

# ARBITRARILY TIGHT BOUNDS ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF SMOOTH INTEGERS

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ABSTRACT. This paper presents lower bounds and upper bounds on the distribution of smooth integers; builds an algebraic framework for the bounds; shows how the bounds can be computed at extremely high speed using FFT-based power-series exponentiation; explains how one can choose the parameters to achieve any desired level of accuracy; and discusses several generalizations.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

A positive integer is *y-smooth* if it has no prime divisors larger than  $y$ . Define  $\Psi(H, y)$  as the number of  $y$ -smooth integers in  $[1, H]$ .

This paper presents lower bounds and upper bounds on  $\Psi$ . The bounds are parametrized, and can be made arbitrarily close to  $\Psi$ , as discussed in section 4. The proofs are easy; for example, a typical lower bound is

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi(H, 17) &= \# \{ (a, b, c, d, e, f, g) : 2^a 3^{b\bar{3}} 5^{c\bar{5}} 7^{d\bar{7}} 11^{e\bar{11}} 13^{f\bar{13}} 17^g \leq H \} \\ &\geq \# \{ (a, b, c, d, e, f, g) : 2^a \bar{3}^{b\bar{3}} \bar{5}^{c\bar{5}} \bar{7}^{d\bar{7}} \bar{11}^{e\bar{11}} \bar{13}^{f\bar{13}} \bar{17}^g \leq H \} \end{aligned}$$

where  $\bar{3} = 2^{1230/776} > 3$ ,  $\bar{5} = 2^{1802/776} > 5$ ,  $\bar{7} = 2^{2179/776} > 7$ ,  $\bar{11} = 2^{2685/776} > 11$ ,  $\bar{13} = 2^{2872/776} > 13$ , and  $\bar{17} = 2^{3172/776} > 17$ . What makes these bounds interesting is that they can be computed at extremely high speed, even when  $y$  is large. See section 3.

As far as I know, the first publication of bounds of this type was by Coppersmith in [24]. Coppersmith showed how to compute an arbitrarily tight lower bound on a variant of  $\Psi$  in a reasonable amount of time. The main improvements in this paper are the fast algorithms in section 3 and the algebraic framework in section 2.

Several generalizations are discussed in section 5. For example, one can quickly compute accurate bounds on the distribution of  $y$ -smooth ideals in each ideal class in a number field.

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**Other work.** There are many limited-precision approximations to  $\Psi$ . See [82], [72], [66], and [81] for detailed surveys of the results and the underlying techniques.

Dickman in [29] observed that  $\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \Psi(y^u, y)/y^u = \rho(u)$  for  $u > 0$ . Here  $\rho$  is the unique continuous function satisfying  $\rho(u) = 1$  for  $0 < u \leq 1$  and  $u\rho(u) = \int_{u-1}^u \rho(t) dt$  for  $u > 1$ . One can rapidly compute  $\rho$  and some useful variants of  $\rho$  to high accuracy; see [95], [20], [71, section 9], [50], [49], [77], [21, section 3], [70], and [3, section 4]. For asymptotics as  $u \rightarrow \infty$  see [15], [26], [17], [64], [88], and [96]. Hildebrand in [61] showed that the error  $|\Psi(H, y)/H\rho(u) - 1|$ , where  $H = y^u$ , is at most a constant (which has not been computed) times  $(\log(u+1))/\log y$  if  $u \geq 1$ ,  $H \geq 3$ , and  $\log y \geq (\log \log H)^{1.667}$ . For prior results see [23], [16], [84], [22], [27], [31], [32], [51], [18], [59], and [57].

De Bruijn in [25] pointed out that  $H \int_0^H \rho(u - (\log t)/\log y) d(\lfloor t \rfloor/t)$  is a better approximation to  $\Psi(H, y)$ . See [87] and [66] for further information. I am not aware of any attempts to compute this approximation.

Rankin in [85] observed that  $\Psi(H, y) \leq H^s / \prod_{p \leq y} (1 - p^{-s})$  for any  $s > 0$ . This upper bound is minimized when  $s$  satisfies  $\sum_{p \leq y} (\log p)/(p^s - 1) = \log H$ . Hildebrand and Tenenbaum in [65] showed that the approximation

$$\frac{1}{s} \left( 2\pi \sum_{p \leq y} \frac{p^s (\log p)^2}{(p^s - 1)^2} \right)^{-1/2} H^s \prod_{p \leq y} \frac{1}{1 - p^{-s}}$$

to  $\Psi(H, y)$ , with the same choice of  $s$  as in Rankin's bound, has error at most a constant (again not computed) times  $1/u + (\log y)/y$ . Hunter and Sorenson in [67] showed that one can compute these approximations in time roughly  $y$ . Sorenson subsequently suggested replacing each  $\sum_{p \leq y}$  with  $\sum_{p \leq y^c} + \sum_{y^c < p \leq y}$  for some  $c$  between 0 and 1, then approximating  $\sum_{y^c < p \leq y}$  by an integral; this saves time at the expense of accuracy.

See [92] and [30] for more information on  $\Psi(H, y)$  when  $y$  is extremely small: in particular, on the accuracy of approximations such as  $\Psi(H, 5) \approx (\log H)^3/6(\log 2)(\log 3)(\log 5)$ .

**Notation.**  $\lg$  means  $\log_2$ .

$[\dots]$  means 1 if  $\dots$  is true, 0 otherwise. For example,  $[r \geq 0]$  means 1 if  $r$  is nonnegative, 0 otherwise.

$r \mapsto \dots$  means the function that maps  $r$  to  $\dots$ . Here  $r$  is a dummy variable used in  $\dots$ . The domain of the function is usually  $\mathbf{R}$  and is always clear from context. For example,  $r \mapsto r^2$  is the function  $f : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  such that  $f(r) = r^2$ , and  $r \mapsto [r \in \mathbf{Z}]$  is the function  $g : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  such that  $g(r) = 1$  for  $r \in \mathbf{Z}$  and  $g(r) = 0$  for  $r \notin \mathbf{Z}$ .

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## 2. ONE-VARIABLE DISCRETE GENERALIZED POWER SERIES

A **series over  $\mathbf{Q}$**  is a function  $f : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{Q}$  such that  $\{r \leq h : f(r) \neq 0\}$  is finite for every  $h \in \mathbf{R}$ . A **distribution over  $\mathbf{Q}$**  is a function  $e : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{Q}$  such that  $\{r < v : e(r) \neq 0\}$  is empty for some  $v \in \mathbf{R}$ . Observe that any series over  $\mathbf{Q}$  is a distribution over  $\mathbf{Q}$ .

The reader should think of a series  $f$  as a formal sum  $\sum_{r \in \mathbf{R}} f(r)x^r$ . The set of series includes (formal) fractional power series such as  $1 + x^{1230/776} + x^{2460/776} + \dots$ , i.e.,  $r \mapsto [r \geq 0][r \in (1230/776)\mathbf{Z}]$ . It also includes Dirichlet series such as  $\zeta = \sum_{n \geq 1} x^{\lg n} = 1 + x + x^{\lg 3} + x^2 + x^{\lg 5} + \dots$ .

**Theorem 2.1.** *Let  $e$  be a distribution over  $\mathbf{Q}$ . Let  $f$  be a series over  $\mathbf{Q}$ . Then  $\{r \in \mathbf{R} : e(r)f(t-r) \neq 0\}$  is finite for every  $t \in \mathbf{R}$ ; the function  $c = (t \mapsto \sum_{r \in \mathbf{R}} e(r)f(t-r))$  is a distribution over  $\mathbf{Q}$ ; and if  $e$  is a series over  $\mathbf{Q}$  then  $c$  is a series over  $\mathbf{Q}$ .*

The distribution  $c$  here is the **product of  $e$  and  $f$** , abbreviated  $ef$ .

*Proof.* There is some  $v \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $\{r < v : e(r) \neq 0\}$  is empty; and  $\{s \leq t - v : f(s) \neq 0\}$  is finite, so  $\{r \geq v : f(t-r) \neq 0\}$  is finite. Thus  $\{r : e(r)f(t-r) \neq 0\}$  is finite.

There is some  $w \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $\{s < w : f(s) \neq 0\}$  is empty. Now  $e(r)f(t-r) = 0$  for all  $t < v + w$  and all  $r \in \mathbf{R}$ : if  $r < v$  then  $e(r) = 0$ ; if  $r \geq v$  then  $t - r < w$  so  $f(t-r) = 0$ . Hence  $\sum_{r \in \mathbf{R}} e(r)f(t-r) = 0$  for all  $t < v + w$ . Thus  $c$  is a distribution.

Finally, fix  $h \in \mathbf{R}$ . If  $e$  is a series then  $\{r \leq h - w : e(r) \neq 0\}$  is finite, and  $\{s \leq h - v : f(s) \neq 0\}$  is finite, so  $\{t \leq h : c(t) \neq 0\}$  is finite. (If  $t \leq h$  and  $c(t) \neq 0$  then  $e(r)f(s) \neq 0$  for some  $r, s$  with  $r + s = t$ . Then  $e(r) \neq 0$  so  $r \geq v$  so  $s = t - r \leq h - v$ ; similarly  $r \leq h - w$ .)  $\square$

**Theorem 2.2.** *Let  $e$  be a distribution over  $\mathbf{Q}$ . Let  $f$  and  $g$  be series over  $\mathbf{Q}$ . Then  $e(fg) = (ef)g$ .*

*Proof.*  $(e(fg))(t) = \sum_s e(s) \cdot (fg)(t-s) = \sum_s \sum_r e(s)f(r)g(t-s-r) = \sum_s \sum_u e(s)f(u-s)g(t-u) = \sum_u (ef)(u) \cdot g(t-u) = ((ef)g)(t)$ .  $\square$

In particular, product is associative on series. Consequently the set of series is a commutative ring under the following operations:  $0$  is  $r \mapsto 0$ ;  $1$  is  $r \mapsto [r = 0]$ ;  $-f$  is  $r \mapsto -f(r)$ ;  $f + g$  is  $r \mapsto f(r) + g(r)$ ; and  $fg$  is the product defined above. The set of fractional power series is a subring, as is the set of Dirichlet series.

Define  $\text{distr}$  as the distribution  $r \mapsto [r \geq 0]$ . The **distribution of terms of  $f$**  is the product  $\text{distr} f$ , i.e., the function  $h \mapsto \sum_{s \leq h} f(s)$ . This

is consistent with the usual notion of the (logarithmic) distribution of terms of a Dirichlet series: for example,  $\text{distr } \zeta$  is the function  $h \mapsto \lfloor 2^h \rfloor$ , which counts positive integers  $n$  with  $\lg n \leq h$ .

**Theorem 2.3.** *Let  $e_1, e_2$  be distributions over  $\mathbf{Q}$ . Let  $f$  be a series over  $\mathbf{Q}$ . If  $e_1 \geq e_2$  and  $f \geq 0$  then  $e_1 f \geq e_2 f$ .*

Here  $\geq$  is pointwise comparison of functions:  $f \geq 0$  means that  $f(r) \geq 0$  for all  $r$ , and  $e_1 \geq e_2$  means that  $e_1(r) \geq e_2(r)$  for all  $r$ .

*Proof.*  $(e_1 f)(t) = \sum_r e_1(r) \cdot f(t-r) \geq \sum_r e_2(r) \cdot f(t-r) = (e_2 f)(t)$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 2.4.** *Let  $f_1, \dots, f_n, g_1, \dots, g_n$  be series over  $\mathbf{Q}$  with  $f_i \geq 0$ ,  $g_i \geq 0$ , and  $\text{distr } f_i \geq \text{distr } g_i$  for all  $i$ . Then  $\text{distr } f_1 \dots f_n \geq \text{distr } g_1 \dots g_n$ .*

*Proof.* For  $n = 0$ :  $\text{distr } 1 \geq \text{distr } 1$ .

For  $n \geq 1$ : By induction  $\text{distr } f_1 \dots f_{n-1} \geq \text{distr } g_1 \dots g_{n-1}$ . Apply Theorem 2.3 twice:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{distr } f_1 \dots f_{n-1} f_n &\geq \text{distr } g_1 \dots g_{n-1} f_n = \text{distr } f_n g_1 \dots g_{n-1} \\ &\geq \text{distr } g_n g_1 \dots g_{n-1} = \text{distr } g_1 \dots g_{n-1} g_n \end{aligned}$$

since  $f_n \geq 0$  and  $g_1 \dots g_{n-1} \geq 0$ .  $\square$

**Notes.** The proofs here are standard, but I do not know a reference for the results. The larger ring of “one-variable generalized power series over  $\mathbf{Q}$ ”—functions  $f : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{Q}$  such that every nonempty subset of  $\{r \in \mathbf{R} : f_r \neq 0\}$  has a least element—is widely known but is not equipped with a useful notion of distribution. This larger ring was introduced by Malcev; see [86] for more information.

### 3. BOUNDS ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF SMOOTH INTEGERS

Fix positive integers  $y$  and  $\alpha$ . For each prime  $p \leq y$  select a real number  $\bar{p} \geq p$ , preferably as small as possible, with  $\alpha \lg \bar{p} \in \mathbf{Z}$ . Define  $f$  as the series  $\sum_n [n \text{ is } y\text{-smooth}] x^{\lg n} = \prod_{p \leq y} (1 + x^{\lg p} + x^{2 \lg p} + \dots)$ , and define  $g$  as the series  $\prod_{p \leq y} (1 + x^{\lg \bar{p}} + x^{2 \lg \bar{p}} + \dots)$ .

Observe that  $g$  is a fractional power series with far fewer terms than  $f$ . For example, if  $y = 10^6$ ,  $\alpha = 776$ , and  $\bar{p}$  is chosen reasonably, then  $g$  is the series

$$\begin{aligned} &x^{0/776} + x^{776/776} + x^{1230/776} + x^{1552/776} + x^{1802/776} + x^{2006/776} \\ &+ \dots + 2286594704425498206172550218939x^{100000/776} + \dots, \end{aligned}$$

with fewer than 100000 terms having exponents below  $100000/776$ , while  $f$  has more than  $10^{33}$  terms in the same exponent range.

Now  $\text{distr}(1 + x^{lg p} + x^{2lg p} + \dots) \geq \text{distr}(1 + x^{lg \bar{p}} + x^{2lg \bar{p}} + \dots)$ , so  $\text{distr } f \geq \text{distr } g$  by Theorem 2.4. In other words,

$$(h \mapsto \Psi(2^h, y)) \geq \text{distr exp} \sum_{p \leq y} \left( x^{lg \bar{p}} + \frac{1}{2} x^{2lg \bar{p}} + \frac{1}{3} x^{3lg \bar{p}} + \dots \right)$$

where  $\text{exp}$  is the usual exponential function on fractional power series. This is my lower bound on  $\Psi$ . The analogous upper bound is

$$(h \mapsto \Psi(2^h, y)) \leq \text{distr exp} \sum_{p \leq y} \left( x^{lg p} + \frac{1}{2} x^{2lg p} + \frac{1}{3} x^{3lg p} + \dots \right)$$

with  $\bar{p} \leq p$ . See Figure 1 for an example of the lower bound.

If  $\bar{g} = \sum_{n \geq 0} g_n x^{n/\alpha}$  then  $\Psi(2^{n/\alpha}, y) \geq (\text{distr } \bar{g})(n/\alpha) = g_0 + \dots + g_n$ . By computing  $\bar{g} \bmod x^h$ , i.e., computing the integers  $g_0, g_1, \dots, g_{h\alpha-1}$ , one obtains lower bounds on  $\Psi(H, y)$  for every  $H$  in the geometric progression  $2^0, 2^{1/\alpha}, \dots, 2^{h-2/\alpha}, 2^{h-1/\alpha}$ . See Figure 2.

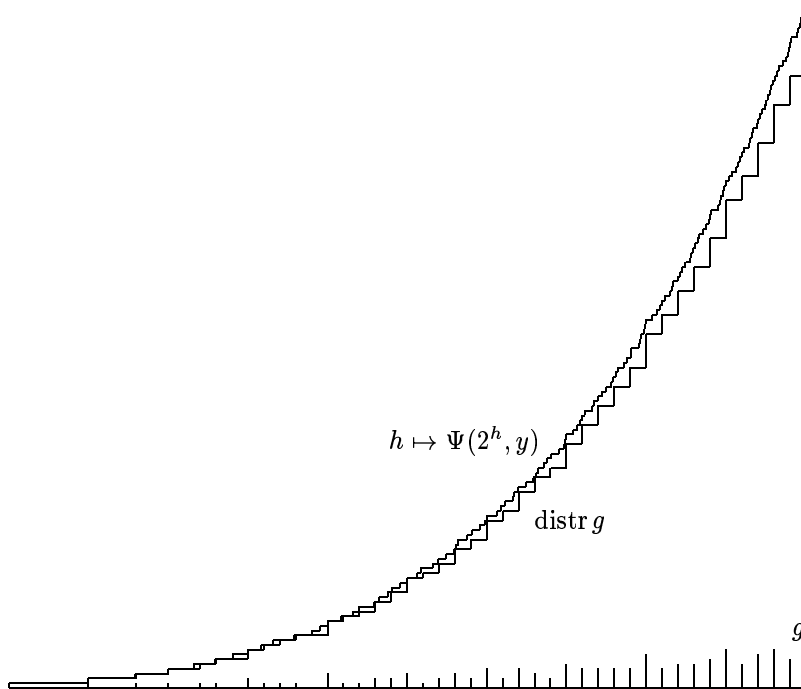


FIGURE 1. For  $y = 7$  and  $\alpha = 5$ : Graphs of  $g$ ,  $\text{distr } g$ , and  $h \mapsto \Psi(2^h, y)$ , restricted to  $[0, 10]$ . Vertical range  $[0, 143]$ .

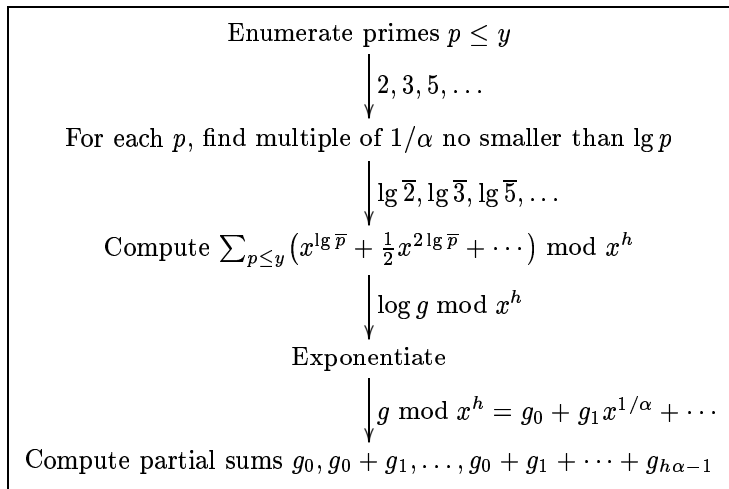


FIGURE 2. How to compute lower bounds on  $\Psi(2^0, y)$ ,  $\Psi(2^{1/\alpha}, y)$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $\Psi(2^{h-1/\alpha}, y)$ .

A split-radix FFT uses  $(12 + o(1))h\alpha \lg h\alpha$  additions and multiplications in  $\mathbf{R}$  to multiply in  $\mathbf{R}[x^{1/\alpha}]/x^h$ ; see [9]. Brent's exponentiation algorithm in [11] then uses  $(88 + o(1))h\alpha \lg h\alpha$  additions and multiplications in  $\mathbf{R}$  to compute  $g \bmod x^h$  given  $\log g \bmod x^h$ . The constant 88 can be improved to 34; see [10]. One can enumerate primes  $p \leq y$  as described in [2]; the computation of  $\log g \bmod x^h$  involves a few additions for each  $p$ .

It should be possible to carry out the operations in  $\mathbf{R}$  in rather low precision if all the coefficients are scaled properly. However, I have not yet analyzed the roundoff error here. I instead compute  $g \bmod (x^h, q)$  for several primes  $q$  by exponentiating  $\log g \bmod (x^h, q)$ . Logarithms do not make sense in  $(\mathbf{Z}/q)[x^{1/\alpha}]$ , but they do make sense in  $(\mathbf{Z}/q)[x^{1/\alpha}]/x^h$  when  $q$  exceeds  $h\alpha$ .

Software that performs these computations for any  $y \leq 2^{30}$ , with  $h\alpha = 262144$  and  $\alpha = 776$ , is available from <http://cr.yp.to/psibound.html>. The software uses  $4.5 \cdot 10^{10}$  Pentium-III cycles for  $y = 10^8$  or  $9.3 \cdot 10^{10}$  cycles for  $y = 10^9$ . It prints a sequence of lower bounds on  $\Psi(H, y)$  for 262144 values of  $H$  up to  $2^{262144/776}$ . The choice of  $\alpha$  is explained in the next section; the analogous upper-bound computation uses  $\alpha = 771$ .

The computation of  $\log g$  can be improved. If  $y$  is large then there are many primes  $p$  for each value of  $\lg \bar{p}$ , and there are faster ways to count them than to enumerate them. Sorenson points out that the counts can be saved if one wants to handle several values of  $y$ .

## 4. ACCURACY

Write  $g = \prod_{p \leq y} (1 + x^{\lg \bar{p}} + x^{2 \lg \bar{p}} + \dots)$  as in the previous section, so that  $\Psi(H, y) \geq (\text{distr } g)(\lg H)$ . How close is  $\Psi(H, y)$  to  $(\text{distr } g)(\lg H)$ ? How close is it to the analogous upper bound?

One can answer this question by computing and comparing the bounds. The software described above finds that  $\Psi(2^{300}, 2^{30})/2^{300} > 3.012 \cdot 10^{-11}$ , for example, and  $\Psi(2^{300}, 2^{30})/2^{300} < 3.047 \cdot 10^{-11}$ ; evidently both bounds are quite close. (In contrast,  $\rho(10) \approx 2.770 \cdot 10^{-11}$ .)

But this answer does not provide any guidance in choosing  $\alpha$  before the computation is done. How can we select  $\alpha$  to achieve a particular level of accuracy? Are some choices of  $\alpha$  better than others?

This section considers another answer: if  $\epsilon$  is chosen properly then  $1 \leq \Psi(H, y)/(\text{distr } g)(\lg H) \leq \Psi(H, y)/\Psi(H^{1/(1+\epsilon)}, y)$ . The point is that one already has a good estimate for the ratio  $\Psi(H, y)/\Psi(H^{1/(1+\epsilon)}, y)$ , namely  $1 + \epsilon \log H$ . Here is a brief summary of the literature:

- Hildebrand in [60] proved that, for an extremely broad range of  $H$  and  $y$ , the ratio is at most about  $1 + \epsilon(H/\Psi(H^{1/(1+\epsilon)}, y)) \log y$ .
- Hildebrand in [62] proved that, when  $\epsilon$  is not very small, the ratio is at most  $H^{\epsilon/(1+\epsilon)}$ , which is approximately  $1 + \epsilon \log H$ .
- Hensley in [58] proved that  $\Psi(H, y)/\Psi(H/c, y)$  is around  $c$  for typical values of  $H$  and  $y$  if  $c$  is close to 2. Consequently the product of many ratios of the form  $\Psi(H, y)/\Psi(H^{1/(1+\epsilon)}, y)$ , for varying  $H$ , must be large. Quite a few of the ratios have to be at least about  $H^{\epsilon/(1+\epsilon)}$ .

For uniform lower bounds see [41], [4], [52], [75], [69], and [98]. See [66] and [40] for precise asymptotics when  $\epsilon$  is not very small and  $\log y$  is noticeably bigger than  $(\log H)^{5/6}$ .

**How  $\epsilon$  depends on  $\alpha$ .** Define  $\epsilon$  as the maximum of  $(\lg \bar{p})/\lg p - 1$  for primes  $p \leq y$ . Then

$$\text{distr}(1 + x^{(1+\epsilon)\lg p} + x^{2(1+\epsilon)\lg p} + \dots) \leq \text{distr}(1 + x^{\lg \bar{p}} + x^{2 \lg \bar{p}} + \dots)$$

so  $\Psi(H^{1/(1+\epsilon)}, y) \leq (\text{distr } g)(\lg H)$ . (Zagier comments that this inequality also allows  $g$  to serve as an upper bound on  $\Psi$ .)

Assume for simplicity that  $\bar{p}$  is chosen as small as possible, so that  $\alpha \lg \bar{p} = \lceil \alpha \lg p \rceil$ . Note that  $\bar{2} = 2$ ; this is the point of the requirement that  $\alpha$  be an integer. Then  $\epsilon \leq 1/(\alpha \lg 3)$ .

When  $\alpha$  increases by a factor of 10, this upper bound on  $\epsilon$  decreases by a factor of 10. The computation described in the previous section takes about 10 times as long and produces bounds for 10 times as many values of  $H$ .

Some values of  $\alpha$  are particularly good. If  $\alpha \lg 3$  is within  $(\lg 3)/\lg 7$  of the next integer, and  $\alpha \lg 5$  is within  $(\lg 5)/\lg 7$  of the next integer, then  $\epsilon \leq 1/(\alpha \lg 7)$ . If  $\alpha = 776$  then  $1/(\alpha \lg 3) \approx 0.000813$ , while  $\epsilon \approx 0.000226$ . It is easy to see that  $\epsilon\alpha \rightarrow 0$  for selected  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$ .

Experiments show that  $(\text{distr } g)(\lg H)$  is usually closer to  $\Psi(H, y)$  than to  $\Psi(H^{1/(1+\epsilon)}, y)$ . A more precise analysis would be interesting.

**Exact computation of  $\Psi$ .** If  $H$  is slightly below an integer, and  $\epsilon$  is slightly below  $1/H \log H$ , then  $\lfloor H^{1/(1+\epsilon)} \rfloor = \lfloor H \rfloor$ , so  $\Psi(H, y)$  is exactly  $(\text{distr } g)(\lg H)$ .

Fast power-series exponentiation is not useful in this extreme case. Series such as  $g$  should be represented in sparse form: a multiset  $S$  of integers represents the series  $\sum_{n \in S} x^{n/\alpha}$ . Straightforward series multiplication then takes at most  $2\Psi(H, y)$  additions of integers, each integer having about  $\lg H$  bits, to produce the portion of  $g$  relevant to  $\Psi(H, y)$ . The result reveals the approximate logarithm of every smooth number  $n \leq H$  with enough accuracy to recover  $n$  or  $n - 1$ .

Occasionally one wants to know  $\Psi(H, y)$  for only one  $H$ . Partition  $\{p \leq y\}$  into two sets  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ ; factor  $g$  as  $g_1 g_2$  accordingly; compute  $g_1$  and  $g_2$ ; finally compute  $(\text{distr } g)(\lg H)$  as  $\sum_r (\text{distr } g_1)(r) \cdot g_2(\lg H - r)$ . The total number of relevant terms of  $g_1$  and  $g_2$ , hence the total time needed, can be quite a bit smaller than  $\Psi(H, y)$ .

**Notes.** The ideas in this paper evolved as follows.

I presented the exact  $\Psi$  algorithms in [7]. That paper was not phrased in the language of series; I used logarithms and  $\alpha$  merely because additions are faster than multiplications.

I subsequently noticed that reducing  $\alpha$  would produce bounds on  $\Psi$  at high speed. In 1997, I rephrased the algorithms in the language of series, and realized the relevance of fast power-series exponentiation. An extended abstract of this paper appeared in [8]. I found Coppersmith's article [24] in 2000 as I was preparing the bibliography for this paper.

## 5. GENERALIZATIONS AND VARIANTS

**Omitting tiny primes.** One can replace  $\{p \leq y\}$  by a subset, such as  $\{p : z < p \leq y\}$ . For previous work see [37], [89], and [90].

**Squarefree integers.** One can restrict the powers of  $p$  that are allowed to appear: for example, one can replace  $1 + x^{\lg p} + x^{2 \lg p} + \dots$  by  $1 + x^{\lg p}$  to bound the distribution of smooth squarefree integers. For previous work see [44] and [80].



**Arithmetic progressions.** Fix a positive integer  $m$ . Define  $\Psi(H, y, i)$  as the number of  $y$ -smooth integers  $n \in [1, H]$  with  $n \equiv i \pmod{m}$ .

Let  $S$  be the finite monoid  $\mathbf{Z}/m$  under multiplication. The ring  $\mathbf{Q}[S]$  is the set of functions  $a : S \rightarrow \mathbf{Q}$  with the following operations:  $0$  is  $s \mapsto 0$ ;  $1$  is  $s \mapsto [s = 1]$ ;  $-a$  is  $s \mapsto -a(s)$ ;  $a + b$  is  $s \mapsto a(s) + b(s)$ ; and  $ab$  is  $s \mapsto \sum_{t, u: tu=s} a(t)b(u)$ . Define a partial order  $a \geq b$  meaning that  $a(s) \geq b(s)$  for all  $s$ . Everything in section 2 generalizes immediately to series over  $\mathbf{Q}[S]$ .

Define  $\pi : \mathbf{Z} \rightarrow \mathbf{Q}[S]$  as  $n \mapsto (s \mapsto [s = n \bmod m])$ . Then  $\pi$  is a monoid morphism:  $\pi(1) = 1$  and  $\pi(nn') = \pi(n)\pi(n')$ . The images  $\pi(0), \pi(1), \dots, \pi(m-1)$  are linearly independent over  $\mathbf{Q}$ .

Define  $f$  as the series  $\sum_n [n \text{ is } y\text{-smooth}] \pi(n)x^{\lg n}$  over  $\mathbf{Q}[S]$ . Then  $(\text{distr } f)(\lg H) = \sum_{0 \leq i < m} \pi(i)\Psi(H, y, i)$ . For example, if  $m = 3$  and  $y = 5$ , then  $f$  is the series

$$\begin{aligned} & \pi(0)(x^{\lg 3} + x^{\lg 6} + x^{\lg 9} + x^{\lg 12} + x^{\lg 15} + x^{\lg 18} + \dots) \\ & + \pi(1)(x^{\lg 1} + x^{\lg 4} + x^{\lg 10} + x^{\lg 16} + x^{\lg 25} + x^{\lg 40} + \dots) \\ & + \pi(2)(x^{\lg 2} + x^{\lg 5} + x^{\lg 8} + x^{\lg 20} + x^{\lg 32} + x^{\lg 50} + \dots), \end{aligned}$$

and  $(\text{distr } f)(\lg 12) = 4\pi(0) + 3\pi(1) + 3\pi(2)$ .

Now  $f$  is the product over  $p$  of  $1 + \pi(p)x^{\lg p} + \pi(p)^2x^{2\lg p} + \dots$ , and  $\text{distr}(1 + \pi(p)x^{\lg p} + \pi(p)^2x^{2\lg p} + \dots) \geq \text{distr}(1 + \pi(p)x^{\lg \bar{p}} + \pi(p)^2x^{2\lg \bar{p}} + \dots)$ , so  $\text{distr } f \geq \text{distr exp } \sum_{p \leq y} (\pi(p)x^{\lg \bar{p}} + \frac{1}{2}\pi(p)^2x^{2\lg \bar{p}} + \dots)$ . A fractional-power-series exponentiation over  $\mathbf{Q}[S]$  thus produces a lower bound on  $\text{distr } f$ , i.e., a lower bound on  $\Psi(H, y, i)$  for each  $i$  and various  $H$ . One can save time by working in the smaller ring  $\mathbf{Q}[(\mathbf{Z}/m)^*]$  and ignoring primes that divide  $m$ .

For previous work see [16], [36], [53], [54], [38], [39], [33], [5], [47], [48], [93], [97], and [34]. See [43] for more information on monoid rings and group rings.

**Number fields.** Let  $K$  be a number field,  $R$  its ring of integers. A nonzero ideal  $n$  of  $R$  is  $y$ -**smooth** if it has no prime divisors of norm larger than  $y$ . Define  $f$  as the series  $\sum_n [n \text{ is } y\text{-smooth}] x^{\lg \text{norm } n}$ . Then  $f$  is the product of  $1 + x^{\lg \text{norm } p} + x^{2\lg \text{norm } p} + \dots$  over smooth prime ideals  $p$ . One obtains a lower bound on  $\text{distr } f$  by increasing each  $\lg \text{norm } p$  to a nearby multiple of  $1/\alpha$ . For previous work see [68] (in the case  $K = \mathbf{Q}[\sqrt{-1}]$ ), [42], [35], [55], [72], [73], [79], and [12].

In some applications—notably integer factorization with the number field sieve, as described in [74]—one wants to know the distribution of smooth *elements* of  $R$ . A fractional-power-series exponentiation over  $\mathbf{Q}[G]$ , where  $G$  is the ideal class group of  $R$ , produces bounds on the distribution of smooth ideals in each ideal class; in particular, the distribution of smooth

principal ideals. One can replace  $G$  by a ray class group or a ray class monoid to bound smoothness in arithmetic progressions. The use of these techniques to estimate the speed of the number field sieve will be discussed in a subsequent paper.

**Function fields.** Dirichlet series for function fields over  $\mathbf{F}_q$  are already power series:  $\lg \text{norm } n \in (\lg q)\mathbf{Z}$  for every nonzero ideal  $n$ . For example, the sum of  $[n \text{ is } 2^{20}\text{-smooth}] x_1^{\lg \text{norm } n}$  for nonzero polynomials  $n$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2$  is  $1 + 2x + 4x^2 + \dots + 335653893002534131235548574x^{99} + \dots$ . The bounds in this paper boil down to a known algorithm to compute the exact coefficients of this series. For asymptotic estimates see [19], [76], [6], and [83].

**Coprime pairs.** Consider the series

$$\sum_{n_1, n_2} [n_1 \text{ is } y\text{-smooth}] [n_2 \text{ is } y\text{-smooth}] [\gcd\{n_1, n_2\} = 1] x_1^{\lg n_1} x_2^{\lg n_2}$$

in two variables  $x_1, x_2$ . This series is the product over smooth primes  $p$  of  $1 + x_1^{\lg p} + x_1^{2\lg p} + \dots + x_2^{\lg p} + x_2^{2\lg p} + \dots$ . With a two-variable power-series exponentiation one can bound the distribution of smooth coprime pairs  $(n_1, n_2)$ .

This is, for  $y = 89$ , the problem considered by Coppersmith in [24]. Coppersmith replaced exponents  $k \lg p$  by  $\lceil \alpha k \lg p \rceil / \alpha$ , and multiplied the resulting series; I replace  $k \lg p$  by  $k \lceil \alpha \lg p \rceil / \alpha$ , which is not quite as small but is better suited for exponentiation.

For limited-precision estimates see [44], [45], and [46].

**Number of prime factors.** The series  $\sum_n [n \text{ is } y\text{-smooth}] x^{\lg n} w^{\Omega(n)}$  in two variables  $x, w$ , where  $\Omega(n) = \sum_p \text{ord}_p n$ , is the product over smooth primes  $p$  of  $1 + x^{\lg p} w + x^{2\lg p} w^2 + \dots$ . The exponentiation here is faster than in the case of coprime pairs, because the exponents of  $w$  are very small. For previous work see [28], [56], and [63].

**Semismoothness.** The analysis and optimization of factoring algorithms often relies on the distribution of positive integers  $n$  that have no prime divisors larger than  $z$  and at most one prime divisor larger than  $y$ . This is not a local condition, but the sum of  $x^{\lg n}$  is nevertheless a product

$$\left(1 + \sum_{y < p \leq z} x^{\lg p}\right) \prod_{p \leq y} (1 + x^{\lg p} + x^{2\lg p} + \dots)$$

of sparse series with nonnegative coefficients, so one can efficiently bound the distribution of these  $n$ 's. For previous work see [71] and [3].

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