## Subset sums modulo a prime

by
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1. Introduction. Let $G$ be an additive group and $A$ be a subset of $G$. We denote by $\sum(A)$ the collection of subset sums of $A$ :

$$
\sum(A)=\left\{\sum_{x \in B} x|B \subset A,|B|<\infty\}\right.
$$

The following two questions are among the most popular questions in additive combinatorics:

Question 1.1. When $0 \in \sum(A)$ ?
Question 1.2. When $\sum(A)=G$ ?
If $\sum(A)$ does not contain the zero element, we say that $A$ is zero-sumfree. If $\sum(A)=G\left(\sum(A) \neq G\right)$, then we say that $A$ is complete (incomplete).

In this paper, we focus on the case $G=\mathbb{Z}_{p}$, the cyclic group of order $p$, where $p$ is a large prime. The asymptotic notation will be used under the assumption that $p \rightarrow \infty$. For $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{p},\|x\|$ (the norm of $x$ ) is the distance from $x$ to 0 . (For example, the norm of $p-1$ is 1 .) All logarithms have natural base and $[a, b]$ denotes the set of integers between $a$ and $b$.
1.3. A sharp bound on the maximum cardinality of a zero-sum-free set. How big can a zero-sum-free set be? This question was raised by Erdős and Heilbronn [4] in 1964. In [8], Szemerédi proved the following.

ThEOREM 1.4. There is a positive constant $c$ such that if $A \subset \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ and $|A| \geq c p^{1 / 2}$, then $0 \in \sum(A)$.

A result of Olson [7] implies that one can set $c=2$. More than a quarter of century later, Hamidoune and Zémor [5] showed that one can set $c=$ $\sqrt{2}+o(1)$, which is asymptotically tight.

[^0]Theorem 1.5. If $A \subset \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ and $|A| \geq(2 p)^{1 / 2}+5 \log p$, then $0 \in \sum(A)$.
Our first result removes the logarithmic term in Theorem 1.5, giving the best possible bound (for all sufficiently large $p$ ). Let $n(p)$ denote the largest integer such that $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i<p$.

Theorem 1.6. There is a constant $C$ such that the following holds for all prime $p \geq C$.

- If $p \neq n(p)(n(p)+1) / 2-1$, and $A$ is a subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ with $n(p)$ elements, then $0 \in \sum(A)$.
- If $p=n(p)(n(p)+1) / 2-1$, and $A$ is a subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ with $n(p)+1$ elements, then $0 \in \sum(A)$. Furthermore, up to a dilation, the only zero-sum-free set with $n(p)$ elements is $\{-2,1,3,4, \ldots, n(p)\}$.

To see that the bound in the first case is sharp, consider $A=$ $\{1, \ldots, n(p)-1\}$.
1.7. The structure of zero-sum-free sets with cardinality close to maximum. Theorem 1.6 does not provide information about zero-sum-free sets of size slightly smaller than $n(p)$. The archetypical example for a zero-sum-free set is a set whose sum of elements (as positive integers between 1 and $p-1$ ) is less than $p$. The general phenomenon we would like to support here is that a zero-sum-free set with sufficiently large cardinality should be close to such a set. In [1], Deshouillers showed the following.

Theorem 1.8. Let $A$ be a zero-sum-free subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ of size at least $p^{1 / 2}$. Then there is some non-zero element $b \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ such that

$$
\sum_{a \in b A, a<p / 2}\|a\| \leq p+O\left(p^{3 / 4} \log p\right)
$$

and

$$
\sum_{a \in b A, a>p / 2}\|a\|=O\left(p^{3 / 4} \log p\right) .
$$

The main issue here is the magnitude of the error term. In the same paper, there is a construction of a zero-sum-free set with $c p^{1 / 2}$ elements ( $c>1$ ) where

$$
\sum_{a \in b A, a<p / 2}\|a\|=p+\Omega\left(p^{1 / 2}\right), \quad \sum_{a \in b A, a>p / 2}\|a\|=\Omega\left(p^{1 / 2}\right) .
$$

It is conjectured [1] that $p^{1 / 2}$ is the right order of magnitude of the error term. Here we confirm this conjecture, assuming that $|A|$ is sufficiently close to the upper bound.

TheOrem 1.9. Let $A$ be a zero-sum-free subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ of size at least $.99 n(p)$. Then there is some non-zero element $b \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ such that

$$
\sum_{a \in b A, a<p / 2}\|a\| \leq p+O\left(p^{1 / 2}\right), \quad \sum_{a \in b A, a>p / 2}\|a\|=O\left(p^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

The constant .99 is ad hoc and can be improved. However, we do not elaborate on this point.
1.10. Complete sets. All questions concerning zero-sum-free sets are also natural for incomplete sets. Here is a well-known result of Olson [7].

THEOREM 1.11. Let $A$ be a subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ of more than $(4 p-3)^{1 / 2}$ elements. Then $A$ is complete.

Olson's bound is essentially sharp. To see this, observe that if the sum of the norms of the elements of $A$ is less than $p$, then $A$ is incomplete. Let $m(p)$ be the largest cardinality of a small set. One can easily verify that $m(p)=2 p^{1 / 2}+O(1)$. We now want to study the structure of incomplete sets of size close to $2 p^{1 / 2}$. Deshouillers and Freiman [3] proved the following.

THEOREM 1.12. Let $A$ be an incomplete subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ of size at least $(2 p)^{1 / 2}$. Then there is some non-zero element $b \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ such that

$$
\sum_{a \in b A}\|a\| \leq p+O\left(p^{3 / 4} \log p\right)
$$

Similarly to the situation with Theorem 1.8 , it is conjectured that the right error term has order $p^{1 / 2}$ (see [2] for a construction that matches this bound from below). We establish this conjecture for sufficiently large $A$.

Theorem 1.13. Let $A$ be an incomplete subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ of size at least $1.99 p^{1 / 2}$. Then there is some non-zero element $b \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ such that

$$
\sum_{a \in b A}\|a\| \leq p+O\left(p^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

Added in proof. While this paper was written, Deshouillers informed us that he and Prakash have obtained a result similar to Theorem 1.6.
2. Main lemmas. The main tools in our proofs are the following results from [9].

Theorem 2.1. Let $A$ be a zero-free-sum subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$. Then we can partition $A$ into two disjoint sets $A^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime \prime}$ where

- $A^{\prime}$ has negligible cardinality: $\left|A^{\prime}\right|=O\left(p^{1 / 2} / \log ^{2} p\right)$.
- The sum of the elements of (a dilate of) $A^{\prime \prime}$ is small: There is a non-zero element $b \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ such that the elements of $b A^{\prime \prime}$ belong to the interval $[1,(p-1) / 2]$ and their sum is less than $p$.

Theorem 2.2. Let $A$ be an incomplete subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$. Then we can partition $A$ into two disjoint sets $A^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime \prime}$ where

- $A^{\prime}$ has negligible cardinality: $\left|A^{\prime}\right|=O\left(p^{1 / 2} / \log ^{2} p\right)$.
- The norm sum of the elements of (a dilate of) $A^{\prime \prime}$ is small: There is a non-zero element $b \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ such that the sum of the norms of the elements of $b A^{\prime \prime}$ is less than $p$.

The above two theorems were proved (without being formally stated) in [9]. A stronger version of these theorems will appear in a forthcoming paper [6]. We also need the following simple lemmas.

Lemma 2.3. Let $T^{\prime} \subset T$ be sets of integers with the following property. There are integers $a \leq b$ such that $[a, b] \subset \sum\left(T^{\prime}\right)$ and the non-negative (resp. non-positive) elements of $T \backslash T^{\prime}$ are less than $b-a$ (resp. greater than $a-b)$. Then, respectively,

$$
\left[a, b+\sum_{x \in T \backslash T^{\prime}, x \geq 0} x\right] \subset \sum(T)
$$

or

$$
\left[a+\sum_{x \in T \backslash T^{\prime}, x \leq 0} x, b\right] \subset \sum(T)
$$

The (almost trivial) proof is left as an exercise.
Lemma 2.4. Let $K=\left\{k_{1}, \ldots, k_{l}\right\}$ be a subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$, where the $k_{i}$ are positive integers and $\sum_{i=1}^{l} k_{i} \leq p$. Then $\left|\sum(K)\right| \geq l(l+1) / 2$.

To verify this lemma, notice that the numbers

$$
\begin{aligned}
& k_{1}, \ldots, k_{l}, k_{1}+k_{l}, k_{2}+k_{l}, \ldots, k_{l-1}+k_{l} \\
& \quad k_{1}+k_{l-1}+k_{l}, \ldots, k_{l-2}+k_{l-1}+k_{l}, \ldots, k_{1}+\cdots+k_{l}
\end{aligned}
$$

are different and all belong to $\sum(K)$.
3. Proof of Theorem 1.6. Let $A$ be a zero-free-sum subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ with size $n(p)$. In fact, as there is no danger for misunderstanding, we will write $n$ instead of $n(p)$. We start with few simple observations.

Consider the partition $A=A^{\prime} \cup A^{\prime \prime}$ provided by Theorem 2.1. Without loss of generality, we can assume that the element $b$ equals 1 . Thus $A^{\prime \prime} \subset$ $[1,(p-1) / 2]$ and the sum of its elements is less than $p$. We first show that most of the elements of $A^{\prime \prime}$ belong to the set of the first $n$ positive integers $[1, n]$.

Lemma 3.1. $\left|A^{\prime \prime} \cap[1, n]\right| \geq n-O(n / \log n)$.

Proof. By the definition of $n$ and the property of $A^{\prime \prime}$,

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} i \geq p>\sum_{a \in A^{\prime \prime}} a
$$

Assume that $A^{\prime \prime}$ has $l$ elements in $[1, n]$ and $k$ elements outside. Then

$$
\sum_{a \in A^{\prime \prime}} a \geq \sum_{i=1}^{l} i+\sum_{j=1}^{k}(n+j)
$$

It follows that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} i>\sum_{i=1}^{l} i+\sum_{j=1}^{k}(n+j)
$$

which, after a routine simplification, yields

$$
(l+n+1)(n-l)>(2 n+k) k
$$

On the other hand, $n \geq k+l=\left|A^{\prime \prime}\right| \geq n-O\left(n / \log ^{2} n\right)$, thus $n-l=$ $k+O\left(n / \log ^{2} n\right)$ and $n+l+1 \leq 2 n-k+1$. So there is a constant $c$ such that

$$
(2 n-k+1)\left(k+c n / \log ^{2} n\right)>(2 n+k) k
$$

or equivalently

$$
\frac{c n}{k \log ^{2} n}>\frac{k+1}{2 n-k+1}
$$

Since $2 n-k+1 \leq 2 n+1$, a routine consideration shows that $k^{2} \log ^{2} n=$ $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ and thus $k=O(n / \log n)$, completing the proof.

The above lemma shows that most of the elements of $A^{\prime \prime}$ (and $A$ ) belong to $[1, n]$. Let $A_{1}=A \cap[1, n]$. It is trivial that

$$
\left|A_{1}\right| \geq\left|A^{\prime \prime} \cap[1, n]\right|=n-O(n / \log n)
$$

Let $A_{2}=A \backslash A_{1}$. We have

$$
t:=\left|[1, n] \backslash A_{1}\right|=\left|A_{2}\right|=|A|-\left|A_{1}\right|=O(n / \log n)
$$

Next we show that $\sum\left(A_{1}\right)$ contains a very long interval. Set $I:=[2 t+3$, $(n+1)(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor-t-1)\rfloor$. The length of $I$ is $(1-o(1)) p$; thus $I$ almost covers $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$.

Lemma 3.2. $I \subset \sum\left(A_{1}\right)$.
Proof. We need to show that every element $x$ in this interval can be written as a sum of distinct elements of $A_{1}$. There are two cases:

CASE 1: $2 t+3 \leq x \leq n$. In this case $A_{1}$ contains at least $x-1-t \geq$ $(x+1) / 2$ elements in the interval $[1, x-1]$. This guarantees that there are two distinct elements of $A_{1}$ adding up to $x$.

CASE 2: $x=k(n+1)+r$ for some $1 \leq k \leq\lfloor n / 2\rfloor-t-2$ and $0 \leq r \leq$ $n+1$. First, notice that since $\left|A_{1}\right|$ is very close to $n$ (in fact it is enough to have $\left|A_{1}\right|$ slightly larger than $2 n / 3$ here), one can find three distinct elements $a, b, c \in A_{1}$ such that $a+b+c=n+1+r$. Consider the set $A_{1}^{\prime}=A_{1} \backslash\{a, b, c\}$. We will represent $x-(n+1+r)=(k-1)(n+1)$ as a sum of distinct elements of $A_{1}^{\prime}$. Notice that there are exactly $\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$ ways to write $n+1$ as a sum of two different positive integers. We discard a pair if (at least) one of its two elements is not in $A_{1}^{\prime}$. Since $\left|A_{1}^{\prime}\right|=n-t-3$, we discard at most $t+3$ pairs. So there are at least $\lfloor n / 2\rfloor-t-3$ different pairs $\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)$ where $a_{i}, b_{i} \in A_{1}^{\prime}$ and $a_{i}+b_{i}=n+1$. Thus, $(k-1)(n+1)$ can be written as a sum of distinct pairs. Finally, $x$ can be written as a sum of $a, b, c$ with these pairs.

Now we investigate the set $A_{2}=A \backslash A_{1}$. This is the collection of elements of $A$ outside the interval $[1, n]$. Since $A$ is zero-sum-free, $0 \notin A_{2}+I$ thanks to Lemma 3.2. It follows that

$$
A_{2} \subset \mathbb{Z}_{p} \backslash([1, n] \cup(-I) \cup\{0\}) \subset J_{1} \cup J_{2}
$$

where $J_{1}:=[-2 t-2,-1]$ and $J_{2}:=[n+1, p-(n+1)(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor-t)]=[n+1, q]$. We set $B:=A_{2} \cap J_{1}$ and $C:=A_{2} \cap J_{2}$.

Lemma 3.3. $\sum(B) \subset J_{1}$.
Proof. Assume otherwise. Then there is a subset $B^{\prime}$ of $B$ such that $\sum_{a \in B^{\prime}} a \leq-2 t-3$ (here the elements of $B$ are viewed as negative integers between -1 and $-2 t-3$ ). Among such $B^{\prime}$, take one where $\sum_{a \in B^{\prime}} a$ has the smallest absolute value. For this $B^{\prime},-4 t-4 \leq \sum_{a \in B^{\prime}} a \leq-2 t-3$. On the other hand, by Lemma 3.2, the interval [ $2 t+3,4 t+4]$ belongs to $\sum\left(A_{1}\right)$. This implies that $0 \in \sum\left(A_{1}\right)+\sum\left(B^{\prime}\right) \subset \sum(A)$, a contradiction.

Lemma 3.3 implies that $\sum_{a \in B}|a| \leq 2 t+2$, which yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
|B| \leq 2(t+1)^{1 / 2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Set $s:=|C|$. We have $s \geq t-2(t+1)^{1 / 2}$. Let $c_{1}<\cdots<c_{s}$ be the elements of $C$ and $g_{1}<\cdots<g_{t}$ be the elements of $[1, n] \backslash A_{1}$.

By the definition of $n, \sum_{i=1}^{n} i>p>\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i$. Thus, there is a (unique) $h \in[1, n]$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
p=1+\cdots+(h-1)+(h+1)+\cdots+n \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

A quantity which plays an important role in what follows is

$$
d:=\sum_{i=1}^{s} c_{i}-\sum_{j=1}^{t} g_{j}
$$

Notice that if we replace the $g_{j}$ by the $c_{i}$ in (2), we represent $p+d$ as a sum of distinct elements of $A$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
p+d=\sum_{a \in X, X \subset A} a \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The leading idea now is to try to cancel $d$ by throwing a few elements from the right hand side or adding a few negative elements (of $A$ ) or both. If this were always possible, then we would have a representation of $p$ as a sum of distinct elements in $A$ (in other words $0 \in \sum(A)$ ), a contradiction. To conclude the proof of Theorem 1.6, we are going to show that the only case when it is not possible is when $p=n(n+1) / 2-1$ and $A=\{-2,1,3,4, \ldots, n\}$. We consider two cases:

CASE 1: $h \in A_{1}$. Set $A_{1}^{\prime}=A_{1} \backslash\{h\}$ and apply Lemma 3.2 to $A_{1}^{\prime}$; we conclude that $\sum\left(A_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ contains the interval $I^{\prime}=[2(t+1)+3,(n+1)(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor-t-2)]$.

Lemma 3.4. $d<2(t+1)+3$.
Proof. Assume $d \geq 2(t+1)+3$. Notice that the largest element in $J_{2}$ (and thus in $C$ ) is less than the length of $I^{\prime}$. So by removing the $c_{i}$ one by one from $d$, one can obtain a sum $d^{\prime}=\sum_{i=1}^{s^{\prime}} c_{i}-\sum_{j=1}^{t} g_{j}$ which belongs to $I^{\prime}$, for some $s^{\prime} \leq s$. This implies

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{s^{\prime}} c_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{t} g_{j}+\sum_{a \in X} a
$$

for some subset $X$ of $A_{1}^{\prime}$. Since $h \notin A_{1}^{\prime}$, the right hand side is a subsum of the right hand side of (2). Let $Y$ be the collection of the missing elements (from the right hand side of (2)). Then $Y \subset A_{1}$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{s^{\prime}} c_{i}+\sum_{a \in Y} a=p$. On the other hand, the left hand side belongs to $\sum\left(A_{1}\right)+\sum\left(A_{2}\right) \subset \sum(A)$. It follows that $0 \in \sum(A)$, a contradiction.

Now we take a close look at the inequality $d<2(t+1)+3$. First, observe that since $A$ is zero-sum-free, $-\sum(B) \subset\left\{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{t}\right\}$. By Lemma 3.3, $\sum_{a \in B}|a| \leq 2 t+2<p$. As $B$ has $t-s$ elements, by Lemma 2.4, $\sum(B)$ has at least $(t-s)(t-s+1) / 2$ elements, thus $\left\{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{t}\right\}$ contains at least $(t-s)(t-s+1) / 2$ elements in $[1,2 t+2]$. It follows that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{t} g_{i} \leq(2 t+2)(t-s)(t-s+1) / 2+\sum_{j=0}^{t-(t-s)(t-s+1) / 2-1}(n-j)
$$

On the other hand, as all elements of $C$ are larger than $n$,

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{s} c_{i} \geq \sum_{i=1}^{s}(n+i)
$$

It follows that $d$ is at least

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{s}(n+i)-(2 t+2)(t-s)(t-s+1) / 2-\sum_{j=0}^{t-(t-s)(t-s+1) / 2-1}(n-j)
$$

If $t-s \geq 2$ then $s>t-(t-s)(t-s+1) / 2$, so we have

$$
d \geq n(s-(t-(t-s)(t-s+1) / 2))-(2 t+2)(t-s)(t-s+1) / 2
$$

This yields

$$
d \geq(t-s)(t-s-1)(n-3(2 t+2)) / 2
$$

So the last formula has order $\Omega(n) \gg t$, thus $d \gg 2(t+1)+3$, a contradiction. Therefore, $t-s$ is either 0 or 1 .

If $t-s=0$, then $d=\sum_{i=1}^{t} c_{i}-\sum_{i=1}^{t} g_{i} \geq t^{2}$. This is larger than $2 t+5$ if $t \geq 4$. Thus, we have $t=0,1,2,3$.

- $t=0$. In this case $A=[1, n]$ and $0 \in \sum(A)$.
- $t=1$. In this case $A=[1, n] \backslash\left\{g_{1}\right\} \cup c_{1}$. If $c_{1}-g_{1} \neq h$, then we could substitute $c_{1}$ for $g_{1}+\left(c_{1}-g_{1}\right)$ in (2) and have $0 \in \sum(A)$. This means that $h=c_{1}-g_{1}$. Furthermore, $h<2 t+5=7$ so both $c_{1}$ and $g_{1}$ are close to $n$. If $h \geq 3$,

$$
p=\sum_{i=1}^{h-1} i+\sum_{j=h+1}^{n} j=\sum_{i=2}^{h-2} i+\sum_{h+1 \leq j \leq n, j \neq g_{1}} j+c_{1}
$$

Similarly, if $h=1$ or 2 then

$$
p=\sum_{i=1}^{h} i+\sum_{h+2 \leq j \leq n, j \neq g_{1}} j+c_{1} .
$$

- $t>1$. Since $d<2 t+5, g_{1}, \ldots, g_{t}$ are all larger than $n-2 t-4$. As $p$ is sufficiently large, we can assume $n \geq 4 t+10$, which implies that $[1,2 t+5] \subset A_{1}$. If $h \neq 1$, then it is easy to see that $[3,2 t+5] \subset$ $\sum\left(A_{1} \backslash\{h\}\right)$. As $t>1, d \geq t^{2} \geq 4$ and can be represented as a sum of elements in $A_{1} \backslash\{h\}$. Omitting these elements from (3), we obtain a representation of $p$ as a sum of elements of $A$. The only case left is $h=1$ and $d=4$. But $d$ can equal 4 if and only if $t=2$, $c_{1}=n+1, c_{2}=n+2, g_{1}=n-1, g_{2}=n$. In this case, we have

$$
p=\sum_{i=2}^{n} i=2+3+\sum_{i=5}^{n+2} i
$$

Now we turn to the case $t-s=1$. In this case $B$ has exactly one element in the interval $[-2 t-2,-1]$ (modulo $p$ ) and $d$ is at least $s^{2}-(2 t+2)=$ $(t-1)^{2}-(2 t+2)$. Since $d<2 t+5$, we conclude that $t$ is at most 6 . Let $-b$ be the element in $B$ (where $b$ is a positive integer). We have $b \leq 2 t+2 \leq 14$. $A_{1}$ misses exactly $t$ elements from $[1, n]$; one of them is $b$ and all other are
close to $n$ (at least $n-(2 t+4)$ ). Using this information, we can reduce the bound on $b$ further. Notice that the whole interval $[1, b-1]$ belongs to $A_{1}$. So if $b \geq 3$, then there are two elements $x, y$ of $A_{1}$ such that $x+y=b$. Then $x+y+(-b)=0$, meaning $0 \in \sum(A)$. It thus remains to consider $b=1$ or 2 . Now we consider a few cases depending on the value of $d$. Notice that $d \geq s^{2}-b \geq-2$. In fact, if $s \geq 2$ then $d \geq 2$. Furthermore, if $s=0$, then $t=1$ and $d=-g_{1}=-b$.

- $d \geq 5$. Since $A_{1}$ misses at most one element in $[1, d]$ (the possible missing element is $b$ ), there are two elements of $A_{1}$ adding up to $d$. Omitting these elements from (3), we obtain a representation of $p$ as a sum of distinct elements of $A$.
- $d=4$. If $b=1$, write $p=\sum_{a \in X, a \neq 2} a+(-b)$. If $b=2$, then $p=$ $\sum_{a \in X, a \neq 1,3} a$. (Here and later $X$ is the set in (3).)
- $d=3$. Write $p=\sum_{a \in X, a \neq 3-b} a+(-b)$.
- $d=2$. If $b=1$, then $p=\sum_{a \in X, a \neq 2} a$. If $b=2$, then $p=\sum_{a \in X} a+(-2)$.
- $d=1$. If $b=1$, then $p=\sum_{a \in X} a+(-1)$. If $b=2$, then $p=\sum_{a \in X, a \neq 1} a$.
- $d=0$. In this case (3) already provides a representation of $p$.
- $d=-1$. In this case $s<2$. But since $h \neq b, s$ cannot be 0 . If $s=1$ then $b=2$ and $c_{1}=n+1, g_{1}=n$. By (2), we have $p=\sum_{i=1}^{h-1} i+\sum_{j=h+1}^{n} j$ and so

$$
p+(h-1)=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n+1, i \notin\{2, n\}} i
$$

where the right hand side consists of elements of $A$ only. If $h-1 \in A$ then we simply omit it from the sum. If $h-1 \notin A$, then $h-1=2$ and $h=3$. In this case, we can write

$$
p=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n+1, i \notin\{2, n\}} i+(-2)
$$

- $d=-2$. This could only occur if $s=0$ and $b=2$. In this case $A=\{-2,1,3, \ldots, n\}$. If $h=1$, then $p=\sum_{i=2}^{n}=n(n+1) / 2-1$ and we end up with the only exceptional set. If $h \geq 3$, then $p+(h-2)=$ $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq 2} i$. If $h \neq 4$, then we can omit $h-2$ from the right hand side to obtain a representation of $p$. If $h=4$, then we can write

$$
p=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq 2} i+(-2) .
$$

CASE 2: $h \notin A$. In this case we can consider $A_{1}$ instead of $A_{1}^{\prime}$. The consideration is similar and actually simpler. Since $h \notin A$, we only need to consider $d:=\sum_{i=1}^{s} c_{i}-\sum_{1 \leq j \leq t, g_{j} \neq h} g_{j}$. Furthermore, as $h \notin A$, if $s=0$ we should have $h=b$ and this forbids us to have any exceptional structure in the case $d=-2$. The details are left as an exercise.
4. Proof of Theorem 1.9. We follow the same terminology used in the previous section. Assume that $A$ is zero-sum-free and $|A|=\lambda n=\lambda(2 p)^{1 / 2}$ with some $1 \geq \lambda \geq .99$. Furthermore, assume that the element $b$ in Theorem 2.1 is 1 . We will use the notation of the previous proof. Let the core of $A$ be the collection of $a \in A$ such that $n+1-a \in A$. Theorem 1.9 follows directly from the following two lemmas.

Lemma 4.1. The core of $A$ has size at least $.6 n$.
Lemma 4.2. Let $A$ be a zero-sum-free set whose core has size at least $(1 / 2+\varepsilon) n$ (for some positive constant $\varepsilon$ ). Then

$$
\sum_{a \in A, a<p / 2} a \leq p+\frac{1}{\varepsilon}(n+1), \quad \sum_{a \in A, a>p / 2}\|a\| \leq(1 / \varepsilon+1) n
$$

Proof of Lemma 4.1. Following the proof of Lemma 3.1, with $l=$ $\left|A^{\prime \prime} \cap[1, n]\right|$ and $k=\left|A^{\prime \prime} \backslash[1, n]\right|$, we have

$$
(l+n+1)(n-l)>(2 n+k) k .
$$

On the other hand, $n \geq k+l=\left|A^{\prime \prime}\right|=|A|-O\left(n / \log ^{2} n\right)$, thus $n-l=$ $k+n-|A|+O\left(n / \log ^{2} n\right)=(1-\lambda+o(1)) n+k$ and $n+l \leq(1+\lambda) n-k$. Putting all these together with the fact that $\lambda$ is quite close to 1 , we can conclude that $k<.1 n$. It follows (rather generously) that $l=\lambda n-k-O\left(n / \log ^{2} n\right)>.8 n$.

The above shows that most of the elements of $A$ belong to $[1, n]$, as

$$
\left|A_{1}\right|=|A \cap[1, n]| \geq\left|A^{\prime \prime} \cap[1, n]\right|>.8 n
$$

Split $A_{1}$ into two sets, $A_{1}^{\prime}$ and $A_{1}^{\prime \prime}:=A_{1} \backslash A_{1}^{\prime}$, where $A_{1}^{\prime}$ contains all elements $a$ of $A_{1}$ such that $n+1-a$ also belongs to $A_{1}$. Recall that $A_{1}$ has at least $\lfloor n / 2\rfloor-t$ pairs $\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)$ satisfying $a_{i}+b_{i}=n+1$. This guarantees that $\left|A_{1}^{\prime}\right| \geq 2(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor-t) \geq .6 n$. On the other hand, $A_{1}^{\prime}$ is a subset of the core of $A$. The proof is complete.

Proof of Lemma 4.2. Abusing the notation slightly, we use $A_{1}^{\prime}$ to denote the core of $A$. We have $\left|A_{1}^{\prime}\right| \geq(1 / 2+\varepsilon) n$.

Lemma 4.3. Any $l \in[n(1 / \varepsilon+1), n(1 / \varepsilon+1)+n]$ can be written as a sum of $2(1 / \varepsilon+1)$ distinct elements of $A_{1}^{\prime}$.

Proof. First notice that for any $m \in I_{\varepsilon}=[(1-\varepsilon) n,(1+\varepsilon) n]$, the number of pairs $(a, b) \in A_{1}^{\prime 2}$ satisfying $a<b$ and $a+b=m$ is at least $\varepsilon n / 2$. Next, observe that any $k \in[0, n]$ is a sum of $1 / \varepsilon+1$ integers (not necessarily distinct) from $[0, \varepsilon n]$. Consider $l$ from $[n(1 / \varepsilon+1), n(1 / \varepsilon+1)+n]$; we can represent $l-n(1 / \varepsilon+1)$ as a sum $a_{1}+\cdots+a_{1 / \varepsilon+1}$ where $0 \leq a_{1}, \ldots, a_{1 / \varepsilon+1} \leq \varepsilon n$. Thus $l$ can be written as a sum of $1 / \varepsilon+1$ elements (not necessarily distinct) of $I_{\varepsilon}$,
as $l=\left(n+a_{1}\right)+\cdots+\left(n+a_{1 / \varepsilon+1}\right)$. Now we represent each summand in the above representation of $l$ by two elements of $A_{1}^{\prime}$. By the first observation, the numbers of pairs are much larger than the number of summands, hence we can arrange so that all elements of pairs are different.

Recall that $A_{1}^{\prime}$ consists of pairs $\left(a_{i}^{\prime}, b_{i}^{\prime}\right)$ where $a_{i}^{\prime}+b_{i}^{\prime}=n+1$, so

$$
\sum_{a^{\prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime}} a^{\prime}=(n+1)\left|A_{1}^{\prime}\right| / 2
$$

Lemma 4.4. $I^{\prime}:=\left[n(1 / \varepsilon+1), \sum_{a^{\prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime}} a^{\prime}-(n+1) / \varepsilon\right] \subset \sum\left(A_{1}^{\prime}\right)$.
Proof. Lemma 4.3 implies that for each $x \in[n(1 / \varepsilon+1), n(1 / \varepsilon+1)+n]$ there exist distinct elements $a_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, a_{2(1 / \varepsilon+1)}^{\prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime}$ such that $x=\sum_{i=1}^{2(1 / \varepsilon+1)} a_{i}^{\prime}$. We discard all $a_{i}^{\prime}$ and $(n+1)-a_{i}^{\prime}$ from $A_{1}^{\prime}$. Thus there remain exactly $\left|A_{1}^{\prime}\right| / 2-2(1 / \varepsilon+1)$ different pairs $\left(a_{i}^{\prime \prime}, b_{i}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ where $a_{i}^{\prime \prime}+b_{i}^{\prime \prime}=n+1$. The sums of these pairs represent all numbers of the form $k(n+1)$ for any $0 \leq k \leq\left|A_{1}^{\prime}\right| / 2-2(1 / \varepsilon+1)$. We have thus obtained a representation of $x+k(n+1)$ as a sum of different elements of $A_{1}^{\prime}$, in other words, $x+k(n+1) \in \sum\left(A_{1}^{\prime}\right)$. As $x$ varies in $[n(1 / \varepsilon+1), n(1 / \varepsilon+1)+n]$ and $k$ varies in $\left[0,\left|A_{1}^{\prime}\right| / 2-2(1 / \varepsilon+1)\right]$, the proof is completed.

Let $A_{2}=A \backslash A_{1}$ and set $A_{2}^{\prime}:=A_{2} \cap[0,(p-1) / 2]$ and $A_{2}^{\prime \prime}=A_{2} \backslash A_{2}^{\prime}$. We are going to view $A_{2}^{\prime \prime}$ as a subset of $[-(p-1) / 2,-1]$.

We will now invoke Lemma 2.3 several times to deduce Lemma 4.2. First, it is trivial that the length of $I^{\prime}$ is much larger than $n$, whilst elements of $A_{1}$ are positive integers bounded by $n$. Thus, Lemma 2.3 implies that

$$
I^{\prime \prime}:=\left[n(1 / \varepsilon+1), \sum_{a \in A_{1}} a-(n+1) / \varepsilon\right] \subset \sum\left(A_{1}\right)
$$

Note that the length of $I^{\prime \prime}$ is greater than $(p-1) / 2$. Indeed, $n \approx(2 p)^{1 / 2}$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|I^{\prime \prime}\right| & =\sum_{a \in A_{1}} a-(n+1) / \varepsilon-n(1 / \varepsilon+1) \geq \sum_{a \in A_{1}^{\prime}} a-O(n) \\
& \geq(1 / 2+\varepsilon) n(n+1) / 2-O(n)>(p-1) / 2
\end{aligned}
$$

Again, Lemma 2.3 (applied to $I^{\prime \prime}$ ) yields

$$
\begin{array}{r}
{\left[n(1 / \varepsilon+1), \sum_{a \in A_{1} \cup A_{2}^{\prime}} a-(n+1) / \varepsilon\right] \subset \sum\left(A_{1} \cup A_{2}^{\prime}\right),} \\
{\left[\sum_{a \in A_{2}^{\prime \prime}} a+n(1 / \varepsilon+1), \sum_{a \in A_{1}} a-(n+1) / \varepsilon\right] \subset \sum\left(A_{1} \cup A_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right) .}
\end{array}
$$

The union of these two long intervals is contained in $\sum(A)$,

$$
\left[\sum_{a \in A_{2}^{\prime \prime}} a+n(1 / \varepsilon+1), \sum_{a \in A_{1} \cup A_{2}^{\prime}} a-(n+1) / \varepsilon\right] \subset \sum(A)
$$

On the other hand, $0 \notin \sum(A)$ implies

$$
\sum_{a \in A_{2}^{\prime \prime}} a+n(1 / \varepsilon+1)>0, \quad \sum_{a \in A_{1} \cup A_{2}^{\prime}} a-(n+1) / \varepsilon<p
$$

The proof of Lemma 4.2 is complete.
5. Sketch of the proof of Theorem 1.13. Assume that $A$ is incomplete and $|A|=\lambda p^{1 / 2}$ with some $2 \geq \lambda \geq 1.99$. Furthermore, assume that the element $b$ in Theorem 2.2 is 1 . We are going to view $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ as $[-(p-1) / 2,(p-1) / 2]$.

To simplify the writing, we set $n=\left\lfloor p^{1 / 2}\right\rfloor$ and

$$
\begin{gathered}
A_{1}:=A \cap[-n, n], \quad A_{1}^{\prime}:=A \cap[0, n], \quad A_{1}^{\prime \prime}:=A \cap[-n,-1], \\
A_{2}^{\prime}:=A \cap[n+1,(p-1) / 2], \quad A_{2}^{\prime \prime}:=A \cap[-(p-1) / 2,-(n+1)], \\
t_{1}^{\prime}:=\left|A_{1}^{\prime}\right|, \quad t_{1}^{\prime \prime}:=\left|A_{1}^{\prime \prime}\right|, \quad t_{1}:=\left|A_{1}\right|=t_{1}^{\prime}+t_{1}^{\prime \prime}
\end{gathered}
$$

Notice that $\left|A^{\prime \prime}\right|$ (in Theorem 2.2) is sufficiently close to the upper bound. The following holds.

Lemma 5.1. Most of the elements of $A^{\prime \prime}$ belong to $[-n, n]$, in particular:

- both $t_{1}^{\prime}$ and $t_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ are larger than $(1 / 2+\varepsilon) n$,
- $t_{1}$ is larger than $\left(2^{1 / 2}+\varepsilon\right) n$,
with some positive constant $\varepsilon$.
Consequently, both $\sum(A \cap[-n,-1])$ and $\sum(A \cap[1, n])$ contain long intervals thanks to the lemma below, which is a direct application of Lemma 4.3 and the argument provided in Lemma 3.2.

Lemma 5.2. If $X$ is a subset of $[1, n]$ with size at least $(1 / 2+\varepsilon) n$, then

$$
\left[(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1),(n+1)\left(n / 2-t-c_{\varepsilon}\right)\right] \subset \sum(X)
$$

where $t=n-|X|$ and $c_{\varepsilon}$ depends only on $\varepsilon$.
Now we can invoke Lemma 2.3 several times to deduce Theorem 1.13.
Lemma 5.2 implies

$$
\begin{aligned}
I^{\prime} & :=\left[(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1),(n+1)\left(n / 2-t_{1}^{\prime}-c_{\varepsilon}\right)\right] \subset \sum\left(A_{1}^{\prime}\right) \\
I^{\prime \prime} & :=\left[-(n+1)\left(n / 2-t_{1}^{\prime \prime}-c_{\varepsilon}\right),-(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1)\right] \subset \sum\left(A_{1}^{\prime \prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 2.3 (applied to $I^{\prime}$ and $A_{1}^{\prime \prime}$, respectively $I^{\prime \prime}$ and $A_{1}^{\prime}$ ) yields

$$
\begin{gathered}
{\left[\sum_{a_{1}^{\prime \prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime \prime}} a_{1}^{\prime \prime}+(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1),(n+1)\left(n / 2-t_{1}^{\prime}-c_{\varepsilon}\right)\right] \subset \sum\left(A_{1}\right)} \\
{\left[-(n+1)\left(n / 2-t_{1}^{\prime \prime}-c_{\varepsilon}\right), \sum_{a_{1}^{\prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime}} a_{1}^{\prime}-(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1)\right] \subset \sum\left(A_{1}\right)}
\end{gathered}
$$

which gives

$$
I:=\left[\sum_{a_{1}^{\prime \prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime \prime}} a_{1}^{\prime \prime}+(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1), \sum_{a_{1}^{\prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime}} a_{1}^{\prime}-(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1)\right] \subset \sum\left(A_{1}\right)
$$

Note that the length of $I$ is greater than $(p-1) / 2$. Again, Lemma 2.3 (applied to $I$ and $A_{2}^{\prime}$, respectively $I$ and $A_{2}^{\prime \prime}$ ) implies

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {\left[\sum_{a^{\prime \prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime \prime} \cup A_{2}^{\prime \prime}} a^{\prime \prime}+(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1), \sum_{a_{1}^{\prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime}} a_{1}^{\prime}-(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1)\right] \subset \sum(A)} \\
& {\left[\sum_{a_{1}^{\prime \prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime \prime}} a_{1}^{\prime \prime}+(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1), \sum_{a^{\prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime} \cup A_{2}^{\prime}} a^{\prime}-(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1)\right] \subset \sum(A)}
\end{aligned}
$$

The union of these two intervals is in $\sum(A)$,

$$
\left[\sum_{a^{\prime \prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime \prime} \cup A_{2}^{\prime \prime}} a^{\prime \prime}+(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1), \sum_{a^{\prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime} \cup A_{2}^{\prime}} a^{\prime}-(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1)\right] \subset \sum(A)
$$

On the other hand, $\sum(A) \neq \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ implies

$$
\sum_{a^{\prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime} \cup A_{2}^{\prime}} a^{\prime}-\sum_{a^{\prime \prime} \in A_{1}^{\prime \prime} \cup A_{2}^{\prime \prime}} a^{\prime \prime}-2(n+1)(1 / \varepsilon+1)<p
$$

In other words,

$$
\sum_{a \in A}\|a\| \leq p+O\left(p^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

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