

# WHEN SETS CAN AND CANNOT HAVE SUM-DOMINANT SUBSETS

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ABSTRACT. A finite set of integers  $A$  is a sum-dominant (also called an More Sums Than Differences or MSTD) set if  $|A + A| > |A - A|$ . While almost all subsets of  $\{0, \dots, n\}$  are not sum-dominant, interestingly a small positive percentage are. We explore sufficient conditions on infinite sets of positive integers such that there are either no sum-dominant subsets, at most finitely many sum-dominant subsets, or infinitely many sum-dominant subsets. In particular, we prove no subset of the Fibonacci numbers is a sum-dominant set, establish conditions such that solutions to a recurrence relation have only finitely many sum-dominant subsets, and show there are infinitely many sum-dominant subsets of the primes.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

For any finite set of natural numbers  $A \subset \mathbb{N}$ , we define the sumset

$$A + A := \{a + a' : a, a' \in A\} \tag{1.1}$$

and the difference set

$$A - A := \{a - a' : a, a' \in A\}; \tag{1.2}$$

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$A$  is sum-dominant (also called a More Sums Than Differences or MSTD set) if  $|A + A| > |A - A|$  (if the two cardinalities are equal it is called balanced, and otherwise difference-dominant). As addition is commutative and subtraction is not, it was natural to conjecture that sum-dominant sets are rare. Conway gave the first example of such a set,  $\{0, 2, 3, 4, 7, 11, 12, 14\}$ , and this is the smallest such set. Later authors constructed infinite families, culminating in the work of Martin and O’Bryant, which proved a small positive percentage of subsets of  $\{0, \dots, n\}$  are sum-dominant as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and Zhao, who estimated this percentage at around  $4.5 \cdot 10^{-4}$ . See [FP, He, HM, Ma, MO, Na1, Na2, Na3, Ru1, Ru2, Zh3] for general overviews, examples, constructions, bounds on percentages and some generalizations, [MOS, MPR, MS, Zh1] for some explicit constructions of infinite families of sum-dominant sets, and [DKMMW, DKMMWW, MV, Zh2] for some extensions to other settings.

Much of the above work looks at finite subsets of the natural numbers, or equivalently subsets of  $\{0, 1, \dots, n\}$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . We investigate the effect of restricting the initial set on the existence of sum-dominant subsets. In particular, given an infinite set  $A = \{a_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ , when does  $A$  have no sum-dominant subsets, only finitely many sum-dominant subsets, or infinitely many sum-dominant subsets? *We assume throughout the rest of the paper that every such sequence  $A$  is strictly increasing and non-negative.*

Our first result shows that if the sequence grows sufficiently rapidly and there are no ‘small’ subsets which are sum-dominant, then there are no sum-dominant subsets.

**Theorem 1.1.** *Let  $A = \{a_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  be a strictly increasing sequence of non-negative numbers. If there exists a positive integer  $r$  such that*

- (1)  $a_k > a_{k-1} + a_{k-r}$  for all  $k \geq r + 1$ , and
- (2)  $A$  does not contain any sum-dominant set  $S$  with  $|S| \leq 2r - 1$ ,

*then  $A$  contains no sum-dominant set.*

We prove this in §2. As the smallest sum-dominant set has 8 elements (see [He]), the second condition is trivially true if  $r \leq 4$ . In particular, we immediately obtain the following interesting result.

**Corollary 1.2.** *No subset of the Fibonacci numbers  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, \dots\}$  is a sum-dominant set.*

The proof is trivial, and follows by taking  $r = 3$  and noting

$$F_k = F_{k-1} + F_{k-2} > F_{k-1} + F_{k-3} \tag{1.3}$$

for  $k \geq 4$ .

After defining a class of subsets we present a partial result on when there are at most finitely many sum-dominant subsets.

**Definition 1.3** (Special Sum-Dominant Set). *For a sum-dominant set  $S$ , we call  $S$  a special sum-dominant set if  $|S + S| - |S - S| \geq |S|$ .*

We prove sum-dominant sets exist in §3.1. Note if  $S$  is a special sum-dominant set then if  $S' = S \cup \{x\}$  for any sufficiently large  $x$  then  $S'$  is also a sum-dominant set. We have the following result about a sequence having at most finitely many sum-dominant sets (see §3 for the proof).

**Theorem 1.4.** *Let  $A = \{a_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  be a strictly increasing sequence of non-negative numbers. If there exists a positive integer  $s$  such that the sequence  $\{a_k\}$  satisfies*

- (1)  $a_k > a_{k-1} + a_{k-3}$  for all  $k \geq s$ , and
- (2)  $\{a_1, \dots, a_{4s+6}\}$  has no special sum-dominant subsets,

*then  $A$  contains at most finitely many sum-dominant sets.*

The above results concern situations where there are not many sum-dominant sets; we end with an example of the opposite behavior.

**Theorem 1.5.** *There are infinitely many sum-dominant subsets of the primes.*

We will see later that this result follows immediately from the Green-Tao Theorem [GT], which asserts that the primes contain arbitrarily long progressions. We also give a conditional proof in §4. There we assume the Hardy-Littlewood conjecture (see Conjecture 4.1) holds. The advantage of such an approach is that we have an explicit formula for the number of the needed prime tuples up to  $x$ , which gives a sense of how many such solutions exist in a given window.

## 2. SUBSETS WITH NO SUM-DOMINANT SETS

We prove Theorem 1.1, establishing a sufficient condition to ensure the non-existence of sum-dominant subsets.

*Proof of Theorem 1.1.* Let  $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k\} = \{a_{g(1)}, a_{g(2)}, \dots, a_{g(k)}\}$  be a finite subset of  $A$ , where  $g : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+$  is an increasing function. We show that  $S$  is not a sum-dominant set by strong induction on  $g(k)$ .

We proceed by induction. We show that if  $A$  has no sum-dominant subsets of size  $k$ , then it has no sum-dominant subsets of size  $k + 1$ ; as any sum-dominant set has only finitely many elements, this completes the proof.

For the Basis Step, we know (see [He]) that all sum-dominant sets have at least 8 elements, so any subset  $S$  of  $A$  with exactly  $k$  elements is not a sum-dominant set if  $k \leq 7$ ; in particular,  $S$  is not a sum-dominant set if  $g(k) \leq 7$ . Thus we may assume for  $g(k) \geq 8$  that all  $S'$  of the form  $\{s_1, \dots, s_{k-1}\}$  with  $s_{k-1} < a_{g(k)}$  are not sum-dominant sets. The proof is completed by showing

$$S = S' \cup \{a_{g(k)}\} = \{s_1, \dots, s_{k-1}, a_{g(k)}\} \quad (2.1)$$

is not sum-dominant sets for any  $a_{g(k)}$ .

We now turn to the Inductive Step. We know that  $S'$  is not a sum-dominant set by the inductive assumption. Also, if  $k \leq 2r - 1$  then  $|S| \leq 2r - 1$  and  $S$  is not a sum-dominant set by the second assumption of the theorem. If  $k \geq 2r$ , consider the number of new sums and differences obtained by adding  $a_{g(k)}$ . As we have at most  $k$  new sums, the proof is completed by showing there are at least  $k$  new differences.

Since  $k \geq 2r$ , we have  $k - \lfloor \frac{k+1}{2} \rfloor \geq r$ . Let  $t = \lfloor \frac{k+1}{2} \rfloor$ . Then  $t \leq k - r$ , which implies  $s_t \leq s_{k-r}$ . The largest difference in absolute value between elements in  $S$  is  $s_{k-1} - s_1$ ; we now show that we have added at least  $k + 1$  distinct differences greater

than  $s_{k-1} - s_1$  in absolute value, which will complete the proof. We have

$$\begin{aligned}
a_{g(k)} - s_t &\geq a_{g(k)} - s_{k-r} = a_{g(k)} - a_{g(k-r)} \\
&\geq a_{g(k)} - a_{g(k)-r} \\
&> a_{g(k)-1} - a_1 && \text{(by the first assumption on } \{a_n\} \text{)} \\
&\geq s_{k-1} - a_1 \geq s_{k-1} - s_1.
\end{aligned} \tag{2.2}$$

Since  $a_{g(k)} - s_t \geq s_{k-1} - s_1$ , we know that

$$a_{g(k)} - s_t, \dots, a_{g(k)} - s_2, a_{g(k)} - s_1$$

are  $t$  differences greater than the greatest difference in  $S'$ . As we could subtract in the opposite order,  $S$  contains at least

$$2t = 2 \left\lfloor \frac{k+1}{2} \right\rfloor \geq k \tag{2.3}$$

new differences. Thus  $S + S$  has at most  $k$  more sums than  $S' + S'$  but  $S - S$  has at least  $k$  more differences compared to  $S' - S'$ . Since  $S'$  is not a sum-dominant set, we see that  $S$  is not a sum-dominant set.  $\square$

**Remark 2.1.** *We thank the referee for the following alternative proof. Given any infinite increasing sequence  $\{a_{g(i)}\}$  that is a subset of a set  $A$  satisfying  $a_k > a_{k_1} + a_{k-r}$  for all  $k > r$ , let  $S_k = \{a_{g(1)}, \dots, a_{g(k)}\}$  and  $\Delta_k = |S_k - S_k| - |S_k + S_k|$ . Similar arguments as above show that  $\{\Delta_k\}$  is increasing for  $k \geq 2r$ .*

We immediately obtain the following.

**Corollary 2.2.** *Let  $A = \{a_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$  be a strictly increasing sequence of non-negative numbers. If  $a_k > a_{k-1} + a_{k-4}$  for all  $k \geq 5$ , then  $A$  contains no sum-dominant subsets.*

*Proof.* From [He] we know that all sum-dominant sets have at least 8 elements. When  $r = 4$  the second condition of Theorem 1.1 holds, completing the proof.  $\square$

For another example, we consider shifted geometric progressions.

**Corollary 2.3.** *Let  $A = \{a_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$  with  $a_k = c\rho^k + d$  for all  $k \geq 1$ , where  $0 \neq c \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $d \in \mathbb{N}$ , and  $1 < \rho \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $A$  contains no sum-dominant subsets.*

*Proof.* Without loss of generality we may shift and assume  $d = 0$  and  $c = 1$ ; the result now follows immediately from simple algebra.  $\square$

**Remark 2.4.** *Note that if  $\rho$  is an integer greater than the positive root of  $x^4 - x^3 - 1$  (the characteristic polynomial associated to  $a_k = a_{k-1} + a_{k-4}$  from Theorem 1.4, which is approximately 1.3803) then the above corollary holds for  $\{c\rho^k + d\}$ .*

### 3. SUBSETS WITH FINITELY MANY SUM-DOMINANT SETS

We start with some properties of special sum-dominant sets, and then prove Theorem 1.4. The arguments are similar to those used in proving Theorem 1.1. *In this section, in particular in all the statements of the lemmas, we assume the conditions of Theorem 1.4 hold.* Thus  $A = \{a_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$  and there is an integer  $s$  such that the sequence  $\{a_k\}$  satisfies

- (1)  $a_k > a_{k-1} + a_{k-3}$  for all  $k \geq s$ , and
- (2)  $\{a_1, \dots, a_{4s+6}\}$  has no special sum-dominant subsets.

**3.1. Special Sum-Dominant Sets.** Recall a sum-dominant set  $S$  is special if  $|S + S| - |S - S| \geq |S|$ . For any  $x \geq \sum_{a \in S} a$ , adding  $x$  creates  $|S| + 1$  new sums and  $2|S|$  new differences. Let  $S^* = S \cup \{x\}$ . Then

$$|S^* + S^*| - |S^* - S^*| \geq |S| + (|S| + 1) - 2|S| = 1, \quad (3.1)$$

and  $S^*$  is also a sum-dominant set. Hence, from one special sum-dominant set  $S \subset \{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty =: A$ , we can generate infinitely many sum-dominant sets by adding any large integer in  $A$ . We immediately obtain the following converse.

**Lemma 3.1.** *If a set  $S$  is not a special sum-dominant set, then  $|S + S| - |S - S| < |S|$ , and by adding any large  $x \geq \sum_{a \in S} a$ ,  $S \cup \{x\}$  has at least as many differences as sums. Thus only finitely many sum-dominant sets can be generated by appending one integer from  $A$  to a non-special sum-dominant set  $S$ .*

Note that special sum-dominant sets exist. We use the base expansion method (see [He]), which states that given a set  $A$ , for all  $m$  sufficiently large if

$$A_t = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^t a_i m^{i-1} : a_i \in A \right\} \quad (3.2)$$

then

$$|A_t \pm A_t| = |A \pm A|^t; \quad (3.3)$$

the reason is that for  $m$  large the various elements are clustered with different pairs of clusters yielding well-separated sums. To construct the desired special sum-dominant set, consider the smallest sum-dominant set  $S = \{0, 2, 3, 4, 7, 11, 12, 14\}$ . Using the method of base expansion, taking  $m = 10^{2017}$  we obtain  $S_3$  containing  $|S_3| = 8^3 = 512$  elements such that  $|S_3 + S_3| = |S + S|^3 = 26^3 = 17576$  and  $|S_3 - S_3| = |S - S|^3 = 25^3 = 15625$ . Then  $|S_3 + S_3| - |S_3 - S_3| > |S_3|$ .

**3.2. Finitely Many Sum-Dominant Sets on a Sequence.** If a sequence  $A = \{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  contains a special sum-dominant set  $S$ , then we can get infinitely many sum-dominant subsets on the sequence just by adding sufficiently large elements of  $A$  to  $S$ . Therefore for a sequence  $A$  to have at most finitely many sum-dominant subsets, it is necessary that it has no special sum-dominant sets. Using the result from the previous subsection, we can prove Theorem 1.4.

We establish some notation before turning to the proof in the next subsection. We can write  $A$  as the union of  $A_1 = \{a_1, \dots, a_{s-1}\}$  and  $A_2 = \{a_s, a_{s+1}, \dots\}$ . By Corollary 2.2, we know that  $A_2$  contains no sum-dominant sets. Thus any sum-dominant set must contain some elements from  $A_1$ .

We prove a lemma about  $A_2$ .

**Lemma 3.2.** *Let  $S' = \{s_1, \dots, s_{k-1}\}$  be a subset of  $A$  containing at least 3 elements  $a_{r_1}, a_{r_2}, a_{r_3}$  in  $A_2$ , with  $r_3 > r_2 > r_1$ . Consider the index  $g(k) > r_3$ , and let  $S = S' \cup \{a_{g(k)}\}$ . Then either  $S$  is not a sum-dominant set, or  $S$  satisfies  $|S - S| - |S + S| > |S' - S'| - |S' + S'|$ . Thus the excess of sums to differences from  $S$  is less than the excess from  $S'$ .*

*Proof.* We follow a similar argument as in Theorem 1.1.

If  $k \leq 7$ , then  $S$  is not a sum-dominant set.

If  $k \geq 8$ , then  $k - \lfloor \frac{k+3}{2} \rfloor \geq 3$ . Let  $t = \lfloor \frac{k+2}{2} \rfloor$ . Then  $t \leq k - 3$ , and  $s_t \leq s_{k-3}$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} a_{g(k)} - s_t &\geq a_{g(k)} - s_{k-3} = a_{g(k)} - a_{g(k-3)} \\ &\geq a_{g(k)} - a_{g(k)-3} \\ &> a_{g(k)-1} = a_{g(k)-1} - a_1 && \text{(by assumption on } a) \\ &\geq s_{k-1} - a_1 \geq s_{k-1} - s_1. \end{aligned} \tag{3.4}$$

In the set  $S'$ , the greatest difference is  $s_{k-1} - s_1$ . Since  $a_{g(k)} - s_t \geq s_{k-1} - s_1$ , we know that  $a_{g(k)} - s_t, \dots, a_{g(k)} - s_2, a_{g(k)} - s_1$  are all differences greater than the greatest difference in  $S'$ .

By a similar argument,  $s_t - a_{g(k)}, \dots, s_2 - a_{g(k)}, s_1 - a_{g(k)}$  are all differences smaller than the smallest difference in  $S'$ .

So  $S$  contains at least  $2t = 2 \lfloor \frac{k+3}{2} \rfloor > 2 \cdot \frac{k+1}{2} = k + 1$  new differences compared to  $S'$ , and  $S$  satisfies

$$|S - S| - |S + S| > |S' - S'| - |S' + S'|, \tag{3.5}$$

completing the proof.  $\square$

**3.3. Proof of Theorem 1.4.** Recall that we write  $A = A_1 \cup A_2$  with  $A_1 = \{a_1, \dots, a_{s-1}\}$ ,  $A_2 = \{a_s, a_{s+1}, \dots\}$ , and by Corollary 2.2  $A_2$  contains no sum-dominant sets (thus any sum-dominant set must contain some elements from  $A_1$ ). We first prove a series of useful results which imply the main theorem.

Our first result classifies the possible sum-dominant subsets of  $A$ . Since any such set must have at least one element of  $A_1$  in it but not necessarily any elements of  $A_2$ , we use the subscript  $n$  below to indicate how many elements of  $A_2$  are in our sum-dominant set.

**Lemma 3.3** (Classification of Sum-Dominant Subsets of  $A$ ). *Notation as above, let  $K_n$  be a sum-dominant subset of  $A = A_1 \cup A_2$  with  $n$  elements in  $A_2$ . Thus we may write*

$$K_n = S \cup \{a_{r_1}, \dots, a_{r_n}\}$$

for some

$$S \subset A_1 = \{a_1, \dots, a_s\}, \quad s \leq r_1 < r_2 < \dots < r_n.$$

Set

$$d = \max_{K_3} (|K_3 + K_3| - |K_3 - K_3|, 1).$$

Then  $n \leq d + 3$ . In other words, a sum-dominant subset of  $A$  can have at most  $d + 3$  elements of  $A_2$ .

*Proof.* Let  $S_m$  be any subset of  $A$  with  $m$  elements of  $A_2$ . Lemma 3.2 tells us that for any  $S_m$  with  $m \geq 3$ , when we add any new element  $a_{r_{m+1}}$  to get  $S_{m+1}$ , either  $S_{m+1}$  is not a sum-dominant set, or

$$|S_{m+1} - S_{m+1}| - |S_{m+1} + S_{m+1}| \geq |S_m - S_m| - |S_m + S_m| + 1.$$

For an  $n > d + 3$ , assume there exists a sum-dominant set; if so, denote it by  $K_n$ . For  $3 \leq k \leq n$ , define  $S_k$  as the set obtained by deleting the  $(n - k)$  largest elements from  $K_n$  (equivalently, keeping only the  $k$  smallest elements from  $K_n$  which are in  $A_2$ ). We prove that each  $S_k$  is sum-dominant, and then show that this forces  $S_n$  not to be sum-dominant; this contradiction proves the theorem as  $K_n = S_n$ .

If  $S_k$  is not a sum-dominant set for any  $k \geq 3$ , by Lemma 3.2 either  $S_{k+1}$  is not a sum-dominant set, or

$$|S_{k+1} - S_{k+1}| - |S_{k+1} + S_{k+1}| \geq |S_k - S_k| - |S_k + S_k| + 1 \geq 0,$$

in which case  $S_{k+1}$  is also not a sum-dominant set (because  $S_k$  is not sum-dominant, the set  $S_{k+1}$  generates at least as many differences as sums). As we are assuming  $K_n$  (which is just  $S_n$ ) is a sum-dominant set, we find  $S_{n-1}$  is sum-dominant. Repeating the argument, we find that  $S_{n-2}$  down to  $S_3$  must also all be sum-dominant sets, and we have

$$|S_n - S_n| - |S_n + S_n| \geq |S_3 - S_3| - |S_3 + S_3| + (n - 3). \quad (3.6)$$

Since  $S_3$  is one of the  $K_3$ 's (i.e., it is a sum-dominant subset of  $A$  with exactly three elements of  $A_2$ ), by the definition of  $d$  the right hand side above is at least  $n - 3 - d$ . As we are assuming  $n > d + 3$  we see it is positive, and hence  $S_n$  is not sum-dominant. As  $S_n = K_n$  we see that  $K_n$  is not a sum-dominant set, contradicting our assumption that there is a sum-dominant set  $K_n$  with  $n > d + 3$ , proving the theorem.  $\square$

**Lemma 3.4.** *For  $n \geq 0$  let  $k_n$  denote the number of subsets  $K_n \subset A$  which are sum-dominant and contain exactly  $n$  elements from  $A_2$ . We write*

$$K_n = S \cup \{a_{r_1}, \dots, a_{r_n}\} \quad \text{with } S \subset A_1. \quad (3.7)$$

Then

- (1)  $k_n$  is finite for all  $n \geq 0$ , and
- (2) every  $K_n$  is not a special sum-dominant set.

*Proof.* We prove each part by induction. It is easier to do both claims simultaneously as we induct on  $n$ . We break the analysis into  $n \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  and  $n \geq 4$ . The proof for  $n = 0$  is immediate, while  $n \in \{1, 2, 3\}$  follow by obtaining bounds on the indices permissible in a  $K_n$ , and then  $n \geq 4$  follows by induction. We thus must check (1) and (2) for  $n \leq 3$ . While the arguments for  $n \leq 3$  are all similar, it is convenient to handle each case differently so we can control the indices and use earlier results, in particular removing the largest element in  $A_2$  yields a set which is not a special sum-dominant set.

*Case  $n = 0$ :* As  $A_1$  is finite, it has finitely many subsets and thus  $k_0$ , which is the number of sum-dominant subsets of  $A_1$ , is finite (it is at most  $2^{|A_1|}$ ). Further any  $K_0$  is a subset of

$$A_1 = \{a_1, \dots, a_{s-1}\},$$

which is a subset of

$$A' = \{a_1, \dots, a_{4s+6}\}. \quad (3.8)$$

As we have assumed  $A'$  has no special sum-dominant set, no  $K_0$  can be a special sum-dominant set.

*Case  $n = 1$ :* We start by obtaining upper bounds on  $r_1$ , the index of the smallest (and only) element in our set coming from  $A_2$ . Consider the index  $4s$ . We claim that

$$a_{4s} > \sum_{a \in A_1} a. \quad (3.9)$$

This is because  $|A_1| < s$  and  $a_k > a_{k-1} + a_{k-3}$  for all  $k \geq s$ , and hence

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{a \in A_1} a &< s \cdot a_s \\ &< \frac{s}{2} (a_s + a_{s+2}) < \frac{s}{2} \cdot a_{s+3} \\ &< \frac{s}{4} (a_{s+3} + a_{s+5}) < \frac{s}{4} \cdot a_{s+6} \dots \\ &< \frac{s}{2^{\lceil \log_2 s \rceil}} a_{s+3 \lceil \log_2(s) \rceil} \\ &< a_{s+3s} = a_{4s} \end{aligned}$$

(by doing the above  $\lceil \log_2 s \rceil$  times we ensure that  $s/2^{\lceil \log_2 s \rceil} < 1$ , and since  $s \geq 1$  we have  $3s \geq 3 \lceil \log_2(s) \rceil$ ). Therefore for all  $r_1$  sufficiently large,

$$a_{r_1} > a_{4s} > \sum_{a \in A_1} a. \quad (3.10)$$

Clearly there are only finitely many sum-dominant subsets  $K_1$  with  $r_1 \leq 4s$ ; the analysis is completed by showing there are no sum-dominant sets with  $r_1 > 4s$ . Imagine there was a sum-dominant  $K_1$  with  $a_{r_1} > a_{4s}$ . Then  $K_1$  is the union of a set of elements  $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_m\}$  in  $A_1$  and  $a_{r_1}$  in  $A_2$ . As  $\sum_{s \in S} s < a_{r_1}$ , by Lemma 3.1 we find  $K_1$  is not a sum-dominant set.

All that remains is to show none of the  $K_1$  are special sum-dominant sets. This is immediate, as each sum-dominant  $K_1$  is a subset of  $\{a_1, \dots, a_{4s}\}$ , which is a subset of  $A'$  (defined in (3.8)). As we have assumed  $A'$  has no special sum-dominant set, no  $K_1$  can be a special sum-dominant set.

*Case  $n = 2$ :* Consider the index  $4s + 3$ . If  $K_2$  is a sum-dominant set then it has two elements,  $a_{r_1} < a_{r_2}$ , that are in  $A_2$ . We show that if  $r_2 \geq 4s + 3$  then there can be no sum-dominant sets, and thus there are only finitely many  $K_2$ .

For all  $r_2 \geq 4s + 3$ ,

$$a_{r_2} - a_{r_2-1} > a_{r_2-3} \geq a_{4s} > \sum_{a \in A_1} a. \quad (3.11)$$

Assume there is a sum-dominant  $K_2$  with  $r_2 \geq 4s + 3$ . It contains some elements  $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_m\}$  in  $A_1$  and  $a_{r_1}, a_{r_2}$  in  $A_2$ . We have

$$a_{r_2} - a_{r_1} \geq a_{r_2} - a_{r_2-1} > \sum_{a \in S} a.$$

Therefore  $a_{r_2} > (\sum_{a \in S} a) + a_{r_1}$ , and  $S \cup \{a_{r_1}\}$  is not a special sum-dominant set by the  $n = 1$  case<sup>1</sup>. Hence, by Lemma 3.1 we find  $K_2 = (S \cup \{a_{r_1}\}) \cup \{a_{r_2}\}$  is not a sum-dominant set.

Finally, as  $K_2$  is a subset of  $\{a_1, \dots, a_{4s+1}\}$ , which is a subset of  $A'$ , by assumption  $K_2$  is not a special sum-dominant set.

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<sup>1</sup>If  $S' = S \cup \{a_{r_1}\}$  is sum-dominant then it is not special, while if it is not sum-dominant then clearly it is not a special sum-dominant set.

Case  $n = 3$ : Let  $K_3$  be a sum-dominant set with three elements from  $A_2$ . We show that if  $r_3 \geq 4s + 6$  then there are no such  $K_3$ ; as there are only finitely many sum-dominant sets with  $r_3 < 4s + 6$ , this completes the counting proof in this case.

Consider the index  $4s + 6$ . For all  $r_3 \geq 4s + 6$ ,

$$a_{r_3-3} - a_{r_3-4} > a_{r_3-6} \geq a_{4s} > \sum_{a \in A_1} a. \quad (3.12)$$

Consider any  $K_3$  with  $r_3 \geq 4s + 6$ . We write  $K_3$  as  $S \cup \{a_{r_1}, a_{r_2}, a_{r_3}\}$  and  $S \subset A_1$ . If  $|S| < 5$ , we know that  $|K_3| < 8$ , and  $K_3$  is not a sum-dominant set as such a set has at least 8 elements. We can therefore assume that  $|S| \geq 5$ . We have two cases.

*Subcase 1:  $r_2 \leq r_3 - 3$ :* Thus

$$a_{r_3} - a_{r_2} - a_{r_1} \geq a_{r_3} - a_{r_3-3} - a_{r_3-4} \geq a_{r_3-1} - a_{r_3-4} \geq a_{r_3-2} > a_{r_3-6} > \sum_{a \in S} a.$$

As  $S \cup \{a_{r_1}, a_{r_2}\}$  is not a special sum-dominant set by the  $n = 2$  case<sup>2</sup>, adding  $a_{r_3}$  with

$$a_{r_3} > \left( \sum_{s \in S} s \right) + a_{r_1} + a_{r_2}$$

creates a non-sum-dominant set by Lemma 3.1.

*Subcase 2:  $r_2 > r_3 - 3$ :* Using (3.12) we find

$$a_{r_3} - a_{r_2} \geq a_{r_3} - a_{r_3-1} > \sum_{a \in S} a$$

and

$$a_{r_2} - a_{r_1} > a_{r_3-2} - a_{r_3-3} > \sum_{a \in S} a.$$

Therefore the differences between  $a_{r_1}, a_{r_2}, a_{r_3}$  are large relative to the sum of the elements in  $S$ , and our new sums and new differences are well-separated from the old sums and differences. Explicitly,  $K_3 + K_3$  consists of  $S + S, a_{r_1} + S, a_{r_2} + S, a_{r_3} + S$ , plus at most 6 more elements (from the sums of the  $a_r$ 's), while  $K_3 - K_3$  consists of  $S - S, \pm(a_{r_1} - S), \pm(a_{r_2} - S), \pm(a_{r_3} - S)$ , plus possibly some differences from the differences of the  $a_r$ 's.

As  $S$  is not a special sum-dominant set, we know  $|S + S| - |S - S| < |S|$  (if  $S$  is not sum-dominant the claim holds trivially, while if it is sum-dominant it holds because  $S$  is not special). Thus for  $K_3$  to be sum-dominant, we must have

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &< |K_3 + K_3| - |K_3 - K_3| \\ &\leq (|S + S| + 3|S| + 6) - (|S - S| + 6|S|) \\ &< 6 - 2|S|; \end{aligned}$$

as  $|S| \geq 5$  this is impossible, and thus  $K_3$  cannot be sum-dominant.

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<sup>2</sup>As before, if it is sum-dominant it is not special, while if it is not sum-dominant it cannot be sum-dominant special; thus we have the needed inequalities concerning the sizes of the sets.

Finally, as again  $K_3$  is a subset of  $A' = \{a_1, \dots, a_{4s+6}\}$ , no  $K_3$  is a special sum-dominant set.

*Case  $n \geq 4$  (inductive step):* We proceed by induction. We may assume that  $k_n$  is finite for some  $n \geq 3$ , and must show that  $k_{n+1}$  is finite. By the earlier cases we know there is an integer  $t_n$  such that if  $K_n$  is a sum-dominant subset of  $A$  with exactly  $n$  elements of  $A_2$ , then the largest index  $r_n$  of an  $a_i \in K_n$  is less than  $t_n$ .

We claim that if  $K_{n+1}$  is a sum-dominant subset of  $A$  then each index is less than  $t_{n+1}$ , where  $t_{n+1}$  is the smallest index such that if  $r_{n+1} \geq t_{n+1}$  then

$$a_{r_{n+1}} > \sum_{i < r_n} a_i. \quad (3.13)$$

We write

$$K_{n+1} = S \cup \{a_{r_1}, \dots, a_{r_n}, a_{r_{n+1}}\}, \quad S \subset A_1, \quad \{a_{r_1}, \dots, a_{r_n}\} \subset A_2.$$

We show that if  $r_{n+1} \geq t_{n+1}$  then  $K_{n+1}$  is not sum-dominant. Let  $S_n = K_{n+1} \setminus \{a_{r_{n+1}}\}$ . We have two cases.

- If  $r_n < t_n$ , then by the inductive hypothesis  $S_n$  is not a special sum-dominant set. So adding  $a_{r_{n+1}} > \sum_{x \in S_n} x$  to  $S_n$  gives a non-sum-dominant set by Lemma 3.1.
- If  $r_n \geq t_n$ , then by the inductive hypothesis  $S_n$  is not a sum-dominant set. So  $|S_n - S_n| - |S_n + S_n| \geq 0$ . Since  $n \geq 3$ , we can apply Lemma 3.2, and either  $K_{n+1} = S_n \cup \{a_{r_{n+1}}\}$  is not a sum-dominant set, or

$$|K_{n+1} - K_{n+1}| - |K_{n+1} + K_{n+1}| > |K_n - K_n| - |K_n + K_n| > 0,$$

in which case  $S_{n+1}$  is still not a sum-dominant set.

We conclude that for all sum-dominant sets  $S_{n+1}$ , we must have  $r_{n+1} < t_{n+1}$ . So  $k_{n+1}$  is finite.

Consider any sum-dominant set  $K_{n+1} = S_n \cup \{a_{r_{n+1}}\}$ . Applying lemma 3.2 again, we have  $|K_{n+1} - K_{n+1}| - |K_{n+1} + K_{n+1}| > |S_n - S_n| - |S_n + S_n|$ . We know, from inductive hypothesis, that  $S_n$  is not a special sum-dominant set. Therefore all possible  $K_{n+1}$  are not special sum-dominant sets.

By induction,  $k_n$  is finite for all  $n \geq 0$ , and all  $K_n$  are not special sum-dominant sets.  $\square$

*Proof of Theorem 1.4.* By Lemma 3.3 every sum-dominant subset of  $A$  is of the form  $K_0, K_1, K_2, \dots, K_{d+3}$  where the  $K_n$  are as in (3.7). By Lemma 3.4 there are only finitely many sets of the form  $K_n$  for  $n \leq d+3$ , and thus there are only finitely many sum-dominant subsets of  $A$ .  $\square$

#### 4. SUM-DOMINANT SUBSETS OF THE PRIME NUMBERS

We now investigate sum-dominant subsets of the primes. While Theorem 1.5 follows immediately from the Green-Tao theorem, we first conditionally prove there are infinitely many sum-dominant subsets of the primes as this argument gives a better sense of what the ‘truth’ should be (i.e., how far we must go before we find sum-dominant subsets).

**4.1. Admissible Prime Tuples and Prime Constellations.** We first consider the idea of prime  $m$ -tuples. A prime  $m$ -tuple  $(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m)$  represents a pattern of differences between prime numbers. An integer  $n$  matches this pattern if  $(b_1 + n, b_2 + n, \dots, b_m + n)$  are all primes.

A prime  $m$ -tuple  $(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m)$  is called admissible if for all integers  $k \geq 2$ ,  $\{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m\}$  does not cover all values modulo  $k$ . If a prime  $m$ -tuple is not admissible, whenever  $n > k$  then at least one of  $b_1 + n, b_2 + n, \dots, b_m + n$  is divisible by  $k$  and greater than  $k$ , so this cannot be an  $m$ -tuple of prime numbers (in this case the only  $n$  which can lead to an  $m$ -tuple of primes are  $n \leq k$ , and there are only finitely many of these).

It is conjectured in [HL] that all admissible  $m$ -tuples are matched by infinitely many integers.

**Conjecture 4.1** (Hardy-Littlewood [HL]). *Let  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m$  be  $m$  distinct integers,  $v_p(b) = v(p; b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m)$  the number of distinct residues of  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m$  to the modulus  $p$ , and  $P(x; b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m)$  the number of integers  $1 \leq n \leq x$  such that every element in  $\{n + b_1, n + b_2, \dots, n + b_m\}$  is prime. Assume  $(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m)$  is admissible (thus  $v_p(b) \neq p$  for all  $p$ ). Then*

$$P(x) \sim \mathfrak{S}(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m) \int_2^x \frac{du}{(\log u)^m} \quad (4.1)$$

when  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , where

$$\mathfrak{S}(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m) = \prod_{p \geq 2} \left( \left( \frac{p}{p-1} \right)^{m-1} \frac{p - v_p(b)}{p-1} \right) \neq 0.$$

As  $(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m)$  is an admissible  $m$ -tuple,  $v(p; b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m)$  is never equal to  $p$  and equals  $m$  for  $p > \max\{|b_i - b_j|\}$ . The product  $\mathfrak{S}(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m)$  thus converges to a positive number as each factor is non-zero and is  $1 + O_m(1/p^2)$ . Therefore this conjecture implies that every admissible  $m$ -tuple is matched by infinitely many integers.

**4.2. Infinitude of sum-dominant subsets of the primes.** We now show the Hardy-Littlewood conjecture implies there are infinitely many subsets of the primes which are sum-dominant sets.

**Theorem 4.2.** *If the Hardy-Littlewood conjecture holds for all admissible  $m$ -tuples then the primes have infinitely many sum-dominant subsets.*

*Proof.* Consider the smallest sum-dominant set  $S = \{0, 2, 3, 4, 7, 11, 12, 14\}$ . We know that  $\{p, p + 2s, p + 3s, p + 4s, p + 7s, p + 11s, p + 12s, p + 14s\}$  is a sum-dominant set for all positive integers  $p, s$ . Set  $s = 30$  and let  $T = (0, 60, 90, 120, 210, 330, 360, 420)$ . We deduce that if there are infinitely many  $n$  such that  $n + T = (n, n + 60, n + 90, n + 120, n + 210, n + 330, n + 360, n + 420)$  is an 8-tuple of prime numbers, then there are infinitely many sum-dominant sets of prime numbers.

We check that  $T$  is an admissible prime 8-tuple. When  $m > 8$ , the eight numbers in  $T$  clearly don't cover all values modulo  $m$ . When  $m \leq 8$ , one sees by straightforward computation that  $T$  does not cover all values modulo  $m$ .

By Conjecture 4.1, there are infinitely many integers  $p$  such that every element of  $\{p, p + 60, p + 90, p + 120, p + 210, p + 330, p + 360, p + 420\}$  is prime. These are all sum-dominant sets, so there are infinitely many sum-dominant sets on primes.  $\square$

Of course, all we need is that the Hardy-Littlewood conjecture holds for one admissible  $m$ -tuple which has a sum-dominant subset. We may take  $p = 19$ , which gives an explicit sum-dominant subset of the primes:  $\{19, 79, 109, 139, 229, 349, 379, 439\}$  (a natural question is which sum-dominant subset of the primes has the smallest diameter). If one wishes, one can use the conjecture to get some lower bounds on the number of sum-dominant subsets of the primes at most  $x$ . The proof of Theorem 1.5 follows similarly.

*Proof of Theorem 1.5.* By the Green-Tao theorem, the primes contain arbitrarily long arithmetic progressions. Thus for each  $N \geq 14$  there are infinitely many pairs  $(p, d)$  such that

$$\{p, p + d, p + 2d, \dots, p + Nd\} \quad (4.2)$$

are all prime. We can then take subsets as in the proof of Theorem 4.2.  $\square$

## 5. FUTURE WORK

We list some natural topics for further research.

- Can the conditions in Theorem 1.1 or 1.4 be weakened?
- What is the smallest special sum-dominant set by diameter, and by cardinality?
- What is the smallest, in terms of its largest element, set of primes that is sum-dominant?

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