When is a set determined by its pairwise sums? (Exposition)

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1 Introduction

Everything in this exposition was told to me by Noga Alon; however, he does not claim to be the originator of it nor does he know who is. Selfridge and Straus [1] proved the main result originally with a different proof.

Def 1.1 If A is a set then

$$\begin{array}{ll} A + A = & \{x + y : x, y \in A\} \\ \\ A +^{*} A = & \{x + y : x, y \in A, x \neq y\}. \end{array}$$

Let $A = \{x, y\} \in {N \choose 2}$. Does A + A determine A? NO- if x + y = 5 then $\{x, y\}$ could be either $\{1, 4\}$ or $\{2, 3\}$.

Let $A = \{x, y, z\} \in {N \choose 3}$. Does A + A determine A? YES:

First determine S = ((x + y) + (x + z) + (y + z))/2 = x + y + z.

Then determine

x = S - (y + z)

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y = S - (x + z) z = S - (x + y).Let $A = \{x, y, z, w\} \in {N \choose 4}$. Does A + A determine A? We will see soon.

Def 1.2 A number *n* is *nice* if, for all $A \in \binom{N}{n}$, *A* is completely determined by A + A.

Which n are nice? Selfridge and Straus showed that n is nice iff n is not a power of two. The proof uses Generating Functions. I do not know of another way to do it.

2 The Main Theorem

Theorem 2.1 *n* is nice iff *n* is not a power of two.

Proof:

PART I:

We show that if n IS a power of 2 then there exists $A, B \in \binom{N}{n}$ such that A + A = B + B. The proof is by induction on n (actually on $\lg n$).

If $n = 2^1$ then take $A = \{1, 4\}$ and $B = \{2, 3\}$.

Assume that we have sets $A', B' \in {\binom{[2^m]}{2}}$ such that A' + A' = B' + B'. Let

$$x = \max\{A', B'\} + 1$$
$$A = A' \cup (B + x)$$
$$B = B' \cup (A + x)$$

We leave it to the reader to show that A + A = B + B.

PART II:

We show that if there exists $A, B \in \binom{N}{n}$ with A + A = B + B then n is a power of 2. Let

$$A(x) = \sum_{i \in A} x^{i}$$
$$B(x) = \sum_{i \in B} x^{i}$$

Clearly

$$\sum_{i \in A^* + A} x^i = A(x)^2 - A(x^2)$$
$$\sum_{i \in B^* + B} x^i = B(x)^2 - B(x^2)$$

Hence

$$A(x)^{2} - A(x^{2}) = B(x)^{2} - B(x^{2})$$
$$(A(x) - B(x)(A(x) + B(x)) = A(x^{2}) - B(x^{2})$$
 MAIN EQUATION

Note that A(1) - B(1) = n - n = 0. Hence there exists $m \ge 1$ and polynomial f such that $f(1) \ne 0$ and

$$A(x) - B(x) = (x - 1)^m f(x).$$

Hence also note that

$$A(x^{2}) - B(x^{2}) = (x^{2} - 1)^{m} f(x^{2}).$$

Using both of these in the MAIN EQUATION above yields

$$(x-1)^m f(x)(A(x) + B(x)) = (x^2 - 1)^m f(x^2)$$
$$f(x)(A(x) + B(x)) = (x+1)^m f(x^2)$$

Plug in x = 1 to obtain

$$f(1)(A(1) + B(1)) = (1 + 1)^m f(1^2)$$

$$f(1) \times 2n = 2^m f(1)$$

$$2n = 2^m \text{ (Can divide by } f(1) \text{ since } f(1) \neq 0.\text{)}$$

$$n = 2^{m-1}$$

So we have that *n* is a power of 2.

What did we use about the natural numbers in this proof? Not much— just that if p is a polynomial (so natural number exponents) and p(1) = 0 then $p(x) = (x - 1)^m h(x)$ where $h(1) \neq 0$.

If instead of natural numbers we had real (complex) numbers we would need this to be true of the functions that are sums of terms of the form x^r where r is real (complex). There is a slight issue with the fact that (say) $x^{1/3}$ is not uniquely defined; however, we are confident this could be worked out and that the proof presented can be extended to the complex case.

References

 [1] J. Selfridge and E. Straus. On the determination of numbers by their sums of a fixed order. *Pacific Journal of Mathematics*, 8(4):847-856, 1958. http://www.cs.umd.edu/~gasarch/ BLOGPAPERS/selfridgeorig.html.