

# ARITHMETIC PROGRESSIONS IN SUMSETS OF SPARSE SETS

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*Dedicated to the memory of Ron Graham*

## Abstract

A set of positive integers  $A \subset \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$  is *log-sparse* if there is an absolute constant  $C$  so that for any positive integer  $x$  the sequence contains at most  $C$  elements in the interval  $[x, 2x)$ . In this note we study arithmetic progressions in sums of log-sparse subsets of  $\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ . We prove that for any log-sparse subsets  $S_1, \dots, S_n$  of  $\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ , the sumset  $S = S_1 + \dots + S_n$  cannot contain an arithmetic progression of size greater than  $n^{(1+o(1))n}$ . We also show that this is nearly tight by proving that there exist

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log-sparse sets  $S_1, \dots, S_n$  such that  $S_1 + \dots + S_n$  contains an arithmetic progression of size  $n^{(1-o(1))n}$ .

**1. Introduction**

Arithmetic progressions have been one of the favorite research topics of Ron Graham. See [3] for a lecture he has given on the subject. The term “arithmetic progression” appears in the title of seven of his papers, and he has written, with András Hajnal, the proof of Szemerédi’s Theorem on arithmetic progressions in sets of integers of positive upper density [7]. In the present note, dedicated to his memory, we study the maximum possible length of arithmetic progressions in sumsets of very sparse sets.

Waring’s problem, first proven by Hilbert [6], states that there exists a function  $f(k)$  so that any positive integer can be written as the sum of at most  $f(k)$  perfect  $k$ -powers. From a crude heuristic perspective, the density of perfect  $k$ -powers makes this result plausible. As the number of ways to write integers between 1 and  $n$  as sums of  $r$  perfect  $k$ -powers is asymptotically  $\Theta(n^{r/k})$  if  $r$  and  $k$  are fixed, on average one may expect any (large)  $n$  to have some such representation as long as  $r > k$ . However, for many values of  $k$  there are congruence obstructions, so that certain arithmetic progressions cannot be reached by a sum of  $k + 1$   $k$ -th powers. In the literature on Waring’s problem, the worst cases of the congruence obstructions are summarized in a variable  $\Gamma(k)$  and the common belief is that any large  $n$  has a representation provided  $r \geq \max(k + 1, \Gamma(k))$ .

In this note, instead of perfect  $k$ -powers, we consider sums of sets with much lower density. Namely, we consider logarithmically sparse sets, or sets of positive integers where the number of elements less than  $n$  grows as  $\log n$  or slower rather than as a fractional power of  $n$ , and their sumsets. We define a log-sparse set and the sumset of sets formally as follows.

**Definition 1.** A subset  $T$  of  $\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$  is  $(C)$ -log-sparse if for all positive integers  $x$ ,  $|T \cap [x, 2x]| \leq C$ .

**Definition 2.** Given sets  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n \subset \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ , the set  $S = S_1 + S_2 + \dots + S_n$  is the *sumset* of  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n$  if  $S$  is the set of all positive integers  $x$  such that  $x = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$  for some  $x_1 \in S_1, x_2 \in S_2, \dots, x_n \in S_n$ .

We note that the specific constant  $C$  in Definition 1 is not crucial as long as it is at least 2.

Note that it is impossible for all integers to be in the sumset of  $r$  log-sparse sets for any fixed  $r$ , as by a counting argument, such a sumset cannot contain more than  $(O(\log N))^r$  integers below  $N$ . Here we consider the maximum possible length of *arithmetic progressions* in sumsets of such logarithmically sparse sets.

Sizes of arithmetic progressions have been well-studied in various cases. In particular, a well-known result of Szemerédi [7] shows that any subset  $A$  of  $\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$  with positive upper density contains arbitrarily long arithmetic progressions. Even for sparser sets, such as the set of primes, it is known that they contain arbitrarily long arithmetic progressions [5], and a well-known conjecture due to Erdős states that as long as  $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$  satisfies  $\sum \frac{1}{a_i} = \infty$ ,  $A$  contains arbitrarily long arithmetic progressions.

Arithmetic progressions in sumsets have also been studied. Bourgain [1] proved that when  $|A| = \alpha N$  and  $|B| = \beta N$  are subsets of  $[N] = \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ ,  $A + B$  must contain an arithmetic progression of size at least  $\exp(\Omega_{\alpha,\beta}(\log n)^{1/3})$ . Bourgain’s result was subsequently improved by Green [4] and by Croot, Laba, and Sisak [2] to  $A + B$  containing an arithmetic progression of size at least  $\exp(\Omega_{\alpha,\beta}(\log n)^{1/2})$ .

Sumsets of log-sparse sets do not have positive density, but trivially there do exist sparse sets containing arbitrarily long arithmetic progressions, such as the set  $S = \{2^a + b : 1 \leq b \leq a\}$ , which contains the  $k$ -term progression  $2^k + 1, 2^k + 2, \dots, 2^k + k$  for all  $k$ . This set, of course, is not log-sparse. This raises the following question: does there exist an integer  $n$  and  $n$  log-sparse sets  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n$  such that the sumset  $S_1 + S_2 + \dots + S_n$  contains arbitrarily long arithmetic progressions?

In this note we answer this question in the negative, by showing that for all  $n \geq 1$  and all log-sparse sets  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n$ , the maximum possible size of an arithmetic progression in  $S_1 + S_2 + \dots + S_n$  is at most  $n^{(1+o(1))n}$ , where the  $o(1)$  term tends to 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and is independent of the choice of the sets  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n$ . We also establish a nearly matching lower bound, by proving that for all  $n$ , there exist log-sparse sets  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n$  whose sum contains an arithmetic progression of length at least  $n^{(1-o(1))n}$ .

This question is also motivated by the following problem from the 2009 China Team Selection Test: Prove that the set  $\{2^a + 3^b : a, b \geq 0\}$  has no arithmetic progression of length 40. Note that this set can be written as the sum of two log-sparse sets: the set of powers of 2 and the set of powers of 3, so a direct corollary of our upper bound is that the longest arithmetic progression in  $\{2^a + 3^b : a, b \geq 0\}$  is bounded.

Throughout this note,  $\log(n)$  always denotes  $\log_2(n)$ , and  $[n]$  denotes the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  of the first  $n$  positive integers.

## 2. The Upper Bound

In this section, we prove an upper bound on the size of the longest arithmetic progression in the sumset of  $n$  log-sparse sets.

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $S_1, \dots, S_n$  be  $C$ -log-sparse sets, for any fixed  $C > 0$ , and let  $T$  be any arithmetic progression in  $S = S_1 + \dots + S_n$ . Then  $|T| \leq n^{(1+O(\lg \lg n / \lg n))n}$ .*

*Proof.* For any  $x \in T$ , we fix a representation  $x = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$ . We will bound the number of elements in  $T$  by finding an efficient encoding for an arbitrary  $x \in T$ . To this end, let  $\Delta := \max_{y \in T} y - \min_{y \in T} y$  and let  $\delta$  be the step-length in  $T$  (i.e.  $\delta := \Delta/(|T| - 1)$ ). For the fixed representation  $x = x_1 + \dots + x_n$  for any  $x \in T$ , we say that  $x_i$  is large if  $x_i > \Delta$ , small if  $x_i < \delta/2n$ , and medium otherwise. Observe that as the sum of all small terms is less than  $\delta/2$ ,  $x \in T$  is uniquely determined by the values of all its large and medium terms.

We can encode an arbitrary  $x \in T$  as follows. First we choose which terms are large, medium and small. There are at most  $3^n$  choices for this. Let  $a, b$  and  $c$  denote the chosen number of terms of each respective type.

For the  $a$  large terms, we first choose their internal order from largest to smallest, and then choose the value of each of these terms in decreasing order. We claim that having fixed the order, there are at most  $O(\log n)$  choices for each term. To see this, we may, without loss of generality, assume that the large terms and internal order are given by  $x_1 \geq x_2 \geq \dots \geq x_a$ . Having already chosen  $x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}$  where  $i \leq a$ , we let

$$M := \max_{y \in T} y - x_1 + \dots + x_{i-1}.$$

Clearly we must choose  $x_i \leq M$ . On the other hand, we must also have

$$x_1 + \dots + x_{i-1} + n \cdot x_i \geq \min_{y \in T} y.$$

Rewriting this, using the definition of  $\Delta$ , we get  $n \cdot x_i + \Delta \geq M$ . Since  $x_i \geq \Delta$  we can conclude that  $(n + 1)x_i \geq M$  and so any valid choice for  $x_i$  is contained in  $S_i \cap [M/(n + 1), M]$ . Thus by log-sparseness there are at most  $O(\log n)$  options, as desired. So in total, we have  $O(n \log n)^a$  choices for the large terms.

For each medium term  $x_i$ , we know that it is contained in  $S_i \cap [\delta/2n, \Delta]$ , where the lower and upper bounds differ by a factor  $2n(|T| - 1)$ . Thus again by log-sparseness, there are at most  $O(\log n + \log |T|)$  options for each. So in total  $O(\log n + \log |T|)^b$  possibilities.

Combining this, we conclude that

$$|T| \leq 3^n \cdot O(\max(n \log n, \log n + \log |T|))^n = O(n \log n + \log |T|)^n.$$

But this cannot hold if  $|T|$  is too large. Assuming  $|T| = (nf(n))^n$  where  $f(n) \geq 1$  yields  $f(n) \leq O(\log n + \log f(n))$ , which implies that  $f(n) = O(\log n)$ , or

$$|T| \leq n^{n(1 + \lg \lg n / \lg n + O(1/\lg n))},$$

as desired. □

### 3. The Lower Bound

In this section we provide a probabilistic construction of  $n$  log-sparse sets whose sumset contains an arithmetic progression of length  $n^{(1-o(1))n}$ .

**Theorem 2.** *For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is some positive  $n_0 = n_0(\varepsilon)$  so that for all  $n \geq n_0(\varepsilon)$ , there exists log-sparse  $S_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$  so that the sumset  $S = S_1 + S_2 + \dots + S_n$  contains an arithmetic progression of length at least  $n^{(1-\varepsilon)^2n}$ .*

*Proof.* Begin by splitting the integers from 0 to  $(1 - \varepsilon)^2n \log n - 1$  into  $(1 - \varepsilon)n$  blocks of  $(1 - \varepsilon) \log n$  consecutive integers. Denote the blocks as  $b_1, \dots, b_m$ , where  $m = (1 - \varepsilon)n$ , so

$$b_i = \{(i - 1)(1 - \varepsilon) \log n, (i - 1)(1 - \varepsilon) \log n + 1, \dots, i(1 - \varepsilon) \log n - 1\}.$$

For each  $i \leq m$ , let  $B_i$  be the set of all positive integers which are sums of distinct powers of 2 with exponents in  $b_i$ . Then,  $|B_i| = 2^{(1-\varepsilon) \log n} - 1 = n^{1-\varepsilon} - 1$ . Furthermore, every integer from 0 to  $2^{(1-\varepsilon)^2n \log n} - 1 = n^{(1-\varepsilon)^2n} - 1$  can be uniquely written as the sum of at most one element from each  $B_i$ , by just looking at the integer's binary representation and splitting it into blocks of size  $(1 - \varepsilon) \log n$ .

We first create sets  $S_1, \dots, S_n$ , each of size  $m + 1 = (1 - \varepsilon)n + 1$ . For each  $1 \leq i \leq m$  and each  $1 \leq j \leq n$ , we uniformly at random choose one element in  $B_i$  to be in  $S_j$ . Also, allow each  $S_j$  to contain 0. This is not important since at the end we can shift all the elements of each  $S_i$  up by 1, and clearly there are at most 2 elements in  $[x, n^{1-\varepsilon}x] \supset [x, 2x]$  for each integer  $x$ , both before and after the shift. Therefore, we have that each  $S_i$  is log-sparse.

We show that with positive probability,  $[0, 2^{(1-\varepsilon)^2n \log n}] \subset S$ , which clearly concludes the proof. For an integer  $0 \leq a < 2^{(1-\varepsilon)^2n \log n}$ , write  $a$  as  $x_1 + \dots + x_m$ , where  $x_i \in B_i \cup \{0\}$ . Consider a bipartite graph  $G$  with nodes  $x_1, \dots, x_m$  and  $S_1, \dots, S_n$  such that there is an edge from  $x_i$  to  $S_j$  if and only if  $x_i \in S_j$ . Then, suppose that for any  $k \leq m$  and  $1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_k \leq m$ , there exist  $k$  integers  $1 \leq j_1 < \dots < j_k \leq n$  such that  $S_{j_r}$  contains some  $x_{i_t}$  for all  $r \leq k$ . This implies that for any subset  $\{x_{i_1}, \dots, x_{i_k}\}$ , the total number of  $S_j$ 's that some  $x_{i_t}$  is connected to in  $G$  is at least  $k$ . Therefore, by Hall's marriage theorem, there is some matching from  $x_1, \dots, x_m$  to  $S_1, \dots, S_n$ , i.e., there is a permutation  $\sigma : [m] \rightarrow [n]$  such that  $x_i \in S_{\sigma(i)}$  for all  $i \leq m$ , and thus,  $a = x_1 + \dots + x_m \in S_1 + \dots + S_n$ .

Therefore, it suffices to show that the probability of there existing some  $1 \leq k \leq m$ , some subset  $\{B_{i_1}, \dots, B_{i_k}\} \subset \{B_1, \dots, B_m\}$ , some  $x_{i_1} \in B_{i_1}, \dots, x_{i_k} \in B_{i_k}$ , and some  $\{S_{j_1}, \dots, S_{j_{n-k+1}}\} \subset \{S_1, \dots, S_n\}$  such that no  $x_{i_t}$  is contained in any  $S_{j_r}$ , is less than 1. This follows from the union bound. We can upper bound the probability by at most

$$\sum_{k=1}^m \binom{m}{k} \cdot (n^{1-\varepsilon})^k \cdot \binom{n}{n-k+1} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^{1-\varepsilon}}\right)^{k(n-k+1)}$$

The  $\binom{m}{k}$  comes from choosing the subset  $\{B_{i_1}, \dots, B_{i_k}\}$ , the  $(n^{1-\varepsilon})^k$  comes from choosing each  $x_{i_r}$ , the  $\binom{n}{n-k+1}$  comes from choosing the  $S_{j_t}$ 's and the  $(1 - \frac{1}{n^{1-\varepsilon}})^{k(n-k+1)}$  is the probability that every  $S_{j_r}$  does not contain any  $x_{i_t}$ .

Now, using the fact that  $\binom{m}{k} \leq m^k \leq n^k$  and  $\binom{n}{n-k+1} \leq n^{k-1} \leq n^k$ , this sum is at most

$$\sum_{k=1}^m \left( n^2 \cdot n^{1-\varepsilon} \cdot \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n^{1-\varepsilon}} \right)^{n-k+1} \right)^k.$$

But since  $k \leq (1 - \varepsilon)n$ , we know that  $n - k + 1 \geq \varepsilon n$ , so this sum is at most

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^m \left( n^2 \cdot n^{1-\varepsilon} \cdot \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n^{1-\varepsilon}} \right)^{\varepsilon n} \right)^k &\leq \sum_{k=1}^m \left( n^2 \cdot n^{1-\varepsilon} \cdot e^{-\varepsilon n^\varepsilon} \right)^k \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( n^3 \cdot e^{-\varepsilon n^\varepsilon} \right)^k < 1, \end{aligned}$$

assuming  $n$  is sufficiently large. This concludes the proof. □

#### 4. Explicit construction

The proof of the lower bound above is probabilistic. It is not difficult to derandomize this proof and give an explicit construction containing a progression of length  $2^{\Omega(n \log n)}$  using quadratic polynomials over a finite field. The construction is described in what follows. It is possible to use other known explicit bipartite graphs known as condensers to get similar constructions, but the one below is probably the simplest to describe. See, e.g., [8] and its references for some more sophisticated constructions of condensers.

Let  $F = F_q$  be the finite field of size  $q$ . Define a bipartite graph  $G = G_q$  with classes of vertices  $A$  and  $B$  as follows.  $A = F \times F$  is simply the cartesian product of  $F$  with itself.  $B$  is the disjoint union of  $q^2$  sets  $B_{a,b}$  with  $a, b \in F$ . Each set  $B_{a,b}$  consists of the  $q$  polynomials  $P_{a,b,c}(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$  where  $c$  ranges over all elements of  $F$ . Each vertex  $P = P_{a,b,c} \in B$  is connected to all vertices  $(x, P(x)) \in A$ . Therefore, the degree of each vertex in  $B$  is exactly  $q$ . Note that for every fixed  $a, b$ , the sets of neighbors of the  $q$  vertices  $P_{a,b,c}$  as  $c$  ranges over all elements of  $F$  are pairwise disjoint, and each vertex of  $A$  is connected to exactly one of them.

**Proposition 1.** *Let  $G = G_q$ ,  $A$  and  $B$  be as above. Then for every  $x \leq q^2/4$ , every set of at most  $x$  vertices of  $B$  has at least  $x$  neighbors in  $A$ . Therefore, for each such subset of  $x$  vertices in  $B$  there is a matching in  $G$  saturating it, i.e., each vertex in the subset of  $B$  is matched.*

*Proof.* Every two vertices of  $B$  have at most 2 common neighbors in  $A$ , since any two distinct quadratic polynomials can be equal on at most 2 points. Therefore, if

$x \leq (q+1)/2$  then for every set  $X \subset B$  of size  $|X| = x$ , the number of its neighbors in  $A$  is at least

$$q + (q-2) + (q-4) + \dots + (q-2x+2) = x(q-x+1).$$

This is (much) larger than  $x$  for all  $x \leq (q+1)/2$ . For  $x = \lfloor (q+1)/2 \rfloor$  this number exceeds  $q^2/4$ , implying that every set of at least  $\lfloor (q+1)/2 \rfloor$  vertices of  $B$  has more than  $q^2/4$  neighbors, completing the proof.  $\square$

Returning to our sumset problem, put  $n = q^2$ . Split the integers in  $[0, q^2 \log q/4]$  into  $q^2/4$  blocks, each of size  $\log_2 q$ . Each set  $S_i$  contains, as in the probabilistic proof, the integer 0 and one sum of the powers of 2 corresponding to each block. The assignment is determined by the induced subgraph of the graph  $G_q$  described above on the classes of vertices  $A$  and the union of some  $q^2/4$  subsets  $B_{a,b}$ . The proposition ensures that  $S_1 + \dots + S_n$  contains all integers from 0 to  $2^{q^2 \log q/4} = 2^{n \log n/8}$ .

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