

# Sets with Few Subset Sums

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These are notes for the LIMDA seminar at UPC, Barcelona (50 min blackboard talk).

I'm presenting joint work with Colin Defant and Noah Kravitz. I met them at the Duluth REU last summer as a student. Colin (Harvard) is a co-director of the program and Noah (current postdoc at Oxford) is an advisor. The paper I'm discussing is on arxiv with the same title <https://arxiv.org/abs/2605.05498>

Thanks Juanjo for inviting me!

## §1 Intro (setup and additive combinatorics)

Let's jump in! In any abelian group we can make the following definitions.

**Definition 1.1.** Given a set  $A$ , its **sumset** is

$$A + A := \{a_1 + a_2 : a_1, a_2 \in A\}$$

and its set of **subset sums** is

$$\text{FS}(A) := \left\{ \sum_{a \in B} a : B \subseteq A \text{ finite} \right\}.$$

Motivation: these objects appear in many different areas of math.

- NT: Goldbach's conjecture asks  $\mathbb{P} + \mathbb{P} \stackrel{?}{=} 2\mathbb{Z}$ .
- Geo: Let  $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  have volume 1. Brunn-Minkowski lower bounds  $\text{vol}(A + B)$ .
- Probability: Let  $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ . Define the random variable

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i a_i, \quad X_i \sim \{0, 1\} \text{ i.i.d.}$$

Here  $\text{supp}(X) = \text{FS}(A)$ . The classic Littlewood-Offord problem asks about the concentration properties of  $X$  (will discuss more later).

Let's get some intuition for what they measure.

### Example 1.2

Let  $A = [n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$ . Then:

- $A + A = \{2, 3, \dots, 2n\}$  has size  $2n - 1$ .
- $\text{FS}(A) = \{0, 1, \dots, n(n+1)/2\}$  has size  $\frac{1}{2}n(n+1) + 1$ .

**Example 1.3**

Let  $A = \{1, 2, 2^2, \dots, 2^{n-1}\}$ . Then  $|A + A| = \binom{n}{2} + n$  and  $|\text{FS}(A)| = 2^n$ .

Intuitively, the scale of these quantities measures the structure of  $A$ .

¶ **Warm-up bounds.** Let  $A = \{a_1 < \dots < a_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}_+$ .

**Claim 1.4** (Example 1.2 is extremal) — We have:

1.  $|A + A| \geq 2|A| - 1$  (in particular,  $\Omega(|A|)$ ).
2.  $|\text{FS}(A)| \geq \frac{1}{2}|A|(|A| + 1) + 1$  (in particular,  $\Omega(|A|^2)$ ).

*Proof.* For both, induct on  $|A|$ : consider adding  $a_{n+1} > \max A$ .

1. We get at least two new elements:  $a_{n+1} + a_n < a_{n+1} + a_{n+1}$ .
2. Key observation: each residue class  $\text{FS}(A) \pmod{a_{n+1}}$  gives a new element in  $\text{FS}(A \cup \{a_{n+1}\})$ . And we have at least  $n + 1$  residue classes, namely  $0, a_1, \dots, a_n$ .

(The proof of (2) anticipates ideas that will show up in the proof of Theorem 2.2!) □

Finding equality cases is an easy exercise. But here’s a more interesting question – what if you’re “close” to the minimum? If  $|A + A| \leq 10|A|$ , must  $A$  “look like” an AP?

¶ **Inverse Theorems.** If  $|A + A| \leq C|A|$ , then  $A$  has **doubling constant**  $C$ .

- It can be a subset of an AP of length  $O_C(n)$  (looks like an AP).
- A “random” element increases  $|A + A|$  by  $O_C(n)$ , so we can have  $O_C(1)$  of them.
- There are “higher dimensional” examples too!

There are “higher dimensional” examples too! Let’s make an important definition.

**Definition 1.5.** A **generalized arithmetic progression (GAP)** is a set of the form

$$Q := \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^r \lambda_j x_j : x_j \in [s_j] \right\}.$$

Vocabulary: We say  $r$  is the **rank**. We call  $\lambda_j$  the *generators* and  $s_j$  the *sides*. It is *proper* if  $|Q| = \prod_j |I_j|$  (The size of additive relations between  $\lambda_j$  determine how far it is from being proper – this is a very important idea that will show up later).

A proper GAP of rank  $r$  has doubling at most  $2^r$ , so small doubling! It turns out that these are really the only examples, as the following celebrated result shows.

**Theorem 1.6** (Freiman-Rusza, 1973)

Suppose  $|A + A| \leq C|A|$ . Then there exists a GAP  $Q \supseteq A$  with  $|Q| = O_C(|A|)$ .

This reflects a central theme in additive combinatorics: sets with small doubling have constrained structure.

What about subset sums? What can a set with  $|\text{FS}(A)| \leq C|A|^2$  look like?

Arbitrary GAPs don't work! For instance, using notation from above

$$\text{FS}(Q) = \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^r \lambda_j x_j : 0 \leq x_j \leq n \cdot s_j \right\}.$$

If the  $\{\lambda_j\}$  are generic (i.e. there are no “small” relations between them), then all the values in the LHS will be different, yielding  $|\text{FS}(Q)| = \prod_j n s_j \asymp n^{d+1}$ . So “the number of subset sums seems to grow with the dimension of the set”. This will be a key theme today, that we'll make more precise later.

In our paper we prove the following characterisation.

**Theorem 1.7** (C.-Defant-Kravitz, 2026)

Suppose that  $|\text{FS}(A)| \leq Cn^2$ . Then it must be the case that  $A = r \cdot Z \cup R$ , where:

- $Z \subset \mathbb{Z}_+$  has sum  $\sum_{z \in Z} z = O_C(n^2)$ ;
- $R \subset \mathbb{R}_+$  has  $O_C(1)$  elements.

This is tight up to a constant: all such sets have  $O_C(|A|^2)$  subset sums.

**§1.1 Relation to Inverse Littlewood-Offord Theory (could skip?)**

To give some more background on related literature... questions related to subset sums have often been studied in the context of Littlewood-Offord theory. Recalling the RV  $X$  from the introduction, one way to measure its concentration is via

$$\rho(A) := \sup_x \mathbb{P}[X = x].$$

Clearly  $|\text{FS}(A)| \cdot \rho(A) \geq 1$ . There exist inverse theorems for when  $\rho(A)$  is polynomially large (i.e.  $|\text{FS}(A)|$  is polynomially small).

**Theorem 1.8** (Tao-Vu, 2011)

Let  $e > 0$ . If  $\rho(A) \geq n^{-e}$ , there must be a proper symmetric GAP  $Q$  of rank  $r = O_e(1)$  that contains  $(1 - o(1))$  of  $A$  and has size  $|Q| = n^{O_e(1)}$ .

*Proof.* I'll just mention they use Fourier methods. □

Compare this to our theorem: we start with a stronger assumption, and accordingly get a stronger result. Indeed, we can see that  $\rho(A)$  is stronger by considering the equality cases  $A = \{1, \dots, n\}$ . Then  $\rho(A) = O(n^{-3/2})$  (here is an extra  $1/\sqrt{n}$  because in the equality case the distribution has the shape of a Gaussian). Also, there are sets with  $\rho(A) \gg n^{-2}$  that don't have  $|\text{FS}(A)| \ll n^2$ . So its not clear how to use conclusions about  $\rho(A)$  to solve our inverse problem about  $|\text{FS}(A)|$ .

## §2 Sketch Proof of Theorem 1.7

Through this sketch we will get to our second main result, which is of similar importance. We begin by finding a piece of local structure. Uses a “pigeonholing argument”.

**Claim 2.1** — If  $|\text{FS}(A)| \leq Cn^2$ , then there is  $B \subseteq A$  with  $|B| \gg_C |A|$  and

$$|B + B| \ll_C |B|.$$

*Proof Sketch.* Adding  $a_{i+1}$  to  $A(i) = \{a_1, \dots, a_i\}$  introduces at least  $|A(i) \hat{+} A(i)|/2$  new elements. But usually we have  $O(i)$  new elements, giving the bound.  $\square$

By Freiman-Rusza, we immediately get a proper GAP  $Q \supseteq B$  with  $|Q| \ll |B| \ll n$ .<sup>1</sup> We therefore want to think of  $B$  as a higher dimensional set. Formally, consider the projection  $\pi_\lambda : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  sending  $(x_1, \dots, x_d) \mapsto \lambda_1 x_1 + \dots + \lambda_d x_d$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_\lambda : \tilde{Q} = [s_1] \times \dots \times [s_d] &\mapsto Q \\ \tilde{B} &\rightarrow B \\ \text{FS}(\tilde{B}) &\mapsto \text{FS}(B) \end{aligned}$$

We want to use  $\text{FS}(\tilde{B})$  as a proxy for  $\text{FS}(B)$ . Heuristic: The only way  $\text{FS}(\tilde{B})$  collapses to a very small set (size  $O_C(n^2)$ ) is if there are many additive relations between  $\{\lambda_j\}$ .

So our plan (leave on board if possible) is:

1. Expansion: Show  $\text{FS}(\tilde{B})$  is large.
2. Rank-Reduction: Quantify “ $\pi_\lambda$  non-injective means small additive relations”.

Conclude there is  $r \in \mathbb{R}_+$  such that  $r^{-1} \cdot (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d) \in (\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\})^r$  with  $r^{-1} \lambda_j \ll_C \frac{n}{s_j}$ . Hence  $B \subseteq r \cdot \{0, 1, \dots, m\}$  where  $m \leq \sum_j r^{-1} \lambda_j \cdot s_j = O_c(n)$ .

3. Endgame: Extend conclusion to  $A \setminus B$ .

Conceptually, the first step is our main contribution to understanding subset sums.

**¶ Step 1: Expansion (in higher dimensions)** Here we discuss a question of independent interest that will end up being a main tool in our proof.

In  $\mathbb{R}$  we always have  $|\text{FS}(A)| \gg n^2$ . How about in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ? This question is boring if we let  $A$  be inside a line  $\mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ . Yet, we saw before that a “properly  $d$  dimensional” GAP has  $\Omega(n^{d+1})$  subset sums. How do we make the question meaningful?

One possibility is saying  $A$  isn’t concentrated in any proper linear subspace.

**Theorem 2.2 (C.-Defant-Kravitz, 2026)**

Let  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$ . Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  be an  $n$ -element set. If no proper subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  contains more than  $(1 - \varepsilon)n$  elements of  $A$ , then  $|\text{FS}(A)| \gg_{d,\varepsilon} |A|^{d+1}$ .

A more “stability-flavored” phrasing is: if  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  is an  $n$ -element set with  $|\text{FS}(A)| = o(n^{d+1})$ , then some codimension-1 subspace contains  $(1 - o(1))n$  elements of  $A$ .

There are several interesting families of examples saturating this statement:

<sup>1</sup>This is already a stronger conclusion than Tao-Vu ILw-O.

- Let  $n_1, \dots, n_d$  be positive integers with  $n_1 \cdots n_d \asymp n$  and consider the  $\theta(n)$  element set  $A \subseteq [0, n_1] \times \cdots \times [0, n_d]$ . Then

$$\text{FS}(A) \subseteq [0, nn_1] \times \cdots \times [0, nn_d]$$

has size at most  $(1 + nn_1) \cdots (1 + nn_d) \ll n^d n_1 \cdots n_d \ll n^{d+1}$ .

- E.g in  $d = 2$  take  $[n] \times \{1\}$  (this is just a concrete instance of above).

Moreover, it is tight in a precise sense (almost all on  $x$  axis,  $o(n)$  points away).

*Proof of Theorem 2.2.* This is much harder than  $d = 1$ ! Naively, following the footsteps from  $d = 2$  imagine inserting  $a_{n+1}$ . Before we cared about the number of values of  $\text{FS}(A) \pmod{a_{n+1}}$ . The natural analogue is to care about the number of values under a different projection, namely

$$\pi_{a_{n+1}} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow a_{n+1}^\perp \cong \mathbb{R}^{d-1}.$$

We would like the projection  $\pi_{a_{n+1}}(\text{FS}(A))$  to have many elements. Turns out this doesn't quite work.

But we can fix it by adding two elements  $a_{n+1}, a_{n+2}$ , with ideas of the same flavor—the proof is really fun and I encourage you to read the paper if you are curious!  $\square$

Back to our setting! If  $B$  is “properly  $d$  dimensional”, then  $|\text{FS}(\tilde{B})|$  is large.

Else, we can throw out some elements of  $B$  and restrict to the (possibly slanted) subspace where it is concentrated. Keep going until we eventually find its true dimension! Every time we throw out dimensions we need to make a change of coordinates to our generators. This can be bad, because we want the bounding box to have size  $\ll n$  (draw example). To choose good coordinates we need to invoke technical lemmas (e.g. discrete John's ellipsoid) – I won't go into details, but want to mention it is annoying :p

Hence, WLOG  $B$  is dense in the proper GAP of rank  $d$ , and  $|\text{FS}(\tilde{B})| \gg n^{d+1}$ .

**¶ Step 2: Rank Reduction** So, the projection  $\pi_\lambda$  has to be “very non-injective”:

$$\max_c |\pi_\lambda^{-1}(c) \cap \text{FS}(\tilde{B})| \geq \frac{|\text{FS}(\tilde{B})|}{|\text{FS}(B)|} \gg \frac{n^{d+1}}{Cn^2} \asymp_C n^{d-1}.$$

Instead of working inside  $\text{FS}(\tilde{B})$ , lets make our life easier by working inside a box that contains it:

$$\text{FS}(\tilde{B}) \subseteq n \cdot \tilde{Q} = I_1 \times \cdots \times I_d, \quad I_j := [0, ns_j].$$

Then, there is some  $c$  for which

$$\pi_\lambda^{-1}(c) \cap (I_1 \times \cdots \times I_d) = \left\{ (x_1, \dots, x_d) \in I_1 \times \cdots \times I_d : \sum \lambda_j x_j = c \right\}$$

is very large. We want to say that if there are many solutions inside a small box, then there are many additive relations between the generators. This is the most involved part of the argument and occupies a large part of our paper.

**Example 2.3** ( $d = 2$ )

This is very easy and concrete in two dimensions!

Here  $A \subseteq Q = \{x_1 t_1 + x_2 t_2 : x_i \in [s_i]\}$  has  $\text{FS}(A) \leq Cn^2$ . We aim to show that there is  $r$ . So there is a fiber  $x_1 t_1 + x_2 t_2 = c$  with  $\gg n$  solutions in  $I_1 \times I_2$ .

- If  $t_1/t_2 \notin \mathbb{Q}$  the fiber can have at most one solution. Not the case!
- Hence we can scale to  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$  which are coprime. Then the solutions  $(x_1, x_2)$  to this equation differ by integer multiples of  $(\lambda_2, -\lambda_1)$ . So  $x_i \in I_i$  gives

$$|\pi^{-1}(c) \cap (I_1 \times I_2)| \leq \min \left\{ \frac{|I_1|}{|\lambda_2|}, \frac{|I_2|}{|\lambda_1|} \right\} = \frac{|I_1| \cdot |I_2|}{\max\{|\lambda_1| \cdot |I_1|, |\lambda_2| \cdot |I_2|\}}.$$

Because  $|I_1| \cdot |I_2| \ll n$  we get  $\max |\lambda_j| \cdot |I_j|$ , as we wanted!

In higher dimensions two steps become much harder:

- Proving that  $(t_1, \dots, t_r)$  is a scalar multiple of an integer vector  $(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r)$
- Subsequently obtaining the  $\max_j \{|\lambda_j| \cdot |I_j|\}$  savings in the fiber bound.

We heavily used that we can “spell out” the relations between  $\lambda$  as being precisely  $\langle (\lambda_2, -\lambda_1) \rangle$ . In general we have up to  $d - 1$  independent “relations” which span everything, and it is harder to bound what combinations of them stay in the box.

(Perhaps I be concrete and find the basis for  $6x + 10y + 15z = 0$  or so)

Overcoming this constitutes a large technical bulk from our paper, which I won’t go into detail here. We prove the following lemma, which does most of the heavy lifting for us.

**Lemma 2.4** (Lemma 4.5 in our paper)

Let  $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d) \in (\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\})^d$ , and  $I_1, \dots, I_r \subset \mathbb{Z}$  be intervals. Define  $\pi_\lambda : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as above. Let  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  be any real number. Then:

1. If  $\dim \pi_\lambda^{-1}(c) = d - 1$ , and  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $\gcd\{\lambda_j\} = 1$ , then

$$|\pi_\lambda^{-1}(c) \cap (I_1 \times \dots \times I_d)| \ll_d \frac{|I_1| \cdots |I_d|}{\max_j (|\lambda_j| \cdot |I_j|)}.$$

2. If  $\dim \pi_\lambda^{-1}(c) < d - 1$ , then

$$|\pi_\lambda^{-1}(c) \cap (I_1 \times \dots \times I_d)| \leq \frac{|I_1| \cdots |I_d|}{\max_j |I_j| \cdot \min_j |I_j|}.$$

*Proof.* The main tools come from the “geometry of numbers” – the details are spelled out in the paper.

(Maybe I’ll say that: morally, the denominator bound should be  $\text{vol}(I_1 \times I_d)/\text{covol}(\Lambda) + o(1)$ ... but the error term is really hard to handle, and saving this requires theory).  $\square$

We can now implement the logic from  $d = 2$ :

- We rule out the case that  $\dim \pi^{-1}(c) < d - 1$ . Indeed, using case (2) of 2.4 gives

$$n^{d-1} \ll_C \max_c |\pi_\lambda^{-1}(c) \cap (I_1 \times \dots \times I_d)| \ll_C \frac{|I_1| \cdots |I_d|}{\max_j |I_j| \cdot \min_j |I_j|}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\ll \frac{n^d \cdot s_1 \cdots s_d}{\underbrace{\max_j |ns_j|}_{\gg n \cdot n^{1/d}} \cdot \underbrace{\min_j |ns_j|}_{\geq n}} \\ &\ll_C \frac{n^{d+1}}{n \cdot n^{1/d} \cdot n} = n^{d-1-\frac{1}{d}}, \end{aligned}$$

contradiction.

- So  $\dim \pi^{-1}(c) = d-1$ . This means there is  $r \in \mathbb{R}^+$  with  $r^{-1}\lambda_j \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\gcd\{\lambda_j\} = 1$ . Then case (1) of 2.4 gives  $\max_j\{|\lambda_j| \cdot |I_j|\} \ll_C n$  and we are done!

Altogether, we deduce that  $B = \pi(\widetilde{B})$  is contained in a homogeneous arithmetic progression of length  $O_C(n)$ .

**¶ Step 3: Endgame.** Given that  $B$  looks like an AP, what does that tell us about  $A$ ? This step is hands-on combinatorial analysis – the details are in the paper.

(Maybe I can say that we use the fact that  $\text{FS}(B)$  is a dense ( $\Omega_C(1)$ -fraction) subset of an interval of length  $\Theta_C(n^2)$  and hence  $\text{FS}(A) = \text{FS}(A \setminus B) + \text{FS}(B)$  cannot contain too many disjoint translates of  $\text{FS}(B)$ ).

This concludes the proof of Theorem 1.7!

### §3 Further Directions and Related Problems

- One of the main takeaways of the paper is that “higher dimensional” sets have faster subset sum expansion.

What happens if we enforce a stricter condition that “not concentrated in a subspace”? An alternative leads to an open problem.

**Conjecture 3.1.** Let  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ . If any  $d$  elements form a basis,  $|\text{FS}(A)| \gg |A|^{2d-1}$ .

The best construction we found is the moment curve  $\{(1, i, i^2, \dots, i^{d-1}) : i \in [n]\}$  taken modulo some prime  $p \asymp n$ . Can we improve this?

- What inverse theorems can we say about sets  $A$  with  $|\text{FS}(A)| \leq n^{2.01}$  or  $|\text{FS}(A)| \leq n^3$ ? How do higher-rank generalized arithmetic progressions change the picture?

Thank you for following along! :-)