## Solution

Week $18 \quad(2 / 13 / 03)$

## Distribution of primes

A necessary and sufficient condition for $N$ to be prime is that $N$ have no prime factors less than or equal to $\sqrt{N}$. Therefore, under the assumption that a prime $p$ divides $N$ with probability $1 / p$, the probability that $N$ is prime is

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(N)=\left(1-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{3}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{5}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{7}\right) \cdots\left(1-\frac{1}{p_{(\sqrt{N})}}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $p_{(\sqrt{N})}$ denotes the largest prime less than or equal to $\sqrt{N}$. Our strategy for solving for $P(N)$ will be to produce a differential equation for it.

Consider $P(N+n)$, where $n$ is an integer that satisfies $\sqrt{N} \ll n \ll N$. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(N+n)=\left(1-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{3}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{5}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{7}\right) \cdots\left(1-\frac{1}{p_{(\sqrt{N+n})}}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $p_{(\sqrt{N+n})}$ denotes the largest prime less than or equal to $\sqrt{N+n}$. Eq. (2) may be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(N+n)=P(N)\left(1-\frac{1}{p_{1}}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{p_{2}}\right) \cdots\left(1-\frac{1}{p^{(\sqrt{N+n})}}\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the $p_{i}$ are all the primes between $\sqrt{N}$ and $\sqrt{N+n}$. Let there be $k$ of these primes. Since $n \ll N$, we have $\sqrt{N+n} / \sqrt{N} \approx 1$. Therefore, the $p_{i}$ are multiplicatively all roughly the same. To a good approximation, we may therefore set them all equal to $\sqrt{N}$ in eq. (3). This gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(N+n) \approx P(N)\left(1-\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\right)^{k} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We must now determine $k$. The number of numbers between $\sqrt{N}$ and $\sqrt{N+n}$ is

$$
\begin{align*}
\sqrt{N+n}-\sqrt{N} & =\sqrt{N} \sqrt{1+\frac{n}{N}}-\sqrt{N} \\
& \approx \sqrt{N}\left(1+\frac{n}{2 N}\right)-\sqrt{N} \\
& =\frac{n}{2 \sqrt{N}} \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

Each of these numbers has roughly a $P(\sqrt{N})$ chance of being prime. Therefore, there are approximately

$$
\begin{equation*}
k \approx \frac{P(\sqrt{N}) n}{2 \sqrt{N}} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

prime numbers between $\sqrt{N}$ and $\sqrt{N+n}$.

Since $n \ll N$, we see that $k \ll \sqrt{N}$. Therefore, we may approximate the $(1-1 / \sqrt{N})^{k}$ term in eq. (4) by $1-k / \sqrt{N}$. Using the value of $k$ from eq. (6), and writing $P(N+n) \approx P(N)+P^{\prime}(N) n$, we can rewrite eq. (4) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(N)+P^{\prime}(N) n \approx P(N)\left(1-\frac{P(\sqrt{N}) n}{2 N}\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

We therefore arrive at the differential equation,

$$
\begin{equation*}
P^{\prime}(N) \approx-\frac{P(N) P(\sqrt{N})}{2 N} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easy to check that the solution for $P$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(N) \approx \frac{1}{\ln N}, \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

as we wanted to show.
Remarks:

1. It turns out (under the assumption that a prime $p$ divides $N$ with probability $1 / p$ ) that the probability that $N$ has exactly $n$ prime factors is

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(N) \approx \frac{(\ln \ln N)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!\ln N} . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Our original problem dealt with the case $n=1$, and eq. (10) does indeed reduce to eq. (9) when $n=1$. Eq. (10) can be proved by induction on $n$, but the proof I have is rather messy. If anyone has a clean proof, let me know.
2. We should check that $P_{1}(N)+P_{2}(N)+P_{3}(N)+\cdots=1$. The sum must equal 1 , of course, because every number $N$ has some number of divisors. Indeed (letting the sum go to infinity, with negligible error),

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{n}(N) & =\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(\ln \ln N)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!\ln N} \\
& =\frac{1}{\ln N} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\ln \ln N)^{m}}{m!} \\
& =\frac{e^{\ln \ln N}}{\ln N} \\
& =1 . \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

3. We can also calculate the expected number, $\bar{n}$, of divisors of $N$. To do this, let's calculate $\overline{n-1}$ (which is a little cleaner), and then add 1 .

$$
\begin{align*}
\overline{n-1} & =\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(n-1) P_{n}(N) \\
& \approx \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(\ln \ln N)^{n-1}}{(n-2)!\ln N} \\
& =\frac{\ln \ln N}{\ln N} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\ln \ln N)^{k}}{k!} \\
& =\ln \ln N . \tag{12}
\end{align*}
$$

We can now add 1 to this to obtain $\bar{n}$. However, all our previous results have been calculated to leading order in $N$, so we have no right to now include an additive term of 1 . To leading order in $N$, we therefore have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{n} \approx \ln \ln N \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

4. There is another way to calculate $\bar{n}$, without using eq. (10). Consider a group of $M$ numbers, all approximately equal to $N$. The number of prime factors among all of these $M$ numbers (which equals $M \bar{n}$ by definition) is given by ${ }^{1}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
M \bar{n}=\frac{M}{2}+\frac{M}{3}+\frac{M}{5}+\frac{M}{7}+\cdots \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the primes in the denominators occur with frequency $1 / \ln x$, this sum may be approximated by the integral,

$$
\begin{equation*}
M \bar{n} \approx M \int_{1}^{N} \frac{d x}{x \ln x}=M \ln \ln N \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence, $\bar{n} \approx \ln \ln N$, in agreement with eq. (13).
5. For which $n$ is $P_{n}(N)$ maximum? Since $P_{n+1}(N)=(\ln \ln N / n) P_{n}(N)$, we see that increasing $n$ increases $P_{n}(N)$ if $n<\ln \ln N$. But increasing $n$ decreases $P_{n}(N)$ if $n>\ln \ln N$. So the maximum $P_{n}(N)$ is obtained when

$$
\begin{equation*}
n \approx \ln \ln N \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

6. The probability distribution in eq. (10) is a Poisson distribution, for which the results in the previous remarks are well known. A Poisson distribution is what arises in a random process such as throwing a large number of balls into a group of boxes. For the problem at hand, if we take $M(\ln \ln N)$ primes and throw them down onto $M$ numbers (all approximately equal to $N$ ), then the distribution of primes (actually, the distribution of primes minus 1 ) will be (roughly) correct.
[^0]
[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ We've counted multiple factors of the same prime only once. For example, we've counted 16 as having only one prime factor. To leading order in $N$, this method of counting gives the same $\bar{n}$ as assigning four prime factors to 16 gives (due to the fact that $\sum\left(1 / p^{k}\right)$ converges for $k \geq 2$ ).

