Sociable numbers

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Sum of proper divisors

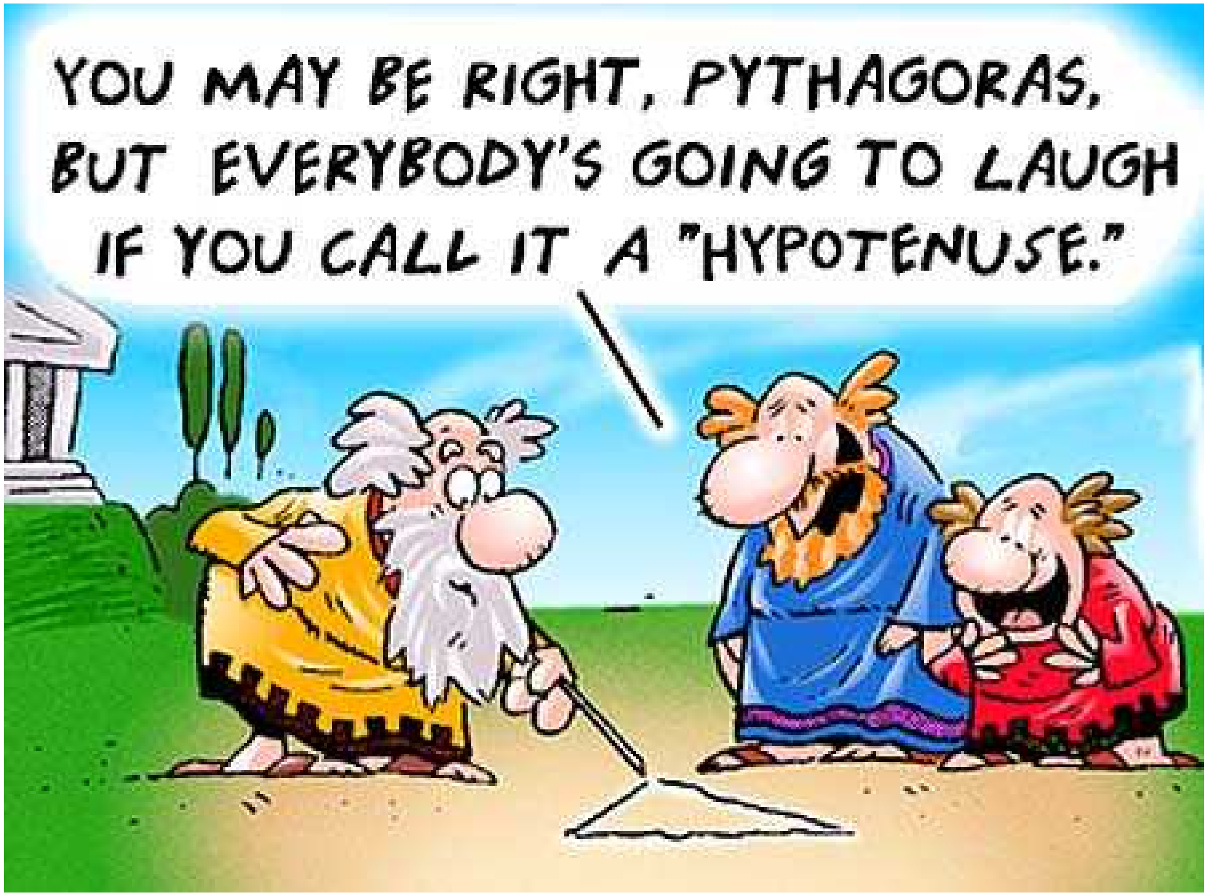
Let $s(n)$ be the sum of the *proper* divisors of n:

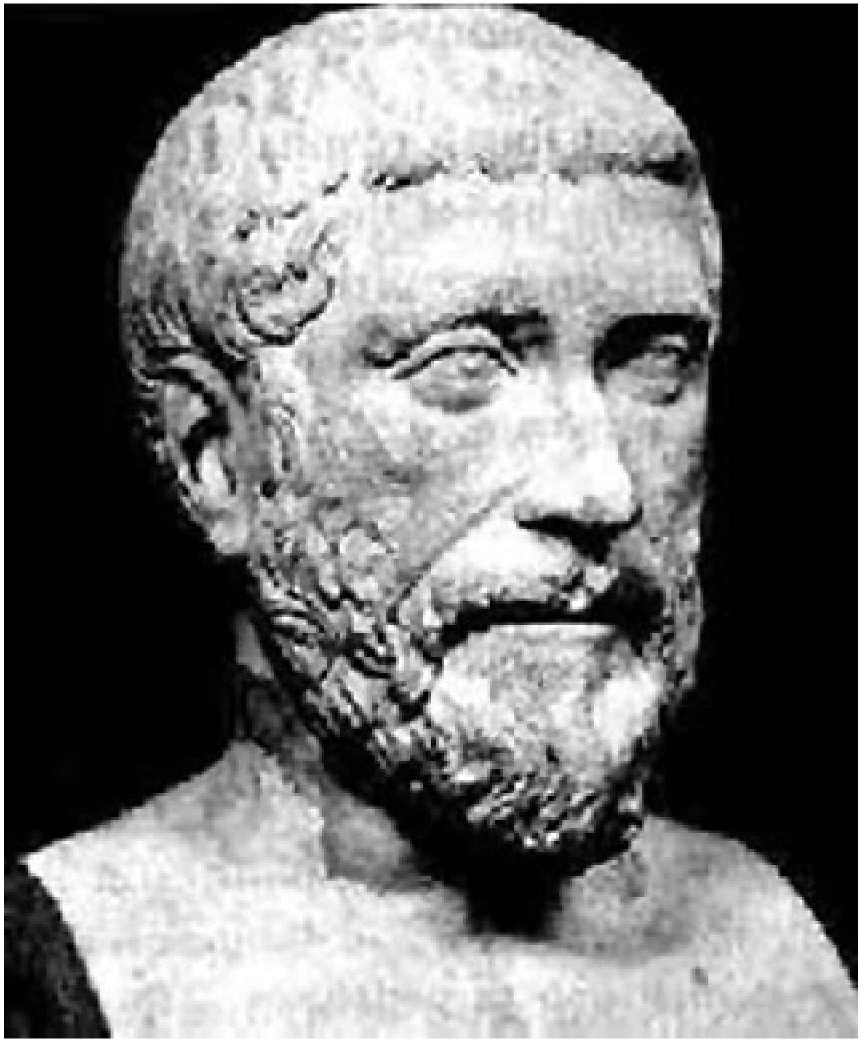
For example:

$s(10) = 1+2+5 = 8, \;\; s(11) = 1, \;\; s(12) = 1+2+3+4+6 = 16.$

Thus, $s(n) = \sigma(n) - n$, where $\sigma(n)$ is the sum of all of n's natural divisors.

The function $s(n)$ was considered by Pythagoras, about 2500 years ago.


YOU MAY BE RIGHT, PYTHAGORAS, BUT EVERYBODY'S GOING TO LAUGH IF YOU CALL IT A "HYPOTENUSE."



Pythagoras

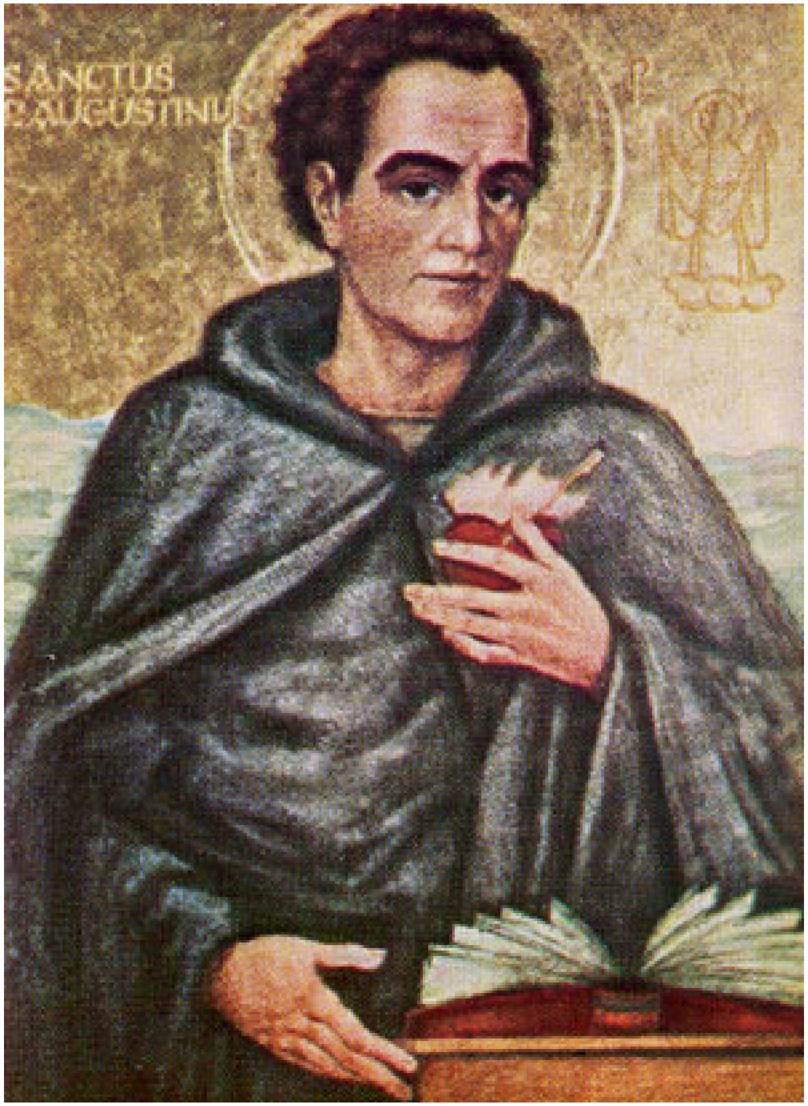
Pythagoras, ca. 2500 years ago —

noticed that $s(6) = 1 + 2 + 3 = 6$
(If $s(n) = n$, we say n is *perfect*.)

and noticed that

$$s(220) = 284, \quad s(284) = 220.$$

(If $s(n) = m$, $s(m) = n$, and $m \neq n$, we say n, m are an *amicable pair* and that they are *amicable* numbers.)



St. Augustine

In the bible?

St. Augustine, ca. 1600 years ago in "City of God":

" Six is a perfect number in itself, and not because God created all things in six days; rather the converse is true — God created all things in six days because the number is perfect."

It was also noted that 28, the second perfect number, is the number of days in a lunar month. A coincidence? Numerologists thought not.

In Genesis it is related that Jacob gave his brother Esau a lavish gift so as to win his friendship. The gift included 220 goats and 220 sheep.

Abraham Azulai, ca. 500 years ago:

"Our ancestor Jacob prepared his present in a wise way. This number 220 is a hidden secret, being one of a pair of numbers such that the parts of it are equal to the other one 284, and conversely. And Jacob had this in mind; this has been tried by the ancients in securing the love of kings and dignitaries."

Ibn Khaldun, ca. 600 years ago in "Muqaddimah":

"Persons who have concerned themselves with talismans affirm that the amicable numbers 220 and 284 have an influence to establish a union or close friendship between two individuals."

Ibn Khaldun

Al-Majriti, ca. 1050 years ago reports in “Aim of the Wise” that he had put to the test the erotic effect of

“giving any one the smaller number 220 to eat, and himself eating the larger number 284.”

(This was a very early application of number theory, far predating public-key cryptography . . .)

Euclid teaching

Euclid, ca. 2300 years ago:

"If as many numbers as we please beginning from a unit be set out continuously in double proportion, until the sum of all becomes a prime, and if the sum multiplied into the last make some number, the product will be perfect."

Say what?

Euclid, ca. 2300 years ago:

"If as many numbers as we please beginning from a unit be set out continuously in double proportion, until the sum of all becomes a prime, and if the sum multiplied into the last make some number, the product will be perfect."

For example: $1 + 2 + 4 = 7$ is prime, so $7 \times 4 = 28$ is perfect.

That is, if $1 + 2 + \cdots + 2^k = 2^{k+1} - 1$ is prime, then $2^k(2^{k+1} - 1)$ is perfect.

For example, take $k = 43{,}112{,}608$.

TIME Magazine's 29-th greatest invention of 2008.

Nicomachus

Nicomachus, ca. 1900 years ago:

A natural number n is *abundant* if $s(n) > n$ and is *deficient* if $s(n) < n$. These he defined in "Introductio Arithmetica" and went on to give what I call his 'Goldilocks Theory':

" In the case of too much, is produced excess, superfluity, exaggerations and abuse; in the case of too little, is produced wanting, defaults, privations and insufficiencies. And in the case of those that are found between the too much and the too little, that is in equality, is produced virtue, just measure, propriety, beauty and things of that sort — of which the most exemplary form is that type of number which is called perfect."

Abundant numbers are like an animal with *"ten mouths, or nine lips, and provided with three lines of teeth; or with a hundred arms, or having too many fingers on one of its hands..."* while with deficient numbers, *"a single eye,..., or if he does not have a tongue."*

Actually, Nicomachus only defined deficient and abundant for even numbers, since he likely thought all odd numbers are deficient. However, 945 is abundant; it is the smallest odd abundant number.

Nicomachus conjectured that there are infinitely many perfect numbers and that they are all given by the Euclid formula. Euler, ca. 250 years ago, showed that all *even* perfect numbers are given by the formula. We still don't know if there are infinitely many, or if there are any odd perfect numbers.

Euler

Here's a proof of the Euclid–Euler theorem.

First assume that $p = 2^{k+1} - 1$ is prime. The divisors of $n = 2^k p$ are

$$1, 2, \ldots, 2^k, \text{ and } p, 2p, \ldots, 2^k p.$$

They add up to
$2^{k+1} - 1 \ + \ (2^{k+1} - 1)p \ = \ p + (2^{k+1} - 1)p = 2^{k+1}p = 2n.$

Thus, $s(n) = 2n - n = n$ and n is perfect.

The converse for even perfect numbers is harder. Assume that n is perfect and $n = 2^k m$ where m is odd and $k \geq 1$. Let $q = 1 + 2 + \cdots + 2^k = 2^{k+1} - 1$. Then the sum of all of n's divisors is

$$(1 + 2 + \cdots + 2^k)(s(m) + m) \;=\; qs(m) + qm.$$

But since n is perfect, this is equal to $2n = 2^{k+1}m = (q+1)m$. Taking qm from both sides, we get

$$qs(m) = m,$$

so the sum of the proper divisors of m is itself a proper divisor of m. This can occur only if m is a prime and $s(m) = 1$, which forces $q = m$ and we're done.

Eugène Catalan

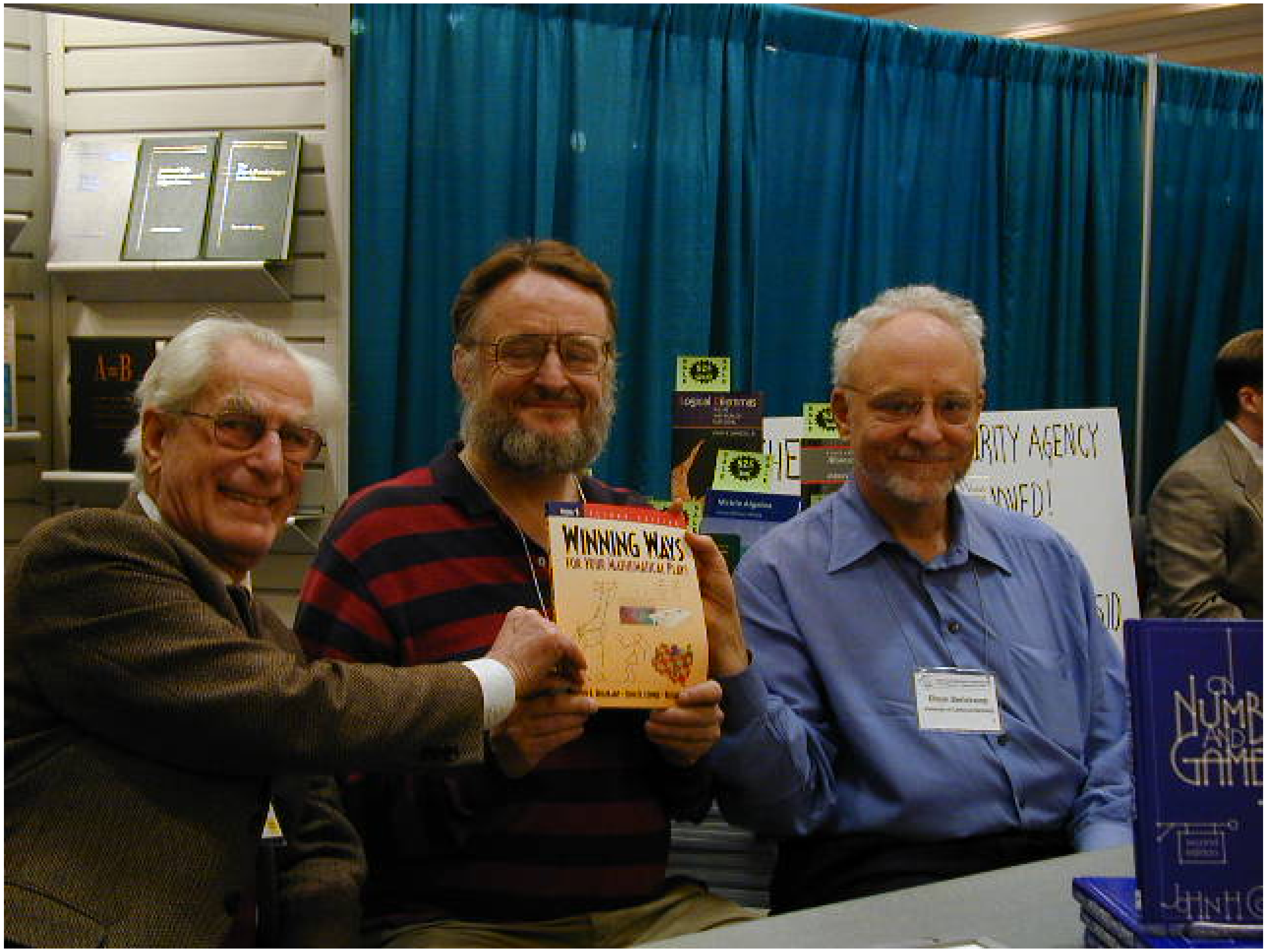
Leonard Dickson

In 1888, Catalan suggested that we iterate the function s and conjectured that one would always end at 0 or a perfect number. For example:

$$s(12) = 16, \; s(16) = 15, \; s(15) = 9, \; s(9) = 4, \; s(4) = 3, \; s(3) = 1,$$

and $s(1) = 0$. Perrott in 1889 pointed out that one might also land at an amicable number. In 1907, Meissner said there may well be cycles of length > 2. And in 1913, Dickson amended the conjecture to say that the sequence of s-iterates is always bounded.

Now known as the Catalan–Dickson conjecture, the least number n for which it is in doubt is 276. Guy and Selfridge have the counter-conjecture that in fact there are a positive proportion of numbers for which the sequence is unbounded.



Richard Guy, John Conway, & Elwyn Berlekamp

John Selfridge

Suppose that

$$s(n_1) = n_2, \quad s(n_2) = n_3, \quad \dots\ , \quad s(n_k) = n_1,$$

where $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$ are distinct. We say these numbers form a *sociable* cycle of length k, and that they are *sociable* numbers of order k.

Thus, sociable numbers of order 1 are perfect and sociable numbers of order 2 are amicable.

Though Meissner first posited in 1907 that there may be sociable numbers of order > 2, Poulet found the first ones in 1918: one cycle of length 5 and another of length 28. The smallest of order 5 is 12,496, while the smallest of order 28 is 14,316.

Today we know of 175 sociable cycles of order > 2, all but 10 of which have order 4. (The smallest sociable number of order 4 was found by Cohen in 1970; it is 1,264,460.)

We know 46 perfect numbers and about 12 million amicable pairs.

A modern perspective on these problems: what can we say about their distribution in the natural numbers, in particular, do they have density 0?

What is the *density* of a set of numbers?

Intuitively, the even numbers have density $1/2$ as do the odd numbers, while the set of squares, though infinite of course, has density 0.

The idea is to look at the *counting function* for the set:

If $N(x)$ is the number of members of the set in the interval $[1, x]$, then the density of the set is $\lim_{x\to\infty} N(x)/x$.

For example, if we have the set of even numbers, then $N(x) = \lfloor x/2 \rfloor$ and $N(x)/x \to 1/2$. And if we have the set of squares, then $N(x) = \lfloor \sqrt{x} \rfloor$ and $N(x)/x \to 0$.

Note that the limit might not exist! This is so for the set of numbers with an even number of decimal digits.

What do you think is the density of the sociable numbers?

Up to 100 the only sociable numbers are the perfect numbers 6 and 28, so $N(100) = 2$ and $N(100)/100 = 0.02$.

Up to 1000 we pick up the perfect number 496 and the Pythagorean amicables 220 and 284. So $N(1000) = 5$ and $N(1000)/1000 = 0.005$.

Up to 10,000 we pick up the perfect number 8128 and the amicable pairs

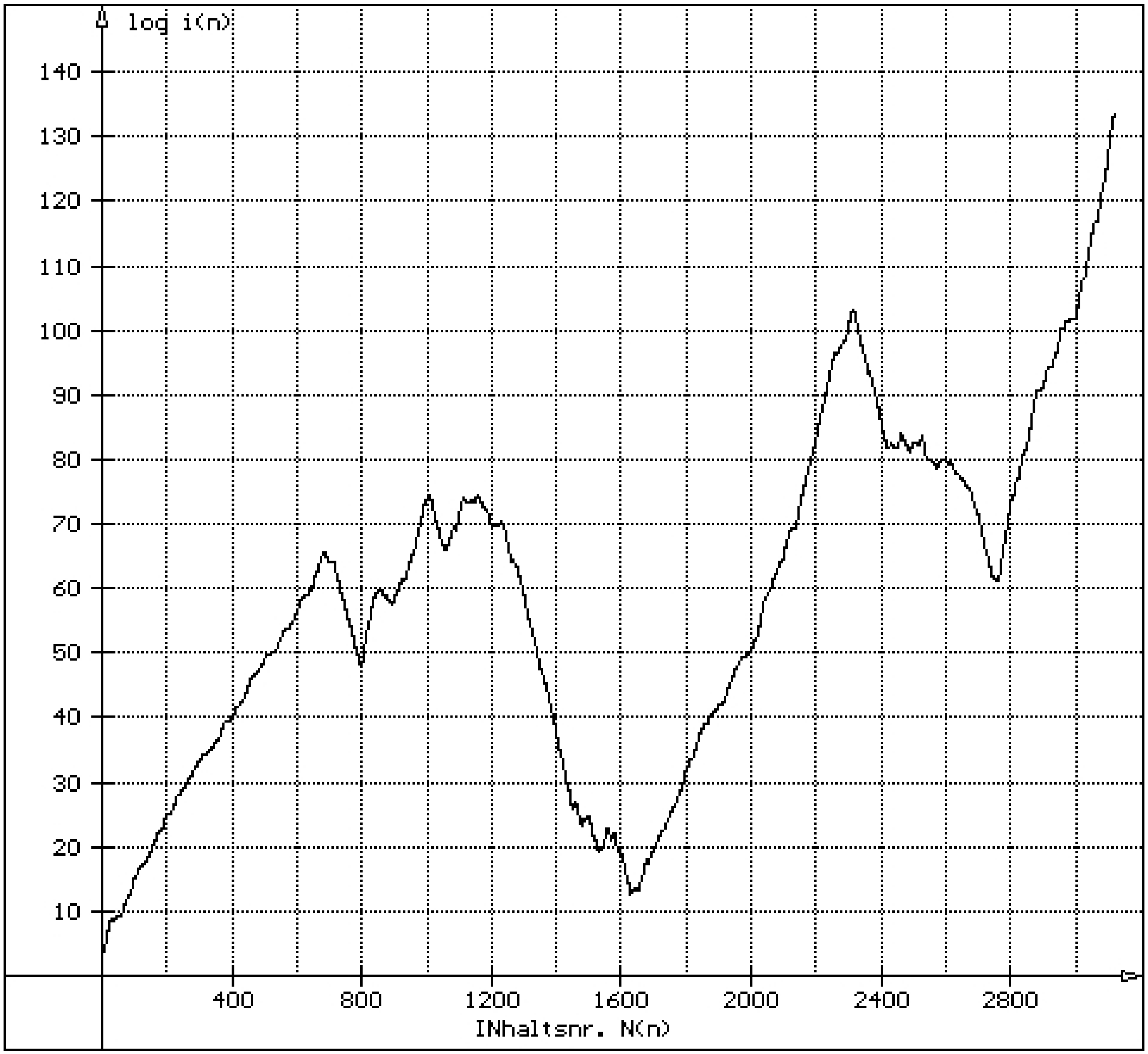
$$1184,\ 1210;\quad 2620,\ 2924;\quad 5020,\ 5564;\quad 6232,\ 6368.$$

(The first was found by Paganini in 1860, the others by Euler.) So $N(10{,}000) = 14$ and $N(10{,}000)/10{,}000 = 0.0014$.

Are we sure we have the counts right? These are the correct counts for perfects and amicables, and also for sociables of order at most 600.

In fact, there are 81 starting numbers below 10,000 where we have iterated $s(n)$ over 600 times, and it is not yet clear what is happening. Some of these are known *not* to be sociable, for example the least number in doubt, 276. (It is not sociable because it is not in the range of the function s.) But some of them might end up being sociable after travelling a very long distance through its s-chain. The least such possibility is 564.

So, we are having trouble even computing $N(1000)$ much less showing the sociable numbers have density 0.



564 iteration

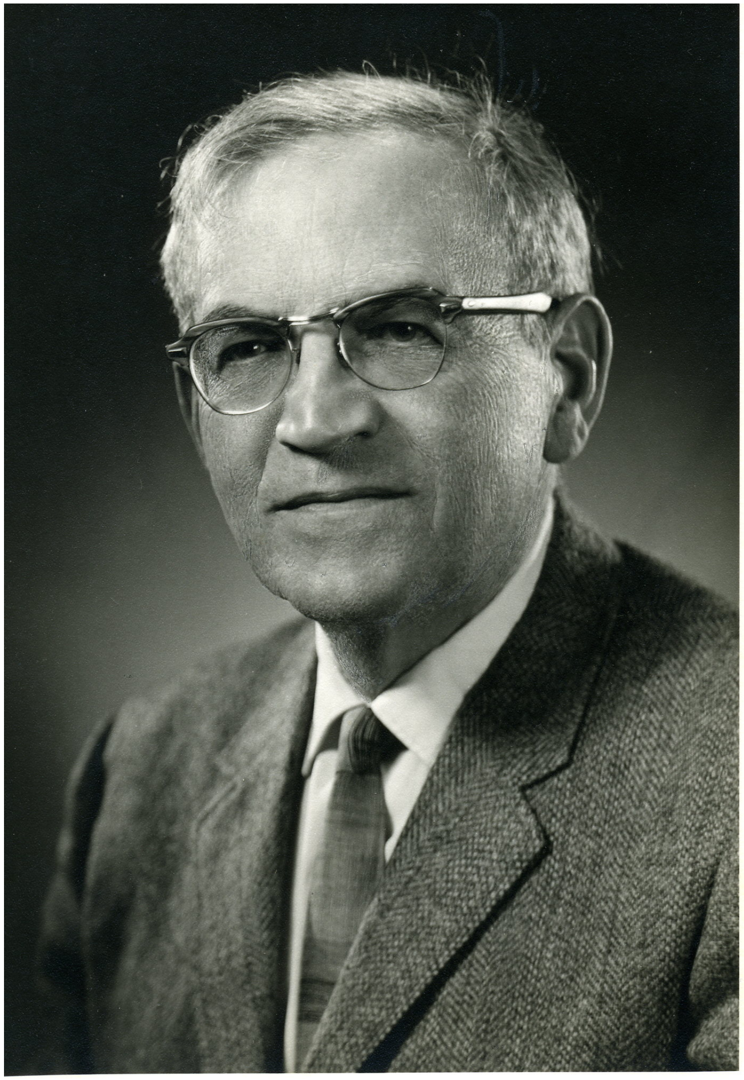
From work of Descartes and Euler, it is not hard to see that perfect numbers are sparsely distributed within the natural numbers; that is, they have density 0. It is instructive though to look at a result of Davenport from 1933 that implies the same.

For each real number $u > 0$, let $\mathcal{D}_s(u)$ denote the set of natural numbers n with $s(n)/n \le u$. Davenport proved that $\mathcal{D}_s(u)$ has a positive density $D_s(u)$ within the natural numbers; properties for the function $D_s(u)$ include

$$\text{continuous}, \quad \text{strictly increasing}, \quad D_s(0+) = 0, \quad D_s(+\infty) = 1.$$

Note that continuity implies that the perfect numbers have density 0.

Harold Davenport



I. J. Schoenberg

Davenport was preceded by Schoenberg in 1928 who had analogous results for Euler's function. Later, Erdős and Wintner considered general multiplicative functions. This (and the Turán proof of the Hardy–Ramanujan theorem) was the dawn of the field of *probabilistic number theory*.

The Davenport distribution result also implies that the deficient numbers ($s(n)/n < 1$) and the abundant numbers ($s(n)/n > 1$) have positive densities. From the very start, people were interested in computing these densities, especially since it seemed that the even numbers are about equally split between abundant and deficient. After work of Behrend in the 1930's, Wall et al. in the 1970's, Deléglise in the 1990's, and now Kobayashi, we know that the density of the abundant numbers is ≈ 0.2476.

Mitsuo Kobayashi

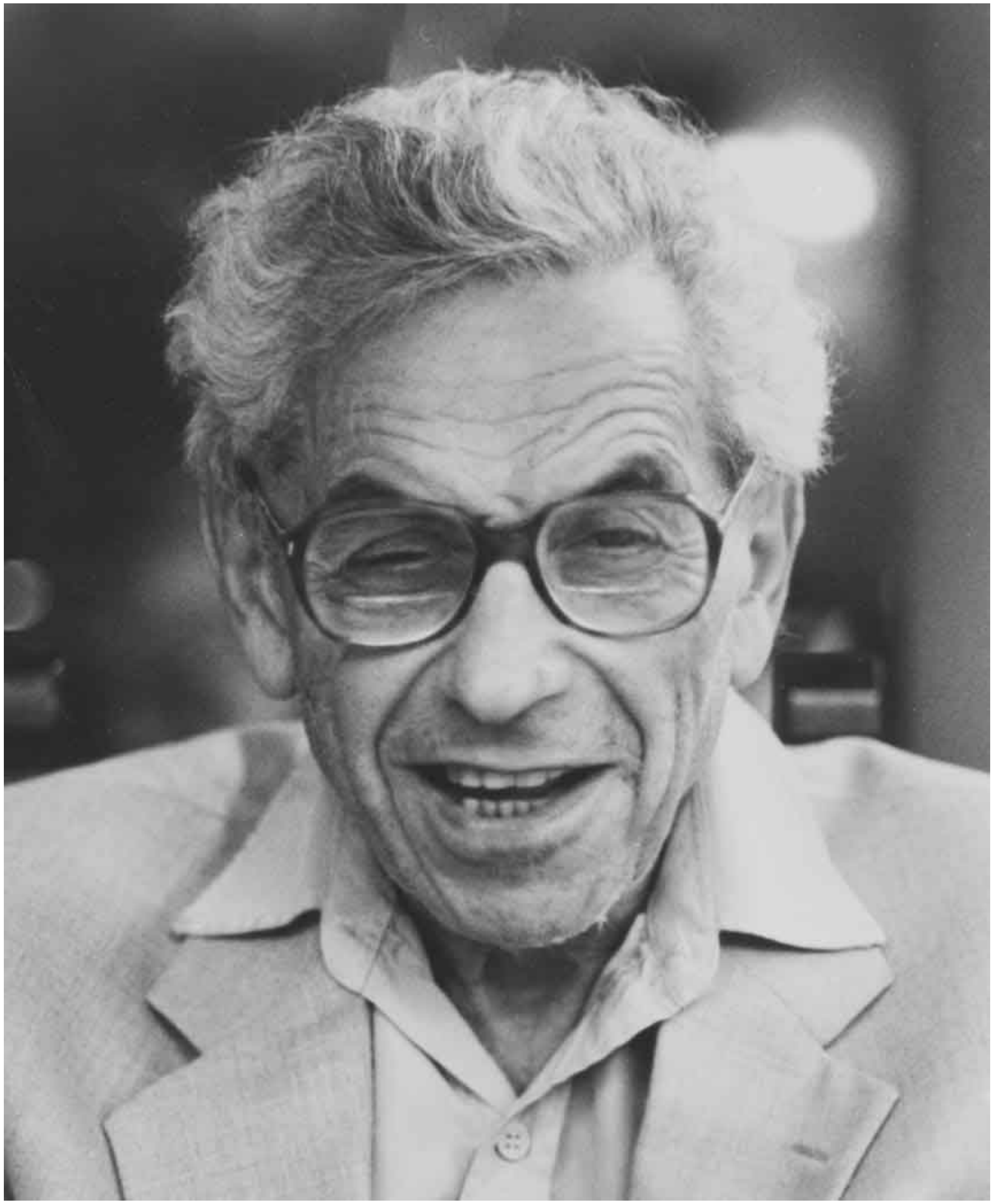
Hendrik Lenstra

But what of the density of amicable numbers or more generally, sociable numbers?

In a *Monthly* problem from 1975, Lenstra proposed: for each k there are infinitely many integers n with the s-sequence starting from n (namely, $n, s(n), s(s(n)), \dots$) being strictly increasing for the first k steps. Call such a number n a k-*climber*.

This inspired Erdős to prove a remarkable and at first counter-intuitive theorem: *For each fixed k, the set of abundant numbers which are not k-climbers has density* 0. That is, if $n < s(n)$, then almost surely, $s(n) < s(s(n)) < \dots$ for $k-1$ more steps.

Now, if you have a sociable k-cycle with $k \geq 2$, then it contains an abundant number that is *not* a k-climber. Thus, for each fixed k, the sociable numbers of order at most k have density 0.



Paul Erdős

Any given natural number is either sociable or it is not sociable.

I ask again: Does the set of sociable numbers have density 0? We conjecture yes.

One thing that makes this a possibly tough question is that we don't have a simple algorithm that can test membership in the set of sociable numbers. For example, is 564 sociable? As mentioned before, this is an unsolved problem, despite *much* computation.

Our (Kobayashi, Pollack, P) principal result: *But for a set of density 0, all sociable numbers are contained within the odd abundant numbers.*

Further, the density of all odd abundant numbers is $\approx 1/500$.

Which one is Paul Pollack?

Call a sociable number n *special* if

- n is odd abundant,
- the number preceding n in its cycle exceeds

$$n \exp(\tfrac{1}{2}\sqrt{\log\log\log n \, \log\log\log\log n}).$$

We prove that if the special sociable numbers have density 0, then so too do all sociable numbers have density 0. Further, we prove that the special sociable numbers have upper density at most $\approx 1/6000$.

W. Creyaufmueller, `www.aliquot.de/aliquot.htm/`

M. Deléglise, *Bounds for the density of abundant integers*, Experimental Math. **7** (1998), 137–143.

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P. Erdős, A. Granville, C. Pomerance, and C. Spiro, *On the normal behavior of the iterates of some arithmetic functions*, pp. 165–204 in Analytic number theory, Progr. Math. vol. 85, Birkhäuser, Boston, 1990.

M. Kobayashi, P. Pollack, and C. Pomerance, *On the distribution of sociable numbers*, J. Number Theory, to appear.

(The last two papers and these slides are available at
`www.dartmouth.edu/∼carlp` .)