THE CARDINALITIES OF A + A AND A - A

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H. T. Croft's Research Problems, 1967, contains the following problem due to J. H. Conway. "Let $A = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_N\}$ be a finite set of integers, and define

and

$$A + A = \{a_i + a_j; 1 \le i, j \le N\}$$

$$A - A = \{a_i - a_j; 1 \le i, j \le N\}.$$

Prove that A-A always has more members than A+A, unless A is symmetric about 0." Marica in [1] showed that the conjecture is false for the set $A = \{1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 9, 13, 15, 16\}$. In this case A+A has 30 elements and A-A has 29 elements.

In Marica's example the ratio between the cardinality of A - A and the cardinality of A + A is 29/30 or 0.966... It is the purpose of this note to show that there are sets A for which this ratio is as close to 0 as we please (and also as large as we please).

A few definitions will be given first. The cardinality of a finite set X will be denoted |X|. If A is a finite set of integers, the ratio

$$\frac{|A-A|}{|A+A|}$$

will be denoted r(A).

Also, if A is a set and n is an integer, A+nA will stand for the set $\{a+na' \mid a \in A, a' \in A\}$. The result will follow easily from these three lemmas.

LEMMA 1. Let X be a finite set of integers. Then there exists an integer n such that the equality $x_1+nx'_1=x_2+nx'_2$ for x_1 , x'_1 , x_2 , x'_2 in X implies that $x_1=x_2$ and $x'_1=x'_2$. Thus $|X+nX|=|X|^2$.

Proof. Let *n* be any integer distinct from all of the fractions.

$$\frac{x_1 - x_2}{x_2' - x_1'}$$

that can be formed with x_1 , x_2 , x'_1 , $x'_2 \in X$ and $x'_2 \neq x'_1$. Such an *n* satisfies the demand of the lemma.

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LEMMA 2. Let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k be finite sets of integers. Then there is an integer n such that $|X_i+nX_i|=|X_i|^2$ for $i, i=1, 2, \ldots, k$.

The proof follows easily from the proof of Lemma 1.

LEMMA 3. Let A be a finite set of integers. Then there is an integer n such that $r(A+nA)=(r(A))^2$.

Proof. Let *n* be an integer whose existence is assured by Lemma 2 for the three sets $X_1 = A$, $X_2 = A + A$, and $X_3 = A - A$. Let B = A + nA. Then

$$B+B = \{(a_1+na'_1)+(a_2+na'_2) \mid a_1, a'_1, a_2, a'_2 \in A\}$$
$$= \{(a_1+a_2)+n(a'_1+a'_2) \mid a_1, a'_1, a_2, a'_2 \in A\}$$
$$= A+A+n(A+A).$$

Thus

$$|B+B| = |A+A|^2.$$

Also,

$$B-B = \{(a_1+na'_1)-(a_2+na'_2) \mid a_1, a'_1, a_2, a'_2 \in A\}$$
$$= \{a_1-a_2+n(a'_1-a'_2) \mid a_1, a'_1, a_2, a'_2 \in A\}$$
$$= A-A+n(A-A).$$

Thus

$$|B-B| = |A-A|^2$$
.

Consequently

$$r(B) = \frac{|B-B|}{|B+B|} = \frac{|A-A|^2}{|A+A|^2} = (r(A))^2.$$

THEOREM. There exist finite sets of integers A for which r(A) is arbitrarily small or arbitrarily large.

Proof. Marica's example shows that there is a set A for which r(A) is less than 1. Repeated application of Lemma 3, starting with Marica's example, provides sets A of arbitrarily small r(A). Repeated application of Lemma 3, starting with any set for which r(A) is larger than 1, the simplest of which is $\{0, 1, 3\}$, provides sets A of arbitrarily large r(A).

The proof of the theorem raises another question. For convenience assume that A contains only nonnegative integers and that 0 is an element of A. The sets A constructed in the proof of the theorem, when r(A) is very small or very large, have many elements spread sparsely over a large interval. Is there some general inequality relating r(A), |A|, and the largest element in A?

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POSTSCRIPT

H. Croft has called to my attention Sophie Piccard's Sur des ensembles parfaits, Mémoires de l'université de Neuchatel, **16** (1942), (Zentralblatt fur Mathematik, **27** (1943), 204–205), which examines the sets A+A and A-A where A is a set of real numbers. On p. 176 these two propositions are to be found:

PROPOSITION 1. There is a set A of real numbers such that A+A consists of all nonnegative real numbers and A-A has measure zero.

PROPOSITION 2. There is a set A of real numbers such that A+A has measure zero and A-A consists of all real numbers.

A negligible modification of her arguments easily establishes that there are finite sets of integers A for which r(A) is as small or as large as we please. We sketch the argument, based on that for Proposition 1, that shows that r(A) can be made arbitrarily small.

Let $K = \{0, 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 14\}$ and let *n* be a positive integer (later to be chosen large). Observe that $K+K \supseteq \{0, 1, 2, \ldots, 15\}$ while K-K does not contain the elements 8 and 15.

Let $A = K + 16K + 16^{2}K + \cdots + 16^{3n-1}K$, that is, the nonnegative integers less than 16^{3n} whose representation in base 16 uses only the eight digits in K.

Then $A+A \supseteq \{0, 1, \ldots, 16^{3n}-1\}$ while A-A contains no integer that has the three successive digits 080 in base 16 (because neither 8 nor 15 is in K-K). Thus A-A contains no integer whose representation in base 16³ has the digit $8 \cdot 16=128$. Consequently A-A has at most $2((16^3-1)/16^3)^n 16^{3n}$ integers. Thus $r(A) \le 2((16^3-1)/16^3)^n$, which approaches 0 as *n* increases.

A similar argument, starting with $K = \{0, 2, 3, 7\}$ and using base 10, produces sets of integers for which r(A) is as large as we please.

Reference

1. J. Marica, On a conjecture of Conway, Canad. Math. Bull. 12 (1969), 233-234.

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