

ON SUMSETS OF NONBASES OF MAXIMUM SIZE

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ABSTRACT. Let G be a finite abelian group. A nonempty subset A in G is called a basis of order h if $hA = G$; when $hA \neq G$, it is called a nonbasis of order h . Our interest is in all possible sizes of hA when A is a nonbasis of order h in G of maximum size; we provide the complete answer when $h = 2$ or $h = 3$.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Let G be a finite abelian group of order $n \geq 2$, written in additive notation. For a positive integer h , the *Minkowski sum* of nonempty subsets A_1, \dots, A_h of G is defined as

$$A_1 + \dots + A_h = \{a_1 + \dots + a_h : a_1 \in A_1, \dots, a_h \in A_h\}.$$

When $A_1 = \dots = A_h = A$, we simply write hA , which then is the collection of sums of h not-necessarily-distinct elements of A .

We say that a nonempty subset A of G is *h -complete* (alternatively, a *basis of order h*) if $hA = G$; while, if hA is a proper subset of G , we say that A is *h -incomplete*. The *h -critical number* $\chi(G, h)$ of G is defined as the smallest positive integer m for which all m -subsets of G are h -complete; that is:

$$\chi(G, h) = \min\{m : A \subseteq G, |A| \geq m \Rightarrow hA = G\}.$$

It is easy to see that for all G and h we have $hG = G$, so $\chi(G, h)$ is well defined. The value of $\chi(G, h)$ is now known for every G and h —see [1, 2]. For more on the h -critical number and related topics, see also [4, 8].

The following question then arises naturally: What can one say about the size of hA if A is an h -incomplete subset of maximum size in G ? Namely, we aim to determine the set

$$S(G, h) = \{|hA| : A \subset G, |A| = \chi(G, h) - 1, hA \neq G\}.$$

In this paper we attain the complete answer to this question for $h = 2$ and $h = 3$. For $h = 2$, we find that the situation is greatly different for groups of even and odd order.

Theorem 1.1. *Let G be an abelian group of order n .*

- (1) *When n is even, the maximum size of a 2-incomplete subset of G is $n/2$, and the elements of $S(G, 2)$ are of the form $n - n/d$ where d is some even divisor of n ; in fact all such integers are possible, with the exception that $3n/4$ arises only when the exponent of G is divisible by 4.*
- (2) *When n is odd, the maximum size of 2-incomplete subsets of G is $(n - 1)/2$; furthermore, when G is of order 3, 5, or is noncyclic and of order 9, then $S(G, 2) = \{n - 2\}$, and for all other groups of odd order we have $S(G, 2) = \{n - 2, n - 1\}$.*

For $h = 3$ we separate three cases.

Theorem 1.2. *Let G be an abelian group of order n .*

- (1) *When n has prime divisors congruent to $2 \pmod{3}$, and p is the smallest such prime, the maximum size of a 3-incomplete subset is $(p+1)n/(3p)$, and we have $S(G, 3) = \{n - n/p\}$.*
- (2) *When n is divisible by 3 but has no divisors congruent to $2 \pmod{3}$, then the maximum size of a 3-incomplete subset is $n/3$, and the elements of $S(G, 3)$ are of the form $n - n/d$ or $n - 2n/d$ where d is some divisor of n that is divisible by 3; furthermore, all such integers are possible, with the exceptions of $2n/3$ and $n - 2n/d$ when the highest power of 3 that divides d is more than the highest power of 3 that divides the exponent of G .*
- (3) *In the case when all divisors of n are congruent to $1 \pmod{3}$, then the maximum size of a 3-incomplete subset is $(n-1)/3$, and $S(G, 3) = \{n-3, n-1\}$, unless G is an elementary abelian 7-group, in which case $S(G, 3) = \{n-3\}$.*

We should note that the three cases addressed in Theorem 1.2 are the same as those used while studying sumfree sets—see [5] and [7]; in fact, the maximum size of a 3-incomplete set in G agrees with the maximum size of a sumfree set in G when G is cyclic.

Our methods are completely elementary, with Kneser's Theorem as the main tool. In Section 2 we review some standard terminology and notations and prove some auxiliary results, then in Sections 3 and 4 we prove Theorems 1.1 and 1.2, respectively.

2. PRELIMINARIES

Here we present a few generic results that will come useful later. We will use the following version of Kneser's Theorem.

Theorem 2.1 (Kneser's Theorem; [9, 11]). *If A_1, \dots, A_h are nonempty subsets of G , and H is the stabilizer subgroup of $A_1 + \dots + A_h$ in G , then*

$$|A_1 + \dots + A_h| \geq |A_1| + \dots + |A_h| - (h-1)|H|.$$

Our first lemma is a simple application of Kneser's Theorem:

Lemma 2.2. *Suppose that G is a finite abelian group and that h is a positive integer. Let A be an h -incomplete subset of maximum size in G , and let H denote the stabilizer of hA in G . Then both A and hA are unions of full cosets of H ; furthermore, if A and hA consist of k_1 and k_2 cosets of H , respectively, then*

$$k_2 \geq hk_1 - h + 1.$$

Proof. Consider the sumset $A + H$. Since we have

$$h(A + H) = hA + H = hA \neq G,$$

$A + H$ is h -incomplete in G . But $A \subseteq A + H$ and A is an h -incomplete subset of maximum size, therefore $A + H = A$, implying that A , as well as hA , are both unions of cosets of H . By Kneser's Theorem, we have

$$|hA| \geq h|A| - (h-1)|H|,$$

from which our claim follows. □

We will also use the following observation:

Lemma 2.3. *Suppose that G is a finite abelian group and that h is a positive integer. Let H be a subgroup of G of index d for some $d \in \mathbb{N}$, and let ϕ be the canonical map from G to G/H . Suppose further that B is a subset of G/H , and set $A = \phi^{-1}(B)$. Then $|A| = \frac{n}{d} \cdot |B|$ and $|hA| = \frac{n}{d} \cdot |hB|$.*

Our next result takes advantage of the fact that the elements of a finite abelian group have a natural ordering. We review some background and introduce a useful result.

When G is cyclic and of order n , we identify it with $\mathbb{Z}_n = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. More generally, G has a unique *type* (n_1, \dots, n_r) , where r and n_1, \dots, n_r are positive integers so that $n_1 \geq 2$, n_i is a divisor of n_{i+1} for $i = 1, \dots, r-1$, and

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_r};$$

here r is the *rank* of G and n_r is the *exponent* of G .

The above factorization of G allows us to arrange the elements in lexicographic order and then consider the ‘first’ m elements in G (as was done in [6]). Namely, suppose that m is a nonnegative integer less than n ; we then have unique integers q_1, \dots, q_r , so that $0 \leq q_k < n_k$ for each $1 \leq k \leq r$, and

$$m = \sum_{k=1}^r q_k n_{k+1} \cdots n_r.$$

For instance, if $q_r \geq 1$, the first m elements in G range from the zero element to $(q_1, \dots, q_{r-1}, q_r - 1)$ and thus form the set

$$\mathcal{I}(G, m) = \bigcup_{k=1}^r \{q_1\} \times \cdots \times \{q_{k-1}\} \times \{0, 1, \dots, q_k - 1\} \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_{k+1}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_r}.$$

The advantage of considering these initial sets is that their h -fold sumsets are also initial sets. Indeed, if $hq_k < n_k$ for each k and $q_r \geq 1$, we find that $h\mathcal{I}(G, m)$ consists of the elements from the zero element to $(hq_1, \dots, hq_{r-1}, hq_r - h)$, and thus

$$h\mathcal{I}(G, m) = \mathcal{I}(G, hm - h + 1).$$

We will also employ a slight modification of $\mathcal{I}(G, m)$ where its last element is replaced by the next one in the lexicographic order. If we further assume that $q_r \geq 3$, we have

$$\mathcal{I}^*(G, m) = \mathcal{I}(G, m - 1) \cup \{(q_1, \dots, q_{r-1}, q_r)\};$$

an easy calculation shows that

$$h\mathcal{I}^*(G, m) = \mathcal{I}(G, hm - 1) \cup \{(hq_1, \dots, hq_{r-1}, hq_r)\}.$$

We can summarize these calculations, as follows.

Proposition 2.4. *Suppose that G is of type (n_1, \dots, n_r) . Let $0 \leq m < n$, and let q_1, \dots, q_r be the unique integers with $0 \leq q_k < n_k$ for each $1 \leq k \leq r$ for which*

$$m = \sum_{k=1}^r q_k n_{k+1} \cdots n_r.$$

Let h be a positive integer for which $hq_k < n_k$ for each $1 \leq k \leq r$. Then for the m -subsets $\mathcal{I}(G, m)$ and $\mathcal{I}^(G, m)$ of G we have the following:*

- (1) *If $q_r \geq 1$, then $|h\mathcal{I}(G, m)| = hm - h + 1$.*
- (2) *If $q_r \geq 3$, then $|h\mathcal{I}^*(G, m)| = hm$.*

3. TWO-FOLD SUMSETS

In this section we prove Theorem 1.1. We separate two cases depending on the order of the group: the even case is considered in Theorem 3.3 and the odd case is established in Theorem 3.4.

The critical number $\chi(G, 2)$ can be easily determined as follows.

Proposition 3.1. *For any abelian group G of order n we have*

$$\chi(G, 2) = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1.$$

Proof. Suppose that A is a subset of G of size $|A| > n/2$. Since for any $g \in G$, A and $g - A$ cannot be disjoint, we have $2A = G$.

To complete the proof, we need to identify a subset of G of size $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ that is 2-incomplete. When n is even, any subgroup of index 2 (or a coset of such a subgroup) will do.

Suppose now that n is odd, in which case G has type (n_1, \dots, n_r) for some $r, n_1, \dots, n_r \in \mathbb{N}$ and n_k odd for all k . We then have

$$\frac{n-1}{2} = \sum_{k=1}^r \frac{n_k-1}{2} \cdot n_{k+1} \cdots n_r.$$

Therefore, according to Proposition 2.4, the initial segment $\mathcal{I}(G, (n-1)/2)$ has a 2-fold sumset of size $n-2$ and is thus 2-incomplete. \square

We now turn to finding

$$S(G, 2) = \{|2A| : A \subset G, |A| = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor, 2A \neq G\}.$$

We start with a result that may be of independent interest.

Theorem 3.2. *Let G be a group of even order whose exponent is not divisible by 4, and suppose that A is a subset of G of size $|A| = n/2$. Then G has a subgroup H of order $n/2$ for which*

$$|A \cap H| \neq |A \cap (G \setminus H)|.$$

Proof. We proceed indirectly, and assume that each subgroup of order $n/2$ in G contains exactly half of the elements of A . We may assume that $G = G_1 \times G_2$, where G_1 has odd order, and $G_2 = \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_r}$ with all n_i even; by assumption, we also know that they are not divisible by 4.

We say that a subset C of G of the form $C = G_1 \times B_1 \times \cdots \times B_r$ is a *projection* of G , if for each i , either $B_i = \mathbb{Z}_{n_i}$ or B_i is a coset of the subgroup of index 2 in \mathbb{Z}_{n_i} . Note that each projection of G has size $n/2^k$ for some $0 \leq k \leq r$. We prove the following:

Claim: If C is a projection of G of size $n/2^k$, then $A \cap C$ has size $n/2^{k+1}$.

Since this is clearly impossible for $k = r$, we arrive at a contradiction.

Proof of Claim: We use induction on k . The claim trivially holds for $k = 0$, and it also holds for $k = 1$, since any projection of G of size $n/2$ is either a subgroup of index 2 or a coset of that subgroup and, by our indirect assumption, both contain exactly $n/4$ elements of A .

Assume now that our claim holds for $k-1$ for some $k \leq r$. To prove our claim for k , by symmetry it clearly suffices to consider projections in

$$C = \{G_1 \times B_1 \times \cdots \times B_r : |B_i| = n_i/2 \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq k \text{ and } |B_i| = n_i \text{ for } k+1 \leq i \leq r\}.$$

Recall that the elements of \mathbb{Z}_2^k may be arranged in Gray-code order; that is, we have a sequence

$$e_0, e_1, \dots, e_{2^k-1}, e_{2^k}$$

where $e_0 = e_{2^k}$ is the zero-element of \mathbb{Z}_2^k , and e_j and e_{j+1} differ in exactly one position for every $j = 0, 1, \dots, 2^k - 1$. We can then arrange the elements of \mathcal{C} in a corresponding sequence

$$C_0, C_1, \dots, C_{2^k-1}, C_{2^k}$$

where $C_j = G_1 \times B_1 \times \dots \times B_r$ has $B_i \leq \mathbb{Z}_{n_i}$ for some $1 \leq i \leq k$ if, and only if, the i -th component of e_j equals 0 (and $(\mathbb{Z}_{n_i} \setminus B_i) \leq \mathbb{Z}_{n_i}$ otherwise).

Observe that, for every $j = 0, 1, \dots, 2^k - 1$, the union of C_j and C_{j+1} is a projection of G of size $n/2^{k-1}$; therefore, by our inductive hypothesis, it must contain exactly $n/2^k$ elements of A . Thus, if C_0 contains t elements of A , then C_j will contain t elements of A if j is even, and $n/2^k - t$ elements of A when j is odd. We need to show that $t = n/2^{k+1}$.

A standard parity argument proves that

$$H = C_0 \cup C_2 \cup C_4 \cup \dots \cup C_{2^k-2}$$

is a subgroup of index 2 in G , so by our assumption, it contains $n/4$ elements of A . Therefore, $t \cdot 2^k/2 = n/4$, which proves our claim. \square

We note that the claim of Theorem 3.2 may be false in groups with exponent divisible by 4. For example, in $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$, the set $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \{0, 1\}$ intersects all three subgroups of order 4 in two elements.

We are now ready to determine $S(G, 2)$. We start with the case when n is even.

Theorem 3.3. *If the exponent of G is divisible by 4, then*

$$S(G, 2) = \{n - n/d : d|n, 2|d\};$$

if the exponent of G is even but not divisible by 4, then

$$S(G, 2) = \{n - n/d : d|n, 2|d, d \neq 4\}.$$

Proof: Let A be a 2-incomplete subset of G of maximal size. Using the notations of Lemma 2.2, we have $|A| = n/2 = k_1 n/d$ where d is the index of the stabilizer subgroup of $2A$. This implies that d is even and $k_1 = d/2$; using Lemma 2.2 again yields $k_2 \geq d - 1$ and thus $|2A| = k_2 n/d$ equals n or $n - n/d$. Therefore, we have

$$S(G, 2) \subseteq \{n - n/d : d|n, 2|d\}.$$

When the exponent of G is congruent to 2 mod 4, then we can rule out $d = 4$, as follows. By Theorem 3.2, G has a subgroup H of index 2 for which $H \cap A$ and $(G \setminus H) \cap A$ have different sizes; let $A = A_1 \cup A_2$ where A_1 and A_2 are subsets of different cosets of H . Without loss of generality, we assume that $|A_1| > n/4$, and thus $2A_1 = H$. If A_2 were to be empty, then A is a full coset of H , and thus $|2A| = n/2 \neq 3n/4$. Otherwise, $|A_1 + A_2| \geq |A_1| > n/4$, which implies that $|2A| \geq |2A_1| + |A_1 + A_2| > 3n/4$.

What remains is the proof that all remaining values arise as sumset sizes. This is clearly true when $d = 2$, or when $d = 4$ and the exponent of G is divisible by 4. Suppose now that d is an even divisor of n and $d > 4$. According to Lemma 2.3, it suffices to prove that every group K of order d contains some subset B of size $d/2$ for which $|2B| = d - 1$. Let H be any subgroup of index 2 in K , and set $B = (H \setminus \{h\}) \cup \{g\}$, where h and g are arbitrary elements of H and $K \setminus H$, respectively. Since $|H \setminus \{h\}| = d/2 - 1 > d/4$, we get $2(H \setminus \{h\}) = H$ and thus $2A = G \setminus \{h + g\}$. Therefore, $|2B| = d - 1$, and our proof is complete. \square

Let us now turn to the case when n is odd.

Theorem 3.4. *If $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_3, \mathbb{Z}_5,$ or $\mathbb{Z}_3^2,$ then $S(G, 2) = \{n - 2\}.$ For all other G of odd order we have $S(G, 2) = \{n - 2, n - 1\}.$*

Proof. Let A be a subset of G of size $(n-1)/2.$ By Lemma 2.2, A is the union of some k_1 cosets of the stabilizer H of $2A;$ if H has index d in $G,$ then we thus have $(n-1)/2 = |A| = k_1 n/d.$ But this implies that $d = n$ and $k_1 = (n-1)/2,$ so using Lemma 2.2 again, we get that $2A$ has size $k_2 \geq n-2.$ Therefore, $S(G, 2) \subseteq \{n-2, n-1\}.$

In the proof of Proposition 3.1 we already established that $n-2 \in S(G, 2)$ by pointing out that the set $\mathcal{I}(G, (n-1)/2),$ consisting of the initial $(n-1)/2$ elements in $G,$ has a 2-fold sumset of size $n-2.$ Similarly, Proposition 2.4 yields that, when $(n_r - 1)/2 \geq 3,$ then $|\mathcal{I}^*(G, (n-1)/2)|$ is of size $(n-1)/2$ and has $|2\mathcal{I}^*(G, m)| = n-1.$

This leaves us with the elementary abelian 3-groups and 5-groups. When $r \geq 3,$ for \mathbb{Z}_3^r we may take the first $(n-1)/2$ elements, except that we replace $(1, 1, \dots, 1, 0, 2, 2)$ by $(1, 1, \dots, 1, 2, 0, 0);$ one can easily determine that this way $2A = \mathbb{Z}_3^r \setminus \{(2, 2, \dots, 2)\}.$ Similarly, when $r \geq 2,$ for \mathbb{Z}_5^r we may take the first $(n-1)/2$ elements, except that we replace $(2, 2, \dots, 2, 1, 4)$ by $(2, 2, \dots, 2, 3, 0);$ this way $2A = \mathbb{Z}_5^r \setminus \{(4, 4, \dots, 4)\}.$ It can also be readily verified that for $\mathbb{Z}_3, \mathbb{Z}_5,$ or $\mathbb{Z}_3^2,$ we have $n-1 \notin S(G, 2).$ \square

4. THREE-FOLD SUMSETS

In this section we prove Theorem 1.2. We consider three cases: Theorem 4.2 covers the cases when the order n of the group has some prime divisor congruent to 2 mod 3, Theorem 4.3 deals with the cases when n is divisible by 3 but has no divisors that are congruent to 2 mod 3, and Theorem 4.4 and Corollary 4.6 establish the cases when all divisors of n are congruent to 1 mod 3.

Our first task is to find the 3-critical number of each finite abelian group. For a formula for the h -critical number with arbitrary $h,$ we refer to [2, 3].

Proposition 4.1. *Suppose that G is an abelian group of order $n.$ Then:*

$$\chi(G, 3) = \begin{cases} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p}\right) \frac{n}{3} + 1 & \text{if } n \text{ has prime divisors congruent to } 2 \text{ mod } 3, \\ & \text{and } p \text{ is the smallest such divisor,} \\ \lfloor \frac{n}{3} \rfloor + 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Proof. It is easy to see that the expressions above provide lower bounds for $\chi(G, 3).$ Indeed, if H is a subgroup of G of prime index p then G/H is cyclic; by Lemma 2.3, taking an arithmetic progression of size $\lfloor (p+1)/3 \rfloor$ in G/H yields a set of size $\lfloor (p+1)/3 \rfloor \cdot n/p$ in G whose 3-fold sumset has size

$$\left(3 \cdot \left\lfloor \frac{p+1}{3} \right\rfloor - 2\right) \cdot \frac{n}{p},$$

which is less than $n.$ This establishes the cases when n has prime divisors congruent to 2 mod 3, and p is the smallest such divisor, or when n is divisible by 3 (take $p = 3).$

For the case when all divisors of n are congruent to 1 mod 3, let (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r) be the type of $G,$ and note that

$$\frac{n-1}{3} = \sum_{k=1}^r \frac{n_k - 1}{3} \cdot n_{k+1} \cdots n_r.$$

Therefore, according to Proposition 2.4, the initial segment $\mathcal{I}(G, (n-1)/3)$ in G has a 3-fold sumset of size $n-3$ and is thus 3-incomplete.

We now show that the expressions above are upper bounds. Suppose that $A \subseteq G$ is a 3-incomplete subset of maximum size in G . Using the notations of Lemma 2.2, we have $|A| = k_1 n/d$ and $|3A| = k_2 n/d$ where d is the index of the stabilizer subgroup of $3A$. According to Lemma 2.2, $k_2 \geq 3k_1 - 2$, and since $3A \neq G$, we have $k_2 \leq d-1$, so $k_1 \leq (d+1)/3$.

We consider first the case when n has prime divisors congruent to $2 \pmod 3$, and p is the smallest such divisor. Since $(1+1/p)(n/3)$ is an integer, and is of the form $k_1 n/d$, we have $p \mid d$. Therefore, we find that

$$|A| = k_1 n/d \leq (d+1)/3 \cdot n/d \leq (1+1/p) \cdot n/3,$$

as claimed. However, if n has no divisors congruent to $2 \pmod 3$, then $k_1 \leq \lfloor d/3 \rfloor$, so

$$|A| = k_1 n/d \leq \lfloor d/3 \rfloor \cdot n/d \leq \lfloor n/3 \rfloor,$$

which completes the proof. \square

In the rest of this section we determine $S(G, 3)$ for all finite abelian groups G . We start with the case when $|G| = n$ has prime divisors congruent to $2 \pmod 3$ and p is the smallest such divisor.

Theorem 4.2. *Suppose that n has prime divisors congruent to $2 \pmod 3$, and p is the smallest such divisor. Then $S(G, 3) = \{n - n/p\}$.*

Proof. Suppose that A is a 3-incomplete subset of maximum size in G . Using the notations of Lemma 2.2, we have $|A| = (p+1)/3 \cdot n/p = k_1 n/d$ where d is the index of the stabilizer subgroup of $3A$. This implies that d is divisible by p . Furthermore, $k_1 = (p+1)/p \cdot d/3$; using Lemma 2.2 again yields

$$k_2 \geq 3k_1 - 2 = d + (d/p - 2) \geq d - 1,$$

with equality only if $d = p$. Therefore, $|3A|$ equals n or $n - n/p$, proving that $S(G, 3) \subseteq \{n - n/p\}$.

As $S(G, 3) \neq \emptyset$ (according to its definition), it is obtained that $S(G, 3) = \{n - n/p\}$. \square

As a special case of Theorem 4.2, we see that when the order n of G is odd but divisible by 5, then a 3-incomplete subset of maximum size $0.4n$ in G consists of two cosets of a subgroup of index 5. It is worth mentioning that, according to a result of Lev in [10, Theorem 5], if G is an elementary abelian 5-group, then any 3-incomplete subset of size at least $0.3n$ is contained in a union of two cosets of a subgroup of index 5.

Next, we address the case when the order n of G is divisible by 3 but has no divisors that are congruent to $2 \pmod 3$.

Theorem 4.3. *Suppose that n is divisible by 3 but has no prime divisors congruent to $2 \pmod 3$. We then have*

$$S(G, 3) = \{n - n/d : d \mid n, 3 \mid d, d \neq 3\} \cup \{n - 2n/d : d \mid n, 1 \leq \nu_3(d) \leq \nu_3(\kappa)\},$$

where κ is the exponent of G , and $\nu_3(t)$ is the highest power of 3 that divides the integer t .

Proof. By Proposition 4.1, the maximum size of a 3-incomplete subset of G in this case is $n/3$. We provide the proof through several claims.

Claim 1: $S(G, 3) \subseteq \{n - cn/d : d|n, 3|d, c = 1, 2\}$.

Proof of Claim 1: Using the notations of Lemma 2.2, we have $|A| = n/3 = k_1n/d$ where d is the index of the stabilizer subgroup of $3A$. This implies that d is divisible by 3 and $k_1 = d/3$; using Lemma 2.2 again yields $k_2 \geq d - 2$ and thus $|3A| = k_2n/d$ equals n , $n - n/d$, or $n - 2n/d$, proving our claim.

Claim 2: If d is a divisor of n that is divisible by 3 and $d \neq 3$, then $n - n/d \in S(G, 3)$.

Proof of Claim 2: By Lemma 2.3, it suffices to prove that all groups K of order d with $3|d$ and $d > 3$ contain some subset A of size $d/3$ for which $|3A| = d - 1$. Let H be any subgroup of index 3 in K , and set $A = (H \setminus \{h\}) \cup \{g\}$, where h and g are arbitrary elements of H and $K \setminus H$, respectively. Note that $d \neq 6$ since d has no divisors congruent to 2 mod 3, and thus we have $d \geq 9$. Therefore, $|H \setminus \{h\}| = d/3 - 1 > d/6$, so $2(H \setminus \{h\}) = H$ and $3(H \setminus \{h\}) = H$. But then

$$3A = 3(H \setminus \{h\}) \cup ((2(H \setminus \{h\}) + g) \cup ((H \setminus \{h\}) + 2g)) = G \setminus \{h + 2g\}.$$

Therefore, $|3A| = d - 1$, as claimed.

Claim 3: We have $2n/3 \notin S(G, 3)$.

Proof of Claim 3: As before, we see that A is the union of $k_1 = d/3$ cosets of H and $3A$ is the union of $k_2 \geq d - 2$ cosets of H , where d is the index of the stabilizer subgroup H of $3A$. But $2n/3 = k_2n/d \geq (d - 2)n/d$ yields $d \leq 6$, and since d is odd and is divisible by 3, this can only happen if $d = 3$. Therefore, $k_1 = 1$ and thus $k_2 = 1$ as well, which gives $|3A| = n/3$.

Claim 4: If d is a divisor of n for which $\nu_3(d) > \nu_3(\kappa)$, then $n - 2n/d \notin S(G, 3)$.

Proof of Claim 4: For the sake of contradiction, let us assume that A is a subset of G of size $n/3$ and $|3A| = n - 2n/d$.

Suppose that H is the stabilizer of $3A$ and that H has index δ in G ; we will first show that $\delta = d$. According to Lemma 2.2, the set A is the union of $k_1 = \delta/3$ cosets of H , and $3A$ is the union of $\delta - 2\delta/d = k_2 \geq 3k_1 - 2$ cosets of H . Hence, $d \geq \delta$ and d divides 2δ , thus d is either δ or 2δ ; since n is odd, we obtain $d = \delta$.

Let ϕ be the canonical map from G to G/H . With the notations $G' = G/H$ and $A' = \phi(A)$, we then have $|G'| = d$, $|A'| = d/3$, and $|3A'| = d - 2$.

We let $\{x, y\} = G' \setminus (3A')$, and note that $x - A' \subseteq G' \setminus 2A'$ and $y - A' \subseteq G' \setminus 2A'$. Since the stabilizer of $3A'$ in G' is trivial, so is the stabilizer of $2A'$, and thus by Kneser's Theorem we have

$$|G' \setminus 2A'| \leq |G'| - 2|A'| + 1 = d/3 + 1.$$

This means that $x - A'$ and $y - A'$ have at least $d/3 - 1$ elements in common.

Now let $\ell = x - y$, $K = \langle \ell \rangle$, and $|K| = k$. Since

$$|A' \cap (A' + \ell)| = |(x - A') \cap (y - A')| \geq |A'| - 1,$$

A' is the union of arithmetic progressions, each of difference ℓ , and at most one of them has size less than k . Since $k | \kappa$ and, according to our assumption, $\nu_3(d) > \nu_3(\kappa)$, we have $\nu_3(d) > \nu_3(k)$, and thus $d/3$ is divisible by k , which then means that A' is the union of full cosets of K . Therefore, $3A'$ is the union of full cosets of K as well, and thus $d - 2$ is divisible by k . But then $k \leq 2$, and thus $k = 1$ since k is odd, which is a contradiction if $x \neq y$.

Claim 5: If d is a divisor of n for which $1 \leq \nu_3(d) \leq \nu_3(\kappa)$, then $n - 2n/d \in S(G, 3)$.

Proof of Claim 5: Suppose that G is of type (n_1, \dots, n_r) ; we can then find positive integers d_1, \dots, d_r so that $d_i | n_i$ for each $i = 1, \dots, r$; $d_1 \cdots d_r = d$; and d_1, \dots, d_{r-1} are all congruent to 1 mod 3. We then have

$$\frac{d}{3} = \sum_{k=1}^{r-1} \frac{d_k - 1}{3} d_{k+1} \cdots d_r + \frac{d_r}{3}.$$

Let H be a subgroup of G so that $K = G/H$ is of type (d_1, \dots, d_r) . According to Proposition 2.4, the initial segment $\mathcal{I}(K, d/3)$ of size $d/3$ has 3-fold sumset of size $d - 2$. By Lemma 2.3, G then contains a subset of size $n/3$ whose 3-fold subset has size $n - 2n/d$.

This completes the proof of Theorem 4.3. \square

For our final case, we consider groups whose order n only has divisors that are congruent to 1 mod 3. Our previous techniques work well for all groups in this category, other than elementary abelian 7-groups, so we consider those separately.

Theorem 4.4. *If all divisors of the order n of G are congruent to 1 mod 3, but G is not isomorphic to an elementary abelian 7-group, then $S(G, 3) = \{n - 3, n - 1\}$.*

Proof. By Proposition 4.1, the maximum size of a 3-incomplete subset of G in this case is $(n - 1)/3$. We provide the proof through the following three claims.

Claim 1: $S(G, 3) \subseteq \{n - 3, n - 2, n - 1\}$.

Proof of Claim 1: Using the notations of Lemma 2.2, we have $|A| = (n - 1)/3 = k_1 n/d$ where d is the index of the stabilizer subgroup of $3A$. This implies that d is divisible by n and thus $d = n$ and $k_1 = (n - 1)/3$; using Lemma 2.2 again yields $k_2 \geq n - 3$, as claimed.

Claim 2: We have $\{n - 3, n - 1\} \subseteq S(G, 3)$.

Proof of Claim 2: Suppose that G is of type (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r) . Since n_1, \dots, n_r are all congruent to 1 mod 3, we have

$$\frac{n - 1}{3} = \sum_{k=1}^r \frac{n_k - 1}{3} \cdot n_{k+1} \cdots n_r.$$

Therefore, Proposition 2.4 yields that $n - 3 \in S(G, 3)$ and, since $n_r \geq 10$, $n - 1 \in S(G, 3)$ as well.

Claim 3: We have $n - 2 \notin S(G, 3)$.

Proof of Claim 3: Suppose that A is a subset of G of size $(n - 1)/3$, and assume indirectly that $3A = G \setminus \{x, y\}$ with some $x, y \in G$, $x \neq y$.

According to Lemma 2.2, the size of the stabilizer of $3A$ divides both $|A| = (n - 1)/3$ and $|3A| = n - 2$, therefore it is trivial. Then so is the stabilizer of $2A$, so by Kneser's Theorem,

$$|G \setminus 2A| \leq |G| - 2|A| + 1 = |A| + 2.$$

Since $x - A$ and $y - A$ are both of size $(n - 1)/3$ and are subsets of $G \setminus 2A$, this then means that they must have at least $|A| - 2$ elements in common.

Now let $\ell = x - y$, $K = \langle \ell \rangle$, and $|K| = k$. Since

$$|A \cap (A + \ell)| = |(x - A) \cap (y - A)| \geq |A| - 2,$$

A is the union of arithmetic progressions, each of difference ℓ , and at most two of them have size less than k . Furthermore, note that $(n-1)/3 \equiv (k-1)/3 \pmod{k}$. Therefore, we have three possibilities:

- (1) A is the union of some full cosets of K and an arithmetic progression of size $(k-1)/3$;
- (2) A is the union of some full cosets of K and two arithmetic progressions that are in different cosets of K , and the sizes of these two arithmetic progressions add to $(k-1)/3$ or $k + (k-1)/3$; or
- (3) A is the union of some full cosets of K and two (disjoint) arithmetic progressions that are in the same coset of K , and the sizes of these two arithmetic progressions add to $(k-1)/3$.

We can quickly rule out the first case as that would lead to $|3A| \equiv k-3 \pmod{k}$, contradicting $|3A| = n-2$.

For the second case, suppose that the two arithmetic progressions that are not full cosets of K are B_1 and B_2 , with $|B_1| = r_1$ and $|B_2| = r_2$. Observe that if B_1 and B_2 are within distinct cosets of K , then so are $3B_1, 2B_1 + B_2, B_1 + 2B_2$, and $3B_2$. When $r_1 + r_2 = (k-1)/3$, then each of these four sumsets have size less than k , so we have

$$n-2 = |3A| \equiv |3B_1| + |2B_1 + B_2| + |B_1 + 2B_2| + |3B_2| = 6(r_1 + r_2) - 8 \equiv -10$$

\pmod{k} . This implies that 8 is divisible by k , and since $k > 1$, this means that k is even, which is not possible since k is odd. If $r_1 + r_2 = k + (k-1)/3$, then at least three of the sets $3B_1, 2B_1 + B_2, B_1 + 2B_2$, and $3B_2$ have size k . Indeed, by symmetry we may assume that we have $r_1 \geq r_2$, in which case

$$3r_1 - 2 \geq 2r_1 + r_2 - 2 \geq r_1 + 2r_2 - 2 = k + (k-1)/3 + r_2 - 2 \geq k.$$

Therefore, if $3r_2 - 2 < k$, then $n-2 = |3A| \equiv 3r_2 - 2 \pmod{k}$, but that is a contradiction, since r_2 , and therefore $3r_2$, is not divisible by k , and if $3r_2 - 2 \geq k$, then $n-2 = |3A| \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$, contradicting that $k > 1$ is odd.

Let us now turn to case (3), where A contains arithmetic progressions B_1 and B_2 that are in the same coset of K and have a combined size of $(k-1)/3$. It suffices to show that it is not possible that $3(B_1 \cup B_2)$ has size $k-2$, and this can be accomplished by proving that if I_1 and I_2 are disjoint intervals in the cyclic group \mathbb{Z}_k with $|I_1| + |I_2| = (k-1)/3$, then $|3(I_1 \cup I_2)| \neq k-2$.

Without loss of generality, we may assume that

$$I_1 = \{0, 1, \dots, r_1 - 1\}$$

and

$$I_2 = \{s, s+1, \dots, s+r_2-1\}$$

for some positive integers r_1, r_2 , and s with $r_1 + r_2 = (k-1)/3$, $r_1 \geq r_2$, and $r_1 + 1 \leq s \leq k - r_2 - 1$. Also, we may further assume that $s \leq (k-1)/3 + r_1$, which holds when among the two gaps between I_1 and I_2 , the size of $\{r_1, r_1 + 1, \dots, s-1\}$ is at most as much as the size of $\{s+r_2, s+r_2+1, \dots, k-1\}$.

The set $3(I_1 + I_2)$ is the union of four intervals:

$$\begin{aligned} 3I_1 &= \{0, 1, \dots, 3r_1 - 3\}, \\ 2I_1 + I_2 &= \{s, s+1, \dots, s+2r_1+r_2-3\}, \\ I_1 + 2I_2 &= \{2s, 2s+1, \dots, 2s+r_1+2r_2-3\}, \\ 3I_2 &= \{3s, 3s+1, \dots, 3s+3r_2-3\}. \end{aligned}$$

Now if $r_1 + 1 \leq s \leq (k-1)/3 + r_2 - 2$, then there is no gap between these intervals, thus they cover (as integer intervals) $[0, 3s + 3r_2 - 3]$. Since

$$3s + 3r_2 - 3 \geq 3(r_1 + 1) + 3r_2 - 3 = k - 1,$$

all elements of \mathbb{Z}_k are covered.

If $(k-1)/3 + r_2 - 1 \leq s \leq (k-1)/3 + r_1 - 2$, then there is no gap between the first three intervals, so their union is $[0, 2s + r_1 + 2r_2 - 3]$. Here we have

$$2s + r_1 + 2r_2 - 3 \geq 2(k-1)/3 + 2r_2 - 2 + r_1 + 2r_2 - 3 = k + 3r_2 - 6 \geq k - 3.$$

If either of the inequalities is a strict inequality, then the union of these three intervals covers \mathbb{Z}_k with the exception of at most one element. On the other hand, if both inequalities are equalities, then we have $s = (k-1)/3$, $r_1 = (k-4)/3$, and $r_2 = 1$; in this case we have $3(I_1 \cup I_2) = \mathbb{Z}_k \setminus \{k-2\}$.

If $(k-1)/3 + r_1 - 1 \leq s$, then either $s = (k-1)/3 + r_1 - 1$ or $s = (k-1)/3 + r_1$. Note that if $r_1 \geq (k-1)/6 + 1$, then $s \leq (k-1)/3 + r_1 \leq 3r_1 - 2$, which means that there is no gap between the first two intervals, and thus they cover $[0, s + 2r_1 + r_2 - 3]$. If we also have $s + r_1 \geq 2(k-1)/3 + 2$, then

$$s + 2r_1 + r_2 - 3 \geq 2(k-1)/3 + 2 + (k-1)/3 - 3 = k - 2,$$

and thus all elements of \mathbb{Z}_k are covered with the possible exception of $k-1$. If we still have $r_1 \geq (k-1)/6 + 1$ but $s + r_1 \leq 2(k-1)/3 + 1$, then we must have $r_1 = (k-1)/6 + 1$ and $s = (k-1)/2$, so the first two intervals cover $[0, k-3]$, but the third interval includes $k-1$, and thus all elements of \mathbb{Z}_k are covered with the possible exception of $k-2$.

This leaves us with only the cases when $r_1 = r_2 = (k-1)/6$, and $s = (k-1)/3 + r_1 - 1 = (k-3)/2$ or $s = (k-1)/2$. In the first case, we can compute that, as a set of integers, $3(I_1 \cup I_2)$ equals

$$[0, 2k-8] \setminus \{i(k-3)/2 - 1 : i = 1, 2, 3\}.$$

For $k = 7$, this means that $3(I_1 \cup I_2) = \{0, 2, 4, 6\}$, so $|3(I_1 \cup I_2)| \neq k-2$. When $k > 7$, then $k + (k-3)/2 - 1$ is between $3(k-3)/2 - 1$ and $2k-8$, so we find that $3(I_1 \cup I_2) = \mathbb{Z}_k \setminus \{k-4\}$.

The remaining case is when $r_1 = r_2 = (k-1)/6$ and $s = (k-1)/2$, in which case $I_1 \cup I_2$ is an arithmetic progression with starting element $(k-1)/2$ and difference $(k+1)/2$, so $|3(I_1 \cup I_2)| = k-3$. \square

The only groups left to treat are the elementary abelian 7-groups, and they require considerable attention. Our result will follow easily from the following structure theorem.

Theorem 4.5. *Let r be a positive integer. Suppose that A is a subset of $G = \mathbb{Z}_7^r$ of size $(7^r - 1)/3$ and $0 \notin 3A$. Then there is an ascending chain of subgroups*

$$\{0\} = H_0 < H_1 < \dots < H_r = G$$

and elements

$$a_0, a'_0 \in H_1, \quad a_k \in H_{k+1} \setminus H_k \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, r-1,$$

such that

$$A = \{a_0, a'_0\} \cup \bigcup_{k=1}^{r-1} (\{a_k, 2a_k\} + H_k).$$

Proof. First, recall that \mathbb{Z}_7^r has exactly $(7^r - 1)/6$ subgroups of index 7; indeed, identifying \mathbb{Z}_7^r with the r -dimensional vector space over \mathbb{Z}_7 , we note that each $(r - 1)$ -dimensional subspace corresponds to its normal vector that is unique up to nonzero scalar multiples.

Next, we prove that our conditions imply that for any subgroup H of G we have $|A \cap H| = (|H| - 1)/3$. Since by Proposition 4.1 we have

$$\chi(H, 3) = (|H| - 1)/3 + 1,$$

we see that H may contain at most $(|H| - 1)/3$ elements of A , since otherwise $H \subseteq 3A$, contradicting $0 \notin 3A$. Therefore, we only need to prove that H contains at least $(|H| - 1)/3$ elements of A . As $0 \notin 3A$ implies that $0 \notin A$, this trivially holds for $|H| = 1$.

For subgroups of order 7, we observe that the collection of *pierced lines*

$$\{H \setminus \{0\} : H \leq G, |H| = 7\}$$

forms a partition of $G \setminus \{0\}$. Therefore, in order to have $|A| = (|G| - 1)/3$, no pierced line, and thus no subgroup of order 7, may contain fewer than 2 elements of A . Since for all subgroups H of G , $H \setminus \{0\}$ is the disjoint union of pierced lines, our claim follows.

We are now ready to prove our theorem. For $r = 1$ there is nothing to prove.

We consider the case of $r = 2$ next, and suppose that A is a 16-element subset of \mathbb{Z}_7^2 such that $0 \notin 3A$. Note that if $H \leq \mathbb{Z}_7^2$ is of order 7, then at most two H -cosets can contain 3 or more elements from A . Suppose, to the contrary, that H -cosets C_1, C_2 , and C_3 each contain at least 3 elements from A . Since $\chi(G/H, 3) = \chi(\mathbb{Z}_7, 3) = 3$, we can then find (not necessarily distinct) indices $i, j, k \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ so that $C_i + C_j + C_k = H$. Letting $A_i = A \cap C_i$, $A_j = A \cap C_j$, and $A_k = A \cap C_k$, Kneser's Theorem implies that

$$|A_i + A_j + A_k| \geq |A_i| + |A_j| + |A_k| - 2|K|,$$

where K is the stabilizer subgroup of $A_i + A_j + A_k$ in H . Since $0 \notin 3A$, here $A_i + A_j + A_k$ is a proper subset of H , and thus is aperiodic (that is, K is trivial). But then our inequality becomes

$$6 \geq |A_i| + |A_j| + |A_k| - 2,$$

a contradiction.

Next, we show that there is a subgroup H of G of order 7 so that one of its cosets contains at least 4 elements from A . For the sake of contradiction, assume the contrary. Then for each H , out of the seven H -cosets, two contain 3 elements from A and five contain 2 elements from A . Let us count the size of the following set in two different ways:

$$S := \{(C, a, a') : C \text{ is an affine line in } G; a, a' \in C \cap A; a \neq a'\},$$

where by an *affine line* we mean a coset of a subgroup of order 7. On one hand, after arbitrarily choosing distinct elements a and a' from A , there exists a unique affine line C through a and a' , thus $|S| = |A| \cdot (|A| - 1) = 240$.

For a different count, we partition the 56 affine lines into 8 different *parallel classes* depending on which subgroup they correspond to. According to our indirect assumption, for each such class, the numbers of elements of A lying on the 7 parallel lines are 3, 3, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2. Therefore, for each class the number of suitable pairs a, a' is $6 + 6 + 2 + 2 + 2 + 2 + 2 = 22$, yielding $|S| = 8 \cdot 22 = 176$, a contradiction.

Therefore, we may choose a subgroup H of order 7 in G in such a way that at least one of its cosets contains at least 4 elements from A . We choose an arbitrary element $c \in G \setminus H$, and let $C_i = ic + H$ for $i = 0, \dots, 6$; we also set $A_i = C_i \cap A$. According to our considerations

at the beginning of the proof, we have $|A_0| = 2$, and we may assume that $|A_1| = \max\{|A_i|\}$; by the previous reasoning, $|A_1| \geq 4$.

An argument similar to the one above using Kneser's Theorem yields that when there are (not necessarily distinct) indices $i, j, k \in \{0, \dots, 6\}$ for which $i + j + k \equiv 0 \pmod{7}$, none of A_i , A_j , or A_k is the emptyset, and $|A_i| + |A_j| + |A_k| \geq 9$, then $H \subseteq 3A$, contradicting $0 \notin 3A$. Therefore, we have $2|A_1| + |A_5| \leq 8$ if $A_5 \neq \emptyset$; since $|A_1| \geq 4$, this yields $A_5 = \emptyset$. Similarly, $|A_0| + |A_1| + |A_6| \leq 8$ if $A_6 \neq \emptyset$, and thus $|A_6| \leq \max\{0, 6 - |A_1|\}$; and $|A_1| + 2|A_3| \leq 8$, and thus $|A_3| \leq 4 - |A_1|/2$. Furthermore, we can easily see that $|A_2| + |A_4| \leq |A_1|$; indeed, if neither A_2 nor A_4 is empty, then this follows from $|A_2| + |A_4| \leq 8 - |A_1|$ since $|A_1| \geq 4$, and it holds trivially when one of A_2 or A_4 is empty, by our choice of A_1 . We thus have

$$\begin{aligned} 16 = |A| &= |A_0| + |A_1| + |A_3| + |A_5| + |A_6| + (|A_2| + |A_4|) \\ &\leq 2 + |A_1| + (4 - |A_1|/2) + 0 + \max\{0, 6 - |A_1|\} + |A_1|, \end{aligned}$$

from which we get $|A_1| = 7$. But then our previous inequalities yield $A_3 = A_6 = \emptyset$ and $|A_2| + |A_4| = 7$; the latter equality can only occur when one of A_2 or A_4 is empty and the other is a full coset.

Note that (C_0, C_1, C_2) and (C_0, C_4, C_1) are both 3-term arithmetic progressions in G/H . Let us now set $H_1 = H$, $\{a_0, a'_0\} = A_0$, and $a_1 = c$ or $a_1 = 4c$ depending on whether $A = A_0 \cup C_1 \cup C_2$ or $A = A_0 \cup C_1 \cup C_4$. Then

$$A = \{a_0, a'_0\} \cup (\{a_1, 2a_1\} + H_1),$$

and thus our proof for the case of $r = 2$ is complete.

We now use induction to prove that our result holds for any $r \geq 3$. To start, we examine cosets of subgroups of rank $r - 2$ in G , which here we call flats; more specifically, we say that a coset of a subgroup K of rank $r - 2$ is a *flat of type K* . We can count the number of flats fully contained in A as follows. Since none of them is a subgroup, each flat F contained in A generates a unique subgroup $\langle F \rangle$ of index 7. By our inductive hypothesis, $\langle F \rangle \cap A$ consists of two full flats and a part of a third, all of the same type. Therefore, $\langle F \rangle \cap A$ cannot contain a full third flat of any type. Since there are $(7^r - 1)/6$ subgroups of index 7 in G , A contains exactly $(7^r - 1)/3$ flats; we call these *A-flats*.

We see that not all A -flats are of the same type: indeed, a subgroup of rank $r - 2$ in G has 49 cosets, of which at most 48 are in A , but $(7^r - 1)/3$ is more than 48 if $r \geq 3$. Now let F_1 and F_2 be A -flats of types K_1 and K_2 , respectively, with $K_1 \neq K_2$. Then $H = K_1 + K_2$ is a subgroup of index 7 in G , since $K_1 + K_2 = G$ would imply that $F_1 + 2F_2 = G$, contradicting $3A \neq G$. For the same reason, H contains every subgroup of rank $r - 2$ that has a flat in A .

Now let $c \in G \setminus H$ be an arbitrary element; the cosets of H in G then are $C_i = ic + H$ as $i = 0, 1, \dots, 6$. Note that each A -flat is contained entirely in one of the seven cosets of H in G ; let \mathcal{F}_i be the union of A -flats in C_i . By our inductive assumption, H itself has exactly two A -flats, and they are of the same type. However, there has to be at least one coset of H that has at least two A -flats of different types, since we have more than $2 + 6 \cdot 7 = 44$ A -flats; without loss of generality, suppose that C_1 contains at least two different types of A -flats.

Note that the sum of two flats of different types is an entire coset of H . Therefore, $\mathcal{F}_6 = \emptyset$, since otherwise $\mathcal{F}_0 + \mathcal{F}_1 + \mathcal{F}_6 = C_0$, contradicting $0 \notin 3A$. Similarly, from $1 + 3 + 3 \equiv 1 + 1 + 5 \equiv 1 + 2 + 4 \equiv 0 \pmod{7}$, we get $\mathcal{F}_3 = \mathcal{F}_5 = \emptyset$ and that at least one of \mathcal{F}_2 or \mathcal{F}_4 is empty. So either $C_0 \cup C_1 \cup C_2$ or $C_0 \cup C_1 \cup C_4$ contains all A -flats; since C_0 contains exactly 2, the other two cosets each have to contain the maximum possible number that they can, which is $7 \cdot (7^{r-1} - 1)/6$. But if a coset of H contains 7 A -flats of the same type, then it is

the disjoint union of these A -flats, so we must have $A = (A \cap H) \cup (c + H) \cup (2c + H)$ or $A = (A \cap H) \cup (c + H) \cup (4c + H)$. This means that we can set $H_r = H$ and $a_r = c$ or $a_r = 4c$, and then apply the inductive hypothesis within H . This completes our proof. \square

Corollary 4.6. *If G is an elementary abelian 7-group, then $S(G, 3) = \{n - 3\}$.*

Proof. Let A be a 3-incomplete subset of G of size $(n - 1)/3$. After translating A , if needed, we may assume that $0 \notin 3A$; we can then use Theorem 4.5 to show that $|3A| = n - 3$. Indeed, we find that if $n = 7^r$, then

$$|3A| = 6 \cdot 7^{r-1} + 6 \cdot 7^{r-2} + \dots + 6 \cdot 7 + 6 - 2 = 7^r - 3.$$

\square

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