

Let $b=3$. By (31), $F=P-5y+11$, $y \geq -6$. For $y \geq 3$, 31 is not a sum of five values. The least positive integer not a sum of four is 27 if $y \geq 2$ or $y \geq 1$, 53 if $y \geq 0$ or $y \geq -1$, 696 if $y \geq -2$, 1631 if $y \geq -3$, 1652 if $y \geq -4$ or $y \geq -5$ or $y \geq -6$. For $y \geq 0$, 53, 85, 217, 351, 391, 472 are the only integers ≤ 501 which are not sums of four values of F . We readily conclude that all ≤ 2700 are sums of five values.

Let $b=5$. By (31), $F=P-14y+50$, $y \geq -10$. The least integer not a sum of five values of F is 37 if $y \geq 4$, and 63 if $y \geq 3$. Also 19 is not a sum of four values with $y \geq -10$. Using the twenty-four integers ≤ 500 which are not sums of four values of F for $y \geq 2$, we find that all ≤ 3000 are sums of five.

Let $b=6$. Then $F=P-20y+85$, $y \geq -12$. Then 13 is not a sum of four values. For $y \geq 4$, 122 is not a sum of five. All integers ≤ 3775 are sums of five values of F for $y \geq 3$.

Finally, let $b=7$. Then $F=P-27y+133$, $y \geq -14$. Then 5 is not a sum of four values. For $y \geq 5$, 43 is not a sum of five. Every integer ≤ 10000 is a sum of five values of F for $y \geq 4$.

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On the arithmetical density of the sum of two sequences one of which forms a basis for the integers.

By

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Let a_1, a_2, \dots be any given sequence of positive steadily increasing integers and suppose there are $x=f(n)$ of them not exceeding a number n , so that

$$a_x \leq n < a_{x+1}.$$

The density δ of the sequence is defined by Schnirelmann as the lower bound of the numbers $f(n)/n$, $n=1, 2, \dots$. Thus if $a_1 \neq 1$, $\delta=0$.

Clearly $f(n) \geq \delta n$.

Suppose also that the steadily increasing set

$$A_0=0, A_1, A_2, \dots$$

forms a basis of order l of the positive integers. This means that every positive integer can be expressed as the sum of at most l of the A 's. I prove the following

Theorem: If δ' is the density of the sequence $a+A$, i. e. of the integers which can be expressed as the sum of an a and an A , then

$$\delta' \geq \delta + \frac{\delta(1-\delta)}{2l}.$$

Particular cases of this theorem have been proved by Khintchine and Buchstab in an entirely different and more complicated way.

I prove my theorem as a particular case of a more general one. Let the positive integers $\leq n$ not included among the a 's be denoted by b_1, b_2, \dots , and let

$$b_y \leq n < b_{y+1}.$$

Put

$$E = b_1 + b_2 + \dots + b_y - \frac{1}{2}y(y+1),$$

Clearly $E \geq 0$, since $b_1 \geq 1, b_2 \geq 2$ etc. Then there exist at least $x + \frac{E}{ln}$ integers $\leq n$ of the form $a + A$, where in fact we need only use $A=0$ and a single other A . This theorem is deduced from the one that there are at least $\frac{E}{ln}$ of the b 's $\leq n$ which can be represented in the form $a + A$, and in fact only a single A is used.

We require the

Lemma: An integer $J > 0$ exists such that there are at least $\frac{E}{n}$ of the b 's among the integers $\leq n$ in the set $a_1 + J, a_2 + J, \dots$

For the number of solutions of the equation

$$a + v = b$$

in positive integers v and a 's, b 's $\leq n$ is E . Thus for given $b = b_r$, there are $b_r - r$ solutions since the number of a 's $< b_r$ is clearly $b_r - r$ and every such a gives a solution v . Hence summing for $r = 1, 2, \dots, y$, the total number of solutions is

$$E = \sum_{r=1}^y (b_r - r).$$

But there are at most n possible values of v , namely $1, 2, \dots, n$ and so for at least one value of v , say J , there are not less than $\frac{E}{n}$ solutions of $a + J = b$ in a 's and b 's not greater than n .

Now express J as a sum of exactly l A 's, say

$$J = A_1 + A_2 + \dots + A_l,$$

by including a sufficient number of A_0 's among the A 's if need be and where A_1 need not denote the first, A_2 the second etc.

Denote by μ_s the number of b 's in the set $a + A_s, s = 1, 2, \dots, l$. I prove now that

$$\mu_1 + \mu_2 + \dots + \mu_l \geq \frac{E}{n}.$$

For in the set of integers given by

$$a + A_1 + A_2,$$

there are at most $\mu_1 + \mu_2$ of the b 's. Thus the set $a + A_1$ contains μ_1 of the b 's together with some a 's. When we add A_2 to the numbers of the set $a + A_1$, the μ_1 b 's give at most μ_1 b 's, while the a 's give at most μ_2 b 's. Now take the set $a + A_1 + A_2 + A_3$. This contains at most $\mu_1 + \mu_2 + \mu_3$ of the b 's by precisely the same argument applied to the sum of $a + A_1 + A_2$ and A_3 . Similarly the set $a + A_1 + A_2 + \dots + A_l$, i. e. $a + J$ will contain at most $\mu_1 + \mu_2 + \dots + \mu_l$ of the b 's. But since the set $a + J$ contained at least $\frac{E}{n}$ of the b 's, clearly one of the

μ 's say $\mu_k \geq \frac{E}{ln}$, and so the set $a + A_k$ contains at least $\frac{E}{ln}$ of the b 's $\leq n$. Now the set $a + A_0$, since $A_0 = 0$, consists of exactly the x a 's. Hence the set $a + A$ including $A_k = 0$ contains at least $x + \frac{E}{ln}$ different integers $\leq n$.

Suppose now the a 's have a density δ with $\delta < 1$ which is no loss of generality. We have $f(b_r) \geq \delta b_r$ hence $b_r - r = f(b_r) \geq \delta b_r, b_r \geq \frac{r}{1-\delta}$, and therefore

$$E \geq \frac{1+2+\dots+y}{1-\delta} - \frac{y(y+1)}{2} \geq \frac{\delta}{2(1-\delta)} y(y+1).$$

Hence for the number N of integers $\leq n$ in the set $a + A$

$$N \geq x + \frac{\delta}{2(1-\delta)} \frac{y^2}{ln} = \varphi(x) \quad (y = n - x),$$

say. For $x \geq \delta n$

$$\varphi'(x) = 1 - \frac{\delta}{2(1-\delta)} \frac{2(n-x)}{ln} \geq 1 - \frac{\delta}{l} > 0,$$

$$i. e. \quad N \geq \varphi(x) \geq \varphi(\delta n) = \delta n + \frac{\delta}{2(1-\delta)} \frac{(1-\delta)^2 n^2}{ln}.$$

hence

$$N \geq n \left(\delta + \frac{\delta(1-\delta)}{2l} \right),$$

and this is the theorem.

I can prove in the same way that if a sequence a_1, a_2, \dots is given and there are $f(n)$ of the a 's not exceeding n , then in the set $|a \pm A|$, there are at least

$$f(n) + \frac{f(n)(n-f(n))}{2l}$$

numbers not exceeding n .

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A note on the distribution of primes.

By

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1. If $\pi(x)$ denotes as usual the number of primes not exceeding x , then, by the prime number theorem, $\pi(x) \sim \text{li } x$ (as $x \rightarrow \infty$), and, by a well known theorem of Littlewood¹,

$$(1) \quad \pi(x) - \text{li } x = O \left(\frac{x^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\log x} \log \log \log x \right).$$

The first aim of this paper is to give a proof of (1) without the use of the Phragmén-Lindelöf theorem which was an essential feature of Littlewood's original proof; and the second is to adapt the method to the proof of the following result, in which Θ denotes the upper bound of the real parts of the zeros of the Riemann zeta-function $\zeta(s) = \zeta(\sigma + it)$.

Theorem A. *If Θ is attained, i. e. if $\zeta(s)$ has a zero on the line $\sigma = \Theta$, then there exists an absolute constant $A > 1$ such that, for all $x > 1$, the interval (x, Ax) contains an integer n and an integer n' satisfying*

$$\pi(n) < \text{li } n, \quad \pi(n') > \text{li } n'.$$

The possibility of dispensing with the Phragmén-Lindelöf theorem and the resulting advantages for the detailed study of the difference

¹ See E. Landau, *Vorlesungen über Zahlentheorie* (Leipzig, 1927), II, 123—150; or A. E. Ingham, *The distribution of prime numbers* (Cambridge, 1932), Chapter V. [These books will be quoted as „Vorlesungen“ and „Prime numbers“ respectively]. The notation is that of *Prime numbers*.