



ISSN -PRINT-2231-3613 ONLINE 2455-8729  
International Educational Journal

UGC APPROVAL NO. - 42652

CHETANA

Received on 15th Mar 2017, Revised on 20th Mar 2017; Accepted 30th Mar 2017

ARTICLE

## A Study on the Significance of Number Theory

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**Key words:** *Distribution of Primes, Diophantine Equations, Design, Fibonacci and Lucas Numbers, Discrete logarithm Problem etc.*

### Abstract

Several fascinating applications have been made for Number Theory in Statistics. The purpose of this survey paper is to highlight certain important applications of this kind. Prime numbers are an interesting and challenging field of numerical theory research. Diophantine equations are the central part of number theory. The equation that requires integral solutions is called the Diophantine equation. Some issues related to prime numbers and the role of Diophantine equations in Design Theory are discussed in the first part of this paper. The contribution of Fibonacci and Lucas numbers to the quasi-residual design of Metis is explained. The Discrete Logarithm problem is a famous problem related to finite fields. The structure of Discrete Logarithm is discussed in the second part of this paper.

### Introduction

Number theory has its own delight, accessibility, history, formal and intellectual nature, and inborn merit (Campbell and Zazkis, 2006, p. 13). For all the sake of numerical theory, I want to become familiar with it to fuel my own quest for superior comprehension of adequately demonstrating mathematics, yet, in addition, to use it to empower and engage in understudy in their own quest for mathematical comprehension. As a result of the motivations behind this paper, this exploration was accumulated and sorted out from the point of view of mathematics training. In spite of the fact that, in order to satisfy the reasons for this paper, the historical background of number theory and its history of link geometry (this is a larger part of the historical background of the affirmation of number theory and its collaboration with geometry) will assume a significant role. Be that as it may, this exploration was not carefully aggregated from an authentic point of view, but rather from a

mathematical instruction point of view; with a recorded point of view that is characteristically a piece of it..

### Ancient Geometry

Early glance at the Union of Geometry and Number Theory Geometry has reliably assumed a significant role in early civilization mathematics. Disclosure and study of approximately 500 earth tablets from the area once known as Mesopotamia show that Babylonians were not exempt from this exemption. Babylonians' enthusiasm for geometry is evident. One tablet, Plimpton 3221—a tablet that gives the impression of being a Pythagorean triplet – demonstrates that the Babylonians knew about the link between the sides of the correct triangle. Plimpton 322, dated mid-eighteenth century B.C., has been the subject of exploration and study for a very long time (Robson, 2001, p. 170). Plimpton 322 gives off the impression of being deficient; there is a clear break along its left edge. In addition, this tablet excludes any scratch work that would reveal insight into the techniques of the Pythagorean Triple Age of Babylonians.

The Trigonometric Table Theory is not so much a theory of the age of the Pythagorean Triples, but rather a theory / understanding of the substance of Plimpton 322. This translation begins with the way that the first segment appears, in all accounts, to be the inverse of the short side of the triangle. Assessing this point,  $\Delta$ , shows that the line to be pushed decreases, giving some kind of request to the course of action of the lines. In addition, the calculations show that  $\Delta$  is between 30 and 45 degrees (Buck, 1980, p. 344). This theory, however it may be, misuses the meaning of social contemplation. By studying Babylonian tablets, Robson argued that Babylonians used the perimeter of a circle, not the span, to define circles and to discover their zones. Rather than using it  $A = \pi r^2$ , they

appear to have used  $A = \frac{c^2}{4\pi}$ , where  $\frac{c}{4}$  It is approximately equivalent to 3 (Robson, 2002, p. 111). As per Robson, there is no proof of the Babylonian pivoting of radii, and without this proof there is no "applied structure" for trigonometry (2002, p. 112). Analysts who created this theory did not look through the shroud of Babylonian culture, so this theory is considered invalid. The second theory to be discussed in this area is the technique of creating pairs. Otto Neugebauer and Abraham J. Sachs presented this theory in their 1945 Mathematical Book.

Texts of the Cuneiform. The theory of generating pairs is essentially taken from Book X of Elements, which presents a comprehension of rational and irrational lines using ideas of reasonable and disproportionate lengths and squares (Roskam, 2009, p. 277). The Creating Pair Theory argues that the Babylonians used a recipe, practically identical to Euclid's equation, for the production of pythagorean triples, as found in Book X. With this recipe, significant increases are provided with  $m$  and  $n$ , complying with the following conditions.:

- $m > n, \text{gcd}(m,n)=1$
- $m,n$  are not both odd
- $a = mn, b = m^2 - n^2, c = m^2 + n^2$ .

For a few reasons, this theory is excused. There was no evidence to suggest that Babylonians knew the ideas of odd numbers and even numbers and coprime numbers (Robson, 2001, p. 177). This misuses the meaning of taking a gander in Babylonian mathematics through the cloak of their social perspective on mathematics; since there is no proof of these ideas, they can not be thought of as a part of their mathematics. Another explanation behind this inauspicious is the way in which Plimpton 322 has an unmistakable, deliberate request. Other Babylonian tablets show that the request was a critical one for Babylonians. This theory and the number theory behind this theory do not reinforce the formulation of a tablet with the structure of such a request. As Robson has indicated, the recorder would have several sets of the standard corresponding table to choose from, so making Plimpton 322, for what it is worth, would be extremely troublesome (2001, p. 177-178; 2002, p. 110-111). The third of the speculations, discussed in this paper, is worshipped as the most legitimate theory in the light of its disclosure and the use of the mode of numerical theory in the social setting of the Babylonians.

E.M. presented the corresponding theory in 1949. Bruins, man. The corresponding theory argues that the tablet was developed using reciprocals and reordering geometry. Another Babylonian dirt tablet, YBC 6967, provides proof that these strategies should be used normally by the Babylonians. According to this theory, the Babylonians used reciprocals to solidly contend with squares to produce integral pythagorean triples (Robson, 2001, p. 183-185).

This theory not only looks at the mathematics of Plimpton 322 within the social context of the Babylonians, but also uses numerical theory to decipher the technique for Plimpton 322's age of the Pythagorean triples; therefore, the corresponding theory has been given the

most legitimacy among all the speculations of the Pythagorean Triple Age of Babylon and the agreement of the Mathematics Triple Age. What is significant to the study of Plimpton 322 is that it points out that mathematics is not without culture; nevertheless, in particular, it represents an incredible use of the combination of geometry and number theory. Plimpton 322 itself – without translating the strategy for the Pythagorean Triple Age – is a curio of ancient "current" number theory. It, all things considered, uses a specific instance of Fermat's Last Theorem

$$a^n + b^n = c^n \text{ when } n = 2.$$

The work of the Babylonians with the Pythagorean Triples and this instance of Fermat's Last Theorem can be seen as an introduction to the current number theory. The disclosure of Plimpton 322 was referred to as one of the "most astounding revelations in palaeontology in the twentieth century" because it shows that Babylonians had been working on this kind of problem for a considerable period of time before Diophantus, Euclid, and Fermat (Edwards, 1977, p. 4). Apparently number theory and geometry have consistently had some association, but this association has not been generally known or recognised. In fact, in the seventeenth century, geometers fervently demanded that geometry be untainted by number juggling (Mahoney, 1994, p. 3). Pierre de Fermat entered the mathematics scene in Europe in the seventeenth century. His work shows that he had a similar interest to that of the Babylonians in the specific case of his last hypothesis. Fermat is credited as the father of today's number theory, the sovereign of mathematics. His time spent working with mathematics is set apart by his efforts to end the isolation of number and geometry..

### Background on Fermat

Fermat kept in touch with a couple of mathematicians. In 1636 he began correspondence with Mersenne. It wasn't until around 1662 that this correspondence had ended; Pierre de Carcavi assumed control of Mersenne's job as a mathematical middleman after Mersenne's death in 1648 (Weil, 1984, p. 41-42). Although neither of these men were "inventive mathematicians," they themselves were excited to hand over data to and from the most prominent mathematicians of the day (Goldman, 1998, p. 13). Correspondence assumed a particularly important role in Fermat 's relaxed study of mathematics.

The main known individual contact that Fermat had with another mathematician was a three-day visit to Mersenne in 1646. Fermat related to men, including: Bernard Frénicle de Bessy, (an individual's favourite number), Descartes, Étienne Pascal, Blaise Pascal, Gilles

Personne de Roberval, and Wallis (Weil, 1984, p. 41, 53, 81). Letters have replaced individual contact. Fermat's correspondence with Frenicle was very valuable. Frenicle, intrigued by number theory, tested Fermat's disclosures, searching for thinking behind his number theory revelations. This examination of his revelations led Fermat to uncover a few of his "carefully monitored insider facts." This correspondence of Fermat and Frenicle potentially yielded the most significant absolute data on Fermat's number theory (Mahoney, 1994, p. 293). Letters from correspondence, all in all, have assumed an enormous amount of work in uncovering Fermat's work due to his avoiding the distribution of his work..

### **Fermat's Interest in Number Theory**

Fermat 's interest in numerical theory was encouraged by the work of Diophantus. As of now, Diophantus' Arithmetic and Books VII-IX of The Elements have been the main sources of numerical theory (Kleiner, 2005, p. 4). Frustratingly, Fermat intended to resurrect old, classical mathematical customs, yet he really ended up setting the framework for 'another, cutting-edge convention,' the current number theory (Mahoney, 1994, p. 283). He returned to an ancient custom that had been disposed of by his friends. This ancient custom was the belief that the number-crunching was "the precept of whole numbers and their properties" (Mahoney, 1994, p. 283-284). Plato has upheld this ancient custom. In The Republic, Plato states, "Great mathematicians, starting with the course you know, hatefully dismiss any attempt to divide the unit itself into parts ..." (Mahoney, 1994, p. 284). Arithmetics contains around 200 problems, which require the use of at least one uncertain equation to unravel. Diophantus<sup>3</sup> sought rational solutions to these equations (Kleiner, 2005, 4). Despite the fact that Fermat was in love with Diophantus' work in Arithmetic, he dismissed a tonne of his work because it allowed rational solutions. Driven by his aim of recharging the responsibility of number-crunching to whole numbers, he felt that the main solutions he was looking for were integral solutions (Mahoney, 1994, p. 284). In any case, Fermat was actually propelled by Arithmetic, as shown in Observations on Diophantus, which is the distribution of proliferating, noted by Fermat in the margins of Arithmetic (Mahoney, 1994, p. 286). His specific interest in uncertain equations is evident in quite a bit of his work..

### **Fermat's Use of Number Theory in Geometry**

It's just normal for Fermat to work with Pythagorean triples, given his interest in uncertain equations. His work with Pythagoras triples outlines his interest in joining number theory and geometry. He presented and addressed a number of issues, including right-calculated triangles. As quickly mentioned before, the Pythagorean triples are identified with Fermat's

Last Theorem. This theorem expresses that it is unimaginable for "any number which is a force more noteworthy than the second to be composed as a whole of two similar forces" (Edwards, 1977, p. 2). The algebraic representation of this theorem is as follows.:

$a^n + b^n = c^n$  has nontrivial, positive integral solutions<sup>4</sup> only if  $n \leq 2$ . This, apparently, looks to some extent like the Pythagorean Theorem. Fermat never gives proof of this theorem. "I have a truly radiant exhibit of this suggestion, which this edge is too narrow to even think of as containing" (Edwards, 1977, p.2). Despite the fact that the edge essentially gave insufficient space to his proof and never introduced this "great exhibition," his work shows that he was completely open to the use of this particular instance of Fermat's Last Theorem. when  $n = 2$  and finding integers a, b, and c, which satisfy this case.

### 17th Century Perception of Number Theory

In the event of the number theory being an island, Fermat would have been its only occupant. Despite the fact that mathematicians like Mersenne and Frenicle were "number sweethearts," none of his friends were true scholars (Weil, 1984, p. 51). The rest of the mathematical network showed less interest in number theory. Fermat sent problems to a few mathematicians to foster interest in what he was so interested in. He sent a number of theoretical problems to mathematicians in England, including Wallis. When Wallis sent rational solutions and thus rejected Fermat's standard of integral solutions, Fermat rejected Wallis' solutions. This dismissal never really reinforces Wallis' view of the lack of relevance of number theory (Mahoney, 1994, p. 63). In the same way as with the Valais event, different mathematicians were not inclined to show much interest in how Fermat rewarded them and their requests..

### Significance of Number Theory

#### Prime Numbers

For a detailed account of the prime numbers, please refer to P. Ribenboim. The most perplexing behaviour of integers is that of prime numbers. Despite the best efforts made by different researchers, understanding the various characteristics of prime numbers continues to present insurmountable difficulties. This is due to variations in the properties of prime numbers. The distribution of premiums is a fascinating area of research.

Let denote the prime number not exceeding x. We've got the following table of values

x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$\pi(x)$	0	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	4	4

x	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
$\pi(x)$	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	7	8	8

Let  $p_n$  denote the  $n$ th prime. With this notation, we have

$$\pi(p_n) = n \tag{1}$$

The following are well known results on primes:

Prime number theorem: The number of prime's not exceeding  $x$  is asymptotic to  $\frac{x}{\log x}$ .

Tchebychef's theorem: The order of magnitude of  $\pi(x)$  is  $\frac{x}{\log x}$ .

An interesting question is to find how the prime pair's  $p, p+2$  are distributed

### Diophantine Equations

The equation that requires integral solutions is called the Diophantine equation. Diophantus of Alexandria was interested in the integral solutions of algebraic equations and therefore the nomenclature of Diophantine equations. These equations are the central part of the number theory. L.J. is the standard reference for Diophantine equations. Mordell's

### Square-Free Natural Number

A natural number  $n$  is said to be square-free if it is not divisible by the square of a number  $> 1$ . Therefore  $n$  is square-free if and only if it is the product of distinct primes. An interesting problem is to determine the probability that a given natural number  $n$  is square-free. Gauss observed that the probability that two integers should be relatively prime is  $\frac{6}{\pi^2}$ . The probability that a number should be square-free is  $\frac{6}{\pi^2}$  (see for e.g. G.H. Hardy and E.M. Right)

### Pell's Equation

Let  $D$  be a given square-free natural number. The equation

$$x^2 - Dy^2 = 1 \tag{4}$$

It's known as Pell 's equation. For a given square-free natural number  $d$ , this equation always has integer solutions in  $x$  and  $y$ , and the number of solutions is endless. There are other general forms of Pell 's equation

$$x^2 - Dy^2 = -1 \text{ and} \quad (5)$$

$$x^2 - Dy^2 = N \quad (6)$$

$N$  is a non-zero integer. These general forms may not have integral solutions for a given  $N$  or a square-free  $D$ . It is interesting to note that Pell 's equation for a special value of  $D$  is related to the design as shown in the sequence.

### Objectives of the Study

1. To Study The On The Significance Of Number Theory
2. To Study On Fermat's Interest In Number Theory

### Conclusion

We're currently listing the additions. We (1) increasingly pick up on clarifications in science. A few clarifications of the scientific wonders are mathematical in the light of the fact that they are based on a mathematical clarification of the whole arrangement of wonders, but this is not the overall case in science, and it is certainly one of the real cases we are looking at so far.<sup>31</sup> The cicada example proposed by Baker most clearly shows that we may have halfway mathematical clarifications of the mar. We do not have a mathematical formulation of evolutionary biology (and it may be incomprehensible at present to give such a formulation without a critical loss of data). Moreover, evolutionary theory does not predict the prime-numbered development of cicadas, and that is why scholars are moving to number theory to complete their clarification. This example shows us the scientific categorization of the MES. There is no reasonable link between, from one point of view, incompletely mathematical clarifications of wonders and entirely mathematical clarifications of wonders and, again, the link between clarifications of hypotheses and clarifications of wonders. It may be questioned that we are not confronted with real mathematical clarifications in the Andréka-Németi venture. We have tended to this uncertainty in the fifth and sixth sections, and we have put forward a few arguments to protect the true nature of our example. In view of the few considerations that we have offered, the clarification given in the context of the Andréka-Németi task should be seen as a genuine instance of MES. Some of the links between number theory and statistics have been provided in the foregoing

discussion. There is a great deal of scope for exploring the applications of Number Theory in Statistics and vice versa. The distribution of prime numbers is a challenging area for research. When the parameters in the design become large, the design analysis becomes quite complex, requiring more computational skills.

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