

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

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

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 ρ 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 $n = 1$ case¹. 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.

¹If $S' = S \cup \{a_{r_1}\}$ 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 $n = 2$ case², 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.

²As 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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