{2\frac{n}{d}+1}{\frac{n}{d}}$ . By noting that  $\frac{n}{d}$  must have all its prime factors in  $\{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k\}$ , we can limit the number of cases we need to check.
- ② Thus, if  $\sigma_{-1}(n) \geq M_k$ , we have  $\frac{n}{d} \leq \frac{1}{M_k 2}$ .
- Moreover, we have, from Nielsen's earlier result,

$$n<\left(1+\frac{n}{d}\right)^{4^k}.$$

- Recall: if n is near-perfect, we have  $\sigma_{-1}(n) = \frac{2\frac{n}{d}+1}{\frac{n}{d}}$ . By noting that  $\frac{n}{d}$  must have all its prime factors in  $\{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k\}$ , we can limit the number of cases we need to check.
- ② Thus, if  $\sigma_{-1}(n) \ge M_k$ , we have  $\frac{n}{d} \le \frac{1}{M_k 2}$ .
- Moreover, we have, from Nielsen's earlier result,

$$n<\left(1+\frac{n}{d}\right)^{4^k}.$$

These and usual number theoretic arguments allow us to check for near-perfect numbers with a given set of prime factors.



In fact, using this lemma and Nielsen's result, we obtain:

#### Theorem

Suppose k is a nonnegative integer. Then:

In fact, using this lemma and Nielsen's result, we obtain:

#### Theorem

Suppose k is a nonnegative integer. Then:

• There are finitely many odd near-perfect integers with exactly k prime divisors.

In fact, using this lemma and Nielsen's result, we obtain:

#### Theorem

Suppose k is a nonnegative integer. Then:

- There are finitely many odd near-perfect integers with exactly k prime divisors.
- There are finitely many odd deficient-perfect integers with exactly k prime divisors.

In fact, using this lemma and Nielsen's result, we obtain:

#### Theorem

Suppose k is a nonnegative integer. Then:

- There are finitely many odd near-perfect integers with exactly k prime divisors.
- There are finitely many odd deficient-perfect integers with exactly k prime divisors.

#### Remark

In a way, this is analogous to Dickson's result for odd perfect numbers.



# Table of Contents

- Introduction
- 2 A Theoretical Result
- 3 A Computational Result
- 4 References

# Finding All Odd Near-Perfect Numbers With Four Distinct Prime Divisors

• The case k = 4 is tractable with computer assistance.

# Finding All Odd Near-Perfect Numbers With Four Distinct Prime Divisors

- The case k = 4 is tractable with computer assistance.
- Note that  $3 \mid n$ ; otherwise, n is deficient.

# Finding All Odd Near-Perfect Numbers With Four Distinct Prime Divisors

- The case k = 4 is tractable with computer assistance.
- Note that  $3 \mid n$ ; otherwise, n is deficient.
- Similarly, at least one of 5 and 7 divides n.

• If  $n = 3^w 7^x p^y q^z$  is abundant, then we need  $\frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{7}{6} \cdot \frac{p}{p-1} \cdot \frac{q}{q-1} > 2$ . This rearranges to (p-8)(q-8) < 56.

- If  $n = 3^w 7^x p^y q^z$  is abundant, then we need  $\frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{7}{6} \cdot \frac{p}{p-1} \cdot \frac{q}{q-1} > 2$ . This rearranges to (p-8)(q-8) < 56.
- Therefore,  $(p, q) \in \{(11, 13), (11, 17), (11, 19), (11, 23), (13, 17), (13, 19)\}.$

- If  $n = 3^w 7^x p^y q^z$  is abundant, then we need  $\frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{7}{6} \cdot \frac{p}{p-1} \cdot \frac{q}{q-1} > 2$ . This rearranges to (p-8)(q-8) < 56.
- Therefore,  $(p, q) \in \{(11, 13), (11, 17), (11, 19), (11, 23), (13, 17), (13, 19)\}.$
- Individually checking each case with computer assistance yields one solution:  $n = 3^4 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 11^2 \cdot 19^2$ , as found by Donovan Johnson in 2012.

• If  $n=3^w5^xp^yq^z$  is abundant, then we need  $\frac{3}{2}\cdot\frac{5}{4}\cdot\frac{p}{p-1}\cdot\frac{q}{q-1}>2$ . This rearranges to (p-16)(q-16)<240.

- If  $n=3^w5^xp^yq^z$  is abundant, then we need  $\frac{3}{2}\cdot\frac{5}{4}\cdot\frac{p}{p-1}\cdot\frac{q}{q-1}>2$ . This rearranges to (p-16)(q-16)<240.
- Therefore,  $p \le 31$ .

- If  $n=3^w5^xp^yq^z$  is abundant, then we need  $\frac{3}{2}\cdot\frac{5}{4}\cdot\frac{p}{p-1}\cdot\frac{q}{q-1}>2$ . This rearranges to (p-16)(q-16)<240.
- Therefore,  $p \le 31$ .
  - If p = 17, then  $q \le 251$ .

- If  $n=3^w5^xp^yq^z$  is abundant, then we need  $\frac{3}{2}\cdot\frac{5}{4}\cdot\frac{p}{p-1}\cdot\frac{q}{q-1}>2$ . This rearranges to (p-16)(q-16)<240.
- Therefore,  $p \le 31$ .
  - If p = 17, then  $q \le 251$ .
  - If p = 19, then  $q \le 89$ .

- If  $n=3^w5^xp^yq^z$  is abundant, then we need  $\frac{3}{2}\cdot\frac{5}{4}\cdot\frac{p}{p-1}\cdot\frac{q}{q-1}>2$ . This rearranges to (p-16)(q-16)<240.
- Therefore,  $p \le 31$ .
  - If p = 17, then  $q \le 251$ .
  - If p = 19, then  $q \le 89$ .
  - If p = 23, then  $q \le 47$ .

- If  $n=3^w5^xp^yq^z$  is abundant, then we need  $\frac{3}{2}\cdot\frac{5}{4}\cdot\frac{p}{p-1}\cdot\frac{q}{q-1}>2$ . This rearranges to (p-16)(q-16)<240.
- Therefore,  $p \le 31$ .
  - If p = 17, then  $q \le 251$ .
  - If p = 19, then  $q \le 89$ .
  - If p = 23, then  $q \le 47$ .
  - If p = 29, then q = 31.

- If  $n=3^w5^xp^yq^z$  is abundant, then we need  $\frac{3}{2}\cdot\frac{5}{4}\cdot\frac{p}{p-1}\cdot\frac{q}{q-1}>2$ . This rearranges to (p-16)(q-16)<240.
- Therefore,  $p \le 31$ .
  - If p = 17, then  $q \le 251$ .
  - If p = 19, then  $q \le 89$ .
  - If p = 23, then  $q \le 47$ .
  - If p = 29, then q = 31.
- If p = 7, 11, 13, there are no restrictions on q. We need more.

• If  $n = 3^w 5^x 7^y q^z$  is near-perfect, then unconditionally on q, we get that  $\sigma_{-1}(n) > \sigma_{-1}(3^2 5^2 7^2) > 2 + \frac{1}{12}$  and so  $\frac{n}{d} < 12$ .

- If  $n = 3^w 5^x 7^y q^z$  is near-perfect, then unconditionally on q, we get that  $\sigma_{-1}(n) > \sigma_{-1}(3^2 5^2 7^2) > 2 + \frac{1}{12}$  and so  $\frac{n}{d} < 12$ .
- We note that  $7 \mid \sigma(n)$  and so  $q \neq 13$  (since ord<sub>7</sub>(13) = 2).

- If  $n=3^w5^x7^yq^z$  is near-perfect, then unconditionally on q, we get that  $\sigma_{-1}(n)>\sigma_{-1}(3^25^27^2)>2+\frac{1}{12}$  and so  $\frac{n}{d}<12$ .
- We note that  $7 \mid \sigma(n)$  and so  $q \neq 13$  (since ord<sub>7</sub>(13) = 2).
- We now consider two cases: w = 2 and w > 4.

- If  $n=3^w5^x7^yq^z$  is near-perfect, then unconditionally on q, we get that  $\sigma_{-1}(n)>\sigma_{-1}(3^25^27^2)>2+\frac{1}{12}$  and so  $\frac{n}{d}<12$ .
- We note that  $7 \mid \sigma(n)$  and so  $q \neq 13$  (since ord<sub>7</sub>(13) = 2).
- We now consider two cases: w = 2 and  $w \ge 4$ .
- w = 2 is impossible, since we need  $13 \mid 2\frac{n}{d} + 1$  but  $\frac{n}{d} < 12$  and is odd.

• If  $w \ge 4$ , then we have  $\frac{n}{d} \in \{3, 5\}$ .

- If  $w \ge 4$ , then we have  $\frac{n}{d} \in \{3, 5\}$ .
- This means that  $v_3(\sigma(n)) \ge 3$ . However, we cannot have  $v_3(\sigma(7^y)) \ge 2$ ; or else we must have  $37 \cdot 1063 \mid \sigma(n)$  which is not possible. Hence,  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  and  $q \ne 11$ .

- If  $w \ge 4$ , then we have  $\frac{n}{d} \in \{3, 5\}$ .
- This means that  $v_3(\sigma(n)) \ge 3$ . However, we cannot have  $v_3(\sigma(7^y)) \ge 2$ ; or else we must have  $37 \cdot 1063 \mid \sigma(n)$  which is not possible. Hence,  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  and  $q \ne 11$ .
- We also need 5  $\mid \sigma(q^z)$  and 7  $\mid \sigma(q^z)$ ; this implies that  $q \geq 151$ .

- If  $w \ge 4$ , then we have  $\frac{n}{d} \in \{3, 5\}$ .
- This means that  $v_3(\sigma(n)) \ge 3$ . However, we cannot have  $v_3(\sigma(7^y)) \ge 2$ ; or else we must have  $37 \cdot 1063 \mid \sigma(n)$  which is not possible. Hence,  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  and  $q \ne 11$ .
- We also need 5  $\mid \sigma(q^z)$  and 7  $\mid \sigma(q^z)$ ; this implies that  $q \geq 151$ .
- Moreover, we show that w=4 is impossible: we must have  $121 \mid \sigma(n)$  and so  $121 \mid 2\frac{n}{d} + 1$  (since  $q \neq 11$ ). Hence  $w \geq 6$ .

- If  $w \ge 4$ , then we have  $\frac{n}{d} \in \{3, 5\}$ .
- This means that  $v_3(\sigma(n)) \ge 3$ . However, we cannot have  $v_3(\sigma(7^y)) \ge 2$ ; or else we must have  $37 \cdot 1063 \mid \sigma(n)$  which is not possible. Hence,  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  and  $q \ne 11$ .
- We also need 5  $\mid \sigma(q^z)$  and 7  $\mid \sigma(q^z)$ ; this implies that  $q \geq 151$ .
- Moreover, we show that w=4 is impossible: we must have  $121 \mid \sigma(n)$  and so  $121 \mid 2\frac{n}{d} + 1$  (since  $q \neq 11$ ). Hence  $w \geq 6$ .
- It follows that  $z \equiv -1 \pmod{3^4}$  and  $z \equiv -1 \pmod{5}$ , so z > 404.

- If  $w \ge 4$ , then we have  $\frac{n}{d} \in \{3, 5\}$ .
- This means that  $v_3(\sigma(n)) \ge 3$ . However, we cannot have  $v_3(\sigma(7^y)) \ge 2$ ; or else we must have  $37 \cdot 1063 \mid \sigma(n)$  which is not possible. Hence,  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  and  $q \ne 11$ .
- We also need 5  $\mid \sigma(q^z)$  and 7  $\mid \sigma(q^z)$ ; this implies that  $q \geq 151$ .
- Moreover, we show that w=4 is impossible: we must have  $121 \mid \sigma(n)$  and so  $121 \mid 2\frac{n}{d} + 1$  (since  $q \neq 11$ ). Hence  $w \geq 6$ .
- It follows that  $z \equiv -1 \pmod{3^4}$  and  $z \equiv -1 \pmod{5}$ , so  $z \geq 404$ .
- Hence,  $n > q^z > 151^{404} > 6^{256}$ . This is a contradiction.



The proof for p=11 requires a few additional preliminaries, namely two lemmas from Nielsen:

#### Lemma (Nielsen, 2006)

Let p be an odd prime and let q be 3 or 5. If  $q^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$  then either (q, p) = (3, 11) or  $q^{\operatorname{ord}_p(q)} - 1$  has a prime divisor greater than  $10^{13}$ .

The proof for p=11 requires a few additional preliminaries, namely two lemmas from Nielsen:

#### Lemma (Nielsen, 2006)

Let p be an odd prime and let q be 3 or 5. If  $q^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$  then either (q, p) = (3, 11) or  $q^{\operatorname{ord}_p(q)} - 1$  has a prime divisor greater than  $10^{13}$ .

#### Lemma (Nielsen, 2006)

Let p and q be primes with  $p \in (10^2, 10^{11})$  and q = 7, 11 or 13. If  $q^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$  then  $\sigma(q^{\operatorname{ord}_p(q)-1})$  is divisible by two primes greater than  $10^{11}$ .

• We can start, here, by considering two cases: w = 2 and  $w \ge 4$ .

- We can start, here, by considering two cases: w = 2 and  $w \ge 4$ .
- If w = 2, then  $q \le 139$ . With some computer-assisted casework as in the others, there are no near-perfect odd numbers of this form.

• In the case  $w \ge 4$ , unconditionally, we have  $\frac{n}{d} \le 27$ . A little work improves this bound to  $\frac{n}{d} \le 15$ .

- In the case  $w \ge 4$ , unconditionally, we have  $\frac{n}{d} \le 27$ . A little work improves this bound to  $\frac{n}{d} \le 15$ .
- We start by discounting all q < 100.

- In the case  $w \ge 4$ , unconditionally, we have  $\frac{n}{d} \le 27$ . A little work improves this bound to  $\frac{n}{d} \le 15$ .
- We start by discounting all q < 100.
- Nielsen's two lemmas imply that  $q \notin (10^2, 10^{11})$ .

• This leaves only the case  $q > 10^{11}$ .

- This leaves only the case  $q > 10^{11}$ .
- We have  $\log_{11} q > 10$ , and so this chain of inequalities:

$$\begin{split} \frac{w + x + y + 3}{10} &\geq \log_q(\sigma(3^w 5^x 11^y)) \\ &\geq v_q(\sigma(3^w)) + v_q(\sigma(5^x)) + v_q(\sigma(11^y)) \\ &\geq z \\ &\geq 3^{w-2} 5^{x-1} - 1 \\ &\geq 15(w - 2)(x - 1) - 1. \end{split}$$

- This leaves only the case  $q > 10^{11}$ .
- We have  $\log_{11} q > 10$ , and so this chain of inequalities:

$$\frac{w + x + y + 3}{10} \ge \log_q(\sigma(3^w 5^x 11^y))$$

$$\ge v_q(\sigma(3^w)) + v_q(\sigma(5^x)) + v_q(\sigma(11^y))$$

$$\ge z$$

$$\ge 3^{w-2} 5^{x-1} - 1$$

$$> 15(w - 2)(x - 1) - 1.$$

• Given that  $w \ge 4$  and  $x \ge 2$ , this means that  $y \ge 282$ .



• By similar arguments as to the case p = 7, we have  $z \ge 44$ .

- By similar arguments as to the case p = 7, we have  $z \ge 44$ .
- Hence,  $n > 11^{282} \cdot 10^{484} > 15^{256}$ .

- By similar arguments as to the case p = 7, we have  $z \ge 44$ .
- Hence,  $n > 11^{282} \cdot 10^{484} > 15^{256}$ .
- The proof for q = 13 is almost the same.

- By similar arguments as to the case p = 7, we have  $z \ge 44$ .
- Hence,  $n > 11^{282} \cdot 10^{484} > 15^{256}$ .
- The proof for q = 13 is almost the same.
- There are no odd near-perfect numbers of the form  $3^w 5^x p^y q^z$ .

### Table of Contents

- Introduction
- 2 A Theoretical Result
- A Computational Result
- 4 References

 R. J. Cook, Bounds for odd perfect numbers, Number theory (Ottawa, ON, 1996), 67-71, CRM Proc. Lecture Notes 19 (1999).

- R. J. Cook, Bounds for odd perfect numbers, Number theory (Ottawa, ON, 1996), 67-71, CRM Proc. Lecture Notes 19 (1999).
- L. E. Dickson, Finiteness of the odd perfect and primitive abundant numbers with *n* distinct prime factors, *Amer. J. Math.* **35** (1913), 413422.

- R. J. Cook, Bounds for odd perfect numbers, Number theory (Ottawa, ON, 1996), 67-71, CRM Proc. Lecture Notes 19 (1999).
- L. E. Dickson, Finiteness of the odd perfect and primitive abundant numbers with n distinct prime factors, Amer. J. Math. 35 (1913), 413422.
- D. R. Heath-Brown, Odd perfect numbers, Math. Proc. Cambridge Philos. Soc. 115 (1994), 191196.

- R. J. Cook, Bounds for odd perfect numbers, Number theory (Ottawa, ON, 1996), 67-71, CRM Proc. Lecture Notes 19 (1999).
- L. E. Dickson, Finiteness of the odd perfect and primitive abundant numbers with n distinct prime factors, Amer. J. Math. 35 (1913), 413422.
- D. R. Heath-Brown, Odd perfect numbers, Math. Proc. Cambridge Philos. Soc. 115 (1994), 191196.
- D. E. lannucci, The second largest prime divisor of an odd perfect number exceeds ten thousand, *Math. Comp.* 68 (1999), no. 228, 17491760.

- R. J. Cook, Bounds for odd perfect numbers, Number theory (Ottawa, ON, 1996), 67-71, CRM Proc. Lecture Notes 19 (1999).
- L. E. Dickson, Finiteness of the odd perfect and primitive abundant numbers with *n* distinct prime factors, *Amer. J. Math.* **35** (1913), 413422.
- D. R. Heath-Brown, Odd perfect numbers, Math. Proc. Cambridge Philos. Soc. 115 (1994), 191196.
- D. E. lannucci, The second largest prime divisor of an odd perfect number exceeds ten thousand, *Math. Comp.* 68 (1999), no. 228, 17491760.
- Y. Li and Q. Liao, A class of new near-perfect numbers, J. Korean Math. Soc. **52** (2015), no. 4, 751-763.

• P. P. Nielsen, An upper bound for odd perfect numbers, *Integers* **3** (2003), #A14.

- P. P. Nielsen, An upper bound for odd perfect numbers, *Integers* **3** (2003), #A14.
- P. Nielsen, Odd perfect numbers, Diophantine equations, and upper bounds, *Math. Comp.* 84 (2015), 2549-2567 (2015), 1003-1008.

- P. P. Nielsen, An upper bound for odd perfect numbers, Integers 3 (2003), #A14.
- P. P. Nielsen, Odd perfect numbers, Diophantine equations, and upper bounds, *Math. Comp.* 84 (2015), 2549-2567 (2015), 1003-1008.
- P. P. Nielsen, Odd perfect numbers have at least nine prime factors, arXiv:math/0602485v1.

- P. P. Nielsen, An upper bound for odd perfect numbers, Integers 3 (2003), #A14.
- P. P. Nielsen, Odd perfect numbers, Diophantine equations, and upper bounds, *Math. Comp.* 84 (2015), 2549-2567 (2015), 1003-1008.
- P. P. Nielsen, Odd perfect numbers have at least nine prime factors, arXiv:math/0602485v1.
- P. Ochem and M. Rao, Odd perfect numbers are greater than 10<sup>1500</sup>, Math. Comp. 81 (2012), 1869-1877.

- P. P. Nielsen, An upper bound for odd perfect numbers, Integers 3 (2003), #A14.
- P. P. Nielsen, Odd perfect numbers, Diophantine equations, and upper bounds, *Math. Comp.* 84 (2015), 2549-2567 (2015), 1003-1008.
- P. P. Nielsen, Odd perfect numbers have at least nine prime factors, arXiv:math/0602485v1.
- P. Ochem and M. Rao, Odd perfect numbers are greater than 10<sup>1500</sup>, Math. Comp. 81 (2012), 1869-1877.
- P. Pollack, On Dickson's theorem concerning odd perfect numbers, American Math. Monthly 118 (2011), no. 2, 161-164.

 P. Pollack and V. Shevelev, On perfect and near-perfect numbers, J. Number Theory 132 (2012), 3037-3046.

- P. Pollack and V. Shevelev, On perfect and near-perfect numbers, J. Number Theory 132 (2012), 3037-3046.
- C. Pomerance, Multiply perfect numbers, Mersenne primes, and effective computability, Math Ann. 266 (1997), 195-206.

- P. Pollack and V. Shevelev, On perfect and near-perfect numbers, J. Number Theory 132 (2012), 3037-3046.
- C. Pomerance, Multiply perfect numbers, Mersenne primes, and effective computability, Math Ann. 266 (1997), 195-206.
- X. Z. Ren and Y. G. Chen, On near-perfect numbers with two distinct prime factors, *Bull. Aust. Math. Soc.* 88 (2013), 520-524.

- P. Pollack and V. Shevelev, On perfect and near-perfect numbers, J. Number Theory 132 (2012), 3037-3046.
- C. Pomerance, Multiply perfect numbers, Mersenne primes, and effective computability, Math Ann. 266 (1997), 195-206.
- X. Z. Ren and Y. G. Chen, On near-perfect numbers with two distinct prime factors, *Bull. Aust. Math. Soc.* 88 (2013), 520-524.
- N. J. A. Sloane, The online encyclopedia of integer sequences, available online at http://www.oeis.org

- P. Pollack and V. Shevelev, On perfect and near-perfect numbers, J. Number Theory 132 (2012), 3037-3046.
- C. Pomerance, Multiply perfect numbers, Mersenne primes, and effective computability, Math Ann. 266 (1997), 195-206.
- X. Z. Ren and Y. G. Chen, On near-perfect numbers with two distinct prime factors, *Bull. Aust. Math. Soc.* 88 (2013), 520-524.
- N. J. A. Sloane, The online encyclopedia of integer sequences, available online at http://www.oeis.org
- M. Tang and M. Feng, On deficient-perfect numbers, Bull. Aust. Math. Soc. 90 (2014), 186-194.

 M. Tang, X. Z. Ren, M. Li, On near-perfect and deficient-perfect numbers, *Collog. Math.* 133 (2013), 221-226.

- M. Tang, X. Z. Ren, M. Li, On near-perfect and deficient-perfect numbers, *Colloq. Math.* 133 (2013), 221-226.
- J. Voight, On the nonexistence of odd perfect numbers, MASS Selecta: Teaching and learning advanced undergraduate mathematics, eds. Svetlana Katok, Alexei Sossinsky, and Serge Tabachnikov, American Mathematical Society, Providence, RI (2003), 293-300.