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# Additive problems in abelian groups 

PhD dissertation

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## Author's declaration

Aware of legal responsibility I hereby declare that I have written this dissertation myself and all the contents of the dissertation have been obtained by legal means.
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#### Abstract

In this thesis we shall present some results concerning additive properties of finite sets in abelian groups. It will be of primary importance to us to consider the sumsets $$
A+B=\{a+b: a \in A, b \in B\}
$$ for subsets $A, B$ of an abelian group. The problems considered are of two general flavors. One is a kind of a structure theory of set addition that is primarily concerned with identifying sets characterized by some extremal properties, e.g. small doubling. The doubling is defined, for any finite subset $A$ of an abelian group, to be $|A+A| /|A|$. In this respect we investigate the Green-Ruzsa theorem which almost completely characterizes sets with this property. In particular, we prove the first linear bound on the dimension of the resulting progression.

The other subject of our interest is analysis of linear equations: finding quantitative conditions on solvability of non-invariant equations and counting the solutions thereof. In this regard we prove the first tight upper bounds on Ramsey-type numbers for general linear equations and prove Schinzel's conjecture on the number of solutions to a linear equation in cyclic groups.


## Streszczenie

Praca prezentuje kilka wyników dotyczących addytywnych właściwości skończonych zbiorów w grupach przemiennych. Obiektem naszego szczególnego zainteresowania będą zwłaszcza zbiory sum (ang. sumsets) określone dla podzbiorów $A, B$ dowolnej grupy przemiennej jako $A+B=\{a+b: a \in A, b \in B\}$.

Rozważane zagadnienia są dwojakiego rodzaju. Jedne stanowią rodzaj strukturalnej teorii arytmetyki zbiorów i za cel stawiają sobie możliwie dokładną charakteryzację zbiorów określonych poprzez pewne ekstremalne własności. W naszym wypadku będą to zbiory o niewielkim współczynniku podwojenia (ang. doubling), który jest zdefiniowany dla dowolnego skończonego podzbioru $A$ grupy przemiennej jako $K(A)=|A+A| /|A|$. W związku z tym zagadnieniem badamy twierdzenie Greena-Ruzsy, które niemal całkowicie charakteryzuje zbiory o niewielkim współczynniku podwojenia. W szczególności, dowodzimy pierwszego liniowego ograniczenia na wymiar ciągu w tym twierdzeniu.

Drugim obszarem naszego zainteresowania jest analiza równań liniowych w grupach przemiennych, a celem określenie warunków istnienia (nietrywialnych) rozwiązań tych równań lub oszacowanie liczby tych rozwiązań. W pracy dowodzimy pierwszego wolno rosnącego górnego ograniczenia na wielkość liczb typu Ramseya związanych z ogólnymi równaniami liniowymi. Przedstawiamy również dowód hipotezy Schinzla, związanej z liczbą rozwiązań równań liniowych w grupach cyklicznych.

## Keywords

additive combinatorics, Freiman theorem, Green-Ruzsa theorem, linear equations, Rado theorem, arithmetic Ramsey problems, Schur numbers, Schinzel conjecture

## AMS Classification

11B30 Arithmetic combinatorics; higher degree uniformity
11D79 Congruences in many variables
11P70 Inverse problems of additive number theory, including sumsets

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## Notation

Here we present pieces of notation that can be ambiguous or rarely used, or have no standard meaning at all.
$C \quad$ Absolute constants, that may differ between occurrences, will be occasionally denoted by $C$.
arg, argument function For $z \in \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}, \arg (z)$ is the only $\varphi \in(-\pi, \pi]$ such that $z \cdot e^{-i \varphi} \in \mathbb{R}$.
$\|\cdot\|_{\mathbb{R} / \mathbb{Z}}$
$\|\cdot\|_{\ell_{1}}$ $\|x\|_{\mathbb{R} / \mathbb{Z}}=\min _{y \in \mathbb{Z}}|x-y|$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ $\|f\|_{\ell_{1}(X)}=\sum_{x \in X}|f(x)|$. This definition makes sense for every countable $X$.
$[n] \quad[n]=\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$
$\mathcal{P} \quad \mathcal{P}=\{2,3,5, \ldots\}$, the set of primes
$G \quad$ an abelian group

$$
P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots \quad \text { arithmetic progressions, i.e. sets of the form }\left\{x_{0}+i d\right\}_{i=0}^{L} \text { in } G
$$

$$
A \pm B, \text { sumset } \quad A \pm B=\{a \pm b: a \in A, b \in B\} \text { for any } A, B \subseteq G
$$

$k A-l A$, iterated sumset We extend the above definition in a natural way, i.e. we define $0 A=\{0\}$ and $k A=\underbrace{A+\cdots+A}_{k}$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}_{+}$.
$a \cdot A \quad a \cdot A=\{a x: x \in A\}$ for $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $A \subseteq G$

We emphasize the difference, that we shall constantly preserve, between the two above notions.
$K(A)$, doubling
$d(P)$, progression's dimension
$\operatorname{Span}(X) \quad \operatorname{Span}(X)=\left\{\sum_{x \in X} \varepsilon_{x} x: \varepsilon_{x} \in\{-1,0,1\}\right\}$. In particular, it is an $|X|$-dimensional arithmetic progression
$A, A(\cdot) \quad$ We identify a set $A \subseteq G$ with its indicator function $A(x)=1$ if $x \in A$, $A(x)=0$ otherwise.
$\mu_{X} \quad$ the uniform probability measure on a finite set $X \subseteq G$. If $G$ is finite, we identify discrete measures with their densities w.r.t. the uniform counting measure on $G$.
$\widehat{G}$, dual group $\quad$ the group of characters of the group $G$. If $G=\mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}$, then $\widehat{G} \simeq \mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}$ where $r \in\{0, \ldots, N-1\}$ is identified with the character $x \mapsto e^{2 \pi i x r / N}$.
$\widehat{f}$, Fourier coefficient $\quad \widehat{f}(r)=\sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}} f(x) e^{-2 \pi i x r / N}$ for any $f: \mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}$ The inversion formula states that $f(x)=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{r \in \mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{f}(r) e^{2 \pi i x r / N}$.
$f * g$, convolution
$\operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}(A)$, large spectrum
$B_{\eta} \quad$ For a Bohr set $B=B(\Gamma, \gamma)$, see Definition 2.6. we write $B_{\eta}=B(\Gamma, \eta \gamma)$
$o(\cdot), O(\cdot), \Omega(\cdot), \ll \quad$ For positive functions $f, g$ we define the asymptotic notations $f=o(g)$, $f=O(g), f=\Omega(g)$ and $f \ll g$ to mean $\lim \frac{f}{g}=0, \lim \sup \frac{f}{g}<\infty, g=O(f)$ and $f=O(g)$, respectively.
Note that the precise meaning of these symbols depends on the particular limit chosen. In our considerations it is usually in the infinity for natural-valued parameters like $n$ and in $0^{+}$for real-valued $\delta, \varepsilon>0$. In every case either the meaning is clear from context, or we explicitly point it out.
Also, the definition of the $\Omega$ notation follows complexity-theoretic definition of Knuth [Knu76] rather than the definition of Hardy and Littlewood sometimes used in analytic number theory.

## Chapter 1

## Introduction

In this thesis we shall present some results concerning additive properties of finite sets in abelian groups. It will be of primary importance to us to consider the sumsets

$$
A+B=\{a+b: a \in A, b \in B\}
$$

for subsets $A, B$ of an abelian group.
The problems considered are of two general flavors. One is a kind of a structure theory of set addition that is primarily concerned with identifying sets characterized by some extremal properties, e.g. small doubling. The doubling is defined, for any finite subset $A$ of an abelian group, to be $|A+A| /|A|$. In this respect we investigate the Green-Ruzsa theorem which almost completely characterizes sets with this property. In particular, we prove the first linear bound on the dimension of the resulting progression.

The other subject of our interest is analysis of linear equations: finding quantitative conditions on solvability of non-invariant equations and counting the solutions thereof. In this regard we prove the first tight upper bounds on Ramsey-type numbers for general linear equations and prove Schinzel's conjecture on the number of solutions to a linear equation in cyclic groups.

A huge part of the thesis touches upon a recently developed, and still rapidly developing field of additive combinatorics that is of a substantially combinatorial nature, especially when compared to more traditional number-theoretic approaches.

### 1.1. Additive problems and additive combinatorics

Additive problems are undoubtedly among the oldest ever considered. Let us now present some of the many that were posed and successfully resolved years ago together with similarly innocent-looking ones that proved much more difficult. Let us begin with the following two.

Theorem (Pythagorean triples, Euclid). Three positive integers $a, b$ and $c$ form a primitive Pythagorean triple, i.e. are co-prime and satisfy the equation $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2}$, if and only if there
are two co-prime positive integers of different parity $m>n$ such that $a=m^{2}-n^{2}, b=2 m n$ and $c=m^{2}+n^{2}$, or $a=2 m n, b=m^{2}-n^{2}$ and $c=m^{2}+n^{2}$.

Theorem (Fermat, Wiles). No three positive integers $a, b, c$ satisfy the equation $a^{n}+b^{n}=c^{n}$ for any integer $n$ greater than two.

Let the others be as follows.
Theorem (Diophantos, Lagrange's four-square theorem). Every natural number $n$ is a sum of four squares, i.e. for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there are $n_{1}, \ldots, n_{4} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n=n_{1}^{2}+\cdots+n_{4}^{2}$.

Theorem (Waring, Hilbert). For every positive integer $k$ there is a natural number $g(k)$ such that every natural number $n$ is a sum of $g(k) k^{\text {th }}$ powers, i.e. for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there are naturals $n_{1}, \ldots, n_{g(k)} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n=n_{1}^{k}+\cdots+n_{g(k)}^{k}$.
Conjecture (Goldbach). Every even integer greater than 2 can be expressed as the sum of two primes.

That the problems within the families above are substantially different one from another is now well known. And it is not merely that it took hundreds of years before Fermat's Last Theorem has been proved, and that the Goldbach conjecture has not been settled yet. It is also that the results obtained required methods more and more involved.

The existence of Pythagorean triples was confirmed in the antiquity by elementary, purely number-theoretic considerations. Lagrange's four-square theorem has many elementary proofs that already share an algebraic flavor that is present in abundance in Wiles's proof of Fermat's Last Theorem. Waring's problem required, on the other hand, invention of the circle method, that gave rise to one of the basis of analytic number theory, before it has been truly understood in the interesting regime of sufficiently large $n$ 's. The Goldbach conjecture is still waiting to be settled.

Among the methods introduced over the years to research on additive problems there is some number that we could classify as combinatorial. We give the first impression of these methods below.

### 1.1.1. Schur's approach to Fermat's Last Theorem

Let us consider Fermat's equation for some integer $k \geqslant 3$. Quite a natural attempt to prove that $x^{k}+y^{k}=z^{k}$ has no solutions in the integers is to show that the congruence $x^{k}+y^{k} \equiv z^{k}$ $(\bmod p)$ has no non-trivial solution for infinitely many primes $p$. Unfortunately, this approach fails, as showed by Dickson [Dic09] who proved that such solutions exist for every sufficiently large prime $p$. The proof was quite involved however.

In 1916 Schur proved Dickson's result as a simple corollary to the following lemma, now known as Schur's theorem.

Lemma (Schur [Sch17). If one partitions the numbers $1,2, \ldots, N$ arbitrarily into $m$ parts and $N \geqslant m!e$, then there are two numbers in one part such that their difference belongs to the same part as well.

The relation between the lemma and Fermat's Last Theorem follows from partitioning the elements of the multiplicative group $(\bmod p)$ into cosets of the subgroup formed by the $k^{\text {th }}$ powers. Because there is at most $k$ cosets of this subgroup, the lemma proves existence of a solution to the congruence if $p>e k!+1$.

### 1.1.2. Schnirelmann's approach to the Goldbach conjecture

While the Goldbach conjecture is still wide open, Schnirelmann proved in Sch30 the following theorem, which is a weak form of the Goldbach conjecture.

Theorem (Schnirelmann). There is a natural number $k$ such that every natural number $n$ is a sum of at most $k$ prime numbers.

Subsequent works by Hardy and Littlewood, Winogradow, and others culminated in a recent result of Helfgott [Hel12, Hel13, HP13] where he claims to improve estimates on major and minor arcs in the circle method enough to prove that every odd natural number greater than 5 is a sum of three primes.

The idea followed by Schnirelmann was to first deduce from application of the Brun sieve that the set $2 \mathcal{P}=\left\{p_{1}+p_{2}: p_{1}, p_{2} \in \mathcal{P}\right\}$ has positive lower density, i.e. $\underline{\mathrm{d}}(2 \mathcal{P})>0$, where

$$
\underline{\mathrm{d}}(A)=\liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|A \cap[n]|}{n} .
$$

Subsequently he considered iterative sumsets of a general set to prove that whenever $\underline{\mathrm{d}}(A)>0$ and $0,1 \in A$ then $k A=\mathbb{N}$ for some $k$. The proof concludes if one can exclude 1 from considerations, which quickly follows by first considering any partition of $n-2$ into elements of $2 \mathcal{P} \cup\{1\}$.

The above considerations are perfectly characteristic to modern additive combinatorics. Solving (multidimensional) linear equations and investigating the rules governing set addition in integers or other abelian groups, are two complementary areas of research in the domain. This also reflects in us using the tools originating from the latter while aiming at the former. To make this parallel between set addition and investigating solutions to an equation in a set more explicit, let us observe that whether the density of $A+A$ is significantly larger than that of $A$, or not, should be highly correlated to the number of solutions of the equation

$$
x+y=x^{\prime}+y^{\prime}
$$

in the initial segments of the set $A$, i.e. in $A \cap[n]$ for all $n$.

### 1.2. The problems of our interest

In the thesis we deal with three problems whose origins are the two combinatorial methods mentioned in the previous section.

### 1.2.1. Sets with small doubling

The analogy described at the very end of the previous section establishes a rough equivalence between the doubling of a set, and the number of solutions in it to the equation $x+y=x^{\prime}+y^{\prime}$. To make it precise we would need to recall the Balog-Szemerédi(-Gowers) theorem [BS94], Gow01, Proposition 7.3], but for the sole purpose of introducing Freiman's theorem we take this equivalence for granted.

Now, the above problem clearly has two extremal cases. One is when there is no nontrivial solution to the equation, or equivalently $|A+A|=\binom{|A|+1}{2}$. These are the so-called Sidon sets and it is well known that no Sidon set contained in $[n]$ has more than $(1+o(1)) \sqrt{n}$ elements and that Sidon sets of roughly this cardinality exist.

The other extreme case, which will be of interest to us, is when the doubling of a set is small. One can immediately check that for any finite $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ we have $|A+A| \geqslant 2|A|-1$ and that equality holds if and only if $A$ is an arithmetic progression. Similarly, for any arithmetic progressions $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{d}$ and the set $A=P_{1}+\cdots+P_{d}$ we have $|A+A| \leqslant 2^{d}|A|$. If $d=O(1)$ we can still consider it to be of small doubling. A set like above, a $d$-fold sum of arithmetic progressions is called a d-dimensional arithmetic progression. Obviously any large subset of a multidimensional arithmetic progression has small doubling as well.

It was a great contribution of Freiman [Fre73] to prove that there is essentially no other way a set can have small doubling but to be a large subset of a multidimensional arithmetic progressions. While the result of Freiman dates back to the 60s of the XX century, a generalization of this result to the general abelian setting was proved by Green and Ruzsa [GR07] only in 2006. At that time, control over the dimension of the progression was quite poor and our aim is to improve it.

In Chapter 3 we manage to prove Theorem 3.5 which guarantees that in non-degenerated cases, given a finite subset of an abelian group, the dimension of a structure containing this set is linear in its doubling. This result was published in CS13a.

### 1.2.2. Linear equations

The discussion above shows that interest in solving linear equations in subsets of integers can go beyond pure curiosity and is sometimes motivated by more universal considerations. It is not at all obvious, but some equations are more difficult to analyze than the others and the division line goes between invariant equations, i.e. the ones with coefficients summing to zero, and the rest.

From the combinatorial perspective this division can be easily explained by some clear obstacles to solvability in non-invariant case. For example, non-zero residue classes are not mapped to 0 by non-invariant linear forms, which explains why we cannot guarantee a noninvariant equation to have a solution only based on its density. Also, the property of a set having a solution to a non-invariant equation is not invariant with respect to translations of this set, which excludes a multitude of typical combinatorial methods. On the other hand,
from the analytic perspective the division can manifest itself by non-trivial conditions on tininess of certain character sums. For example, if we identify a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}$ and its indicator function $A(\cdot)$, the equation $a_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{k} x_{k}=0$ has a solution if and only if

$$
\sum_{r \neq 0} \widehat{A}\left(a_{1} r\right) \cdot \ldots \cdot \widehat{A}\left(a_{k} r\right)<|A|^{k}
$$

Controlling this sum is significantly easier if the summands can be all made non-negative, which is only imaginable for invariant equations and particularly easy for equation of higher genus (see Definition 5.1), which reflects in Sidon's equation $x+y=x^{\prime}+y^{\prime}$ being easier to handle than Roth's $x+z=2 y$.

All this contribute to the fact that results dealing with non-invariant equations are less precise than similar ones for more structured equations. It also correlates with the order in which more and more general equations were successfully dealt with. Ruzsa Ruz93 proved good non-trivial upper bounds for equations of genus at least 2 in the 1990s, but only recently Sanders San11, Blo12] succeeded in the general invariant case.

In Chapter 5 we prove the first reasonably good bounds on Ramsey-type numbers corresponding to non-invariant equations with the climax in Theorem 5.4. The choice of Ramsey setting, where we partition elements of $[N]$ into $n$ groups and look for a solution contained in any group, is natural if we recall that no density-based result is possible for non-invariant equations ${ }^{1}$ That these numbers exist at all is only conditional, by Rado's theorem, to the equation containing an invariant part $2^{2}$. For the details see Section 5.1. All results appearing in this chapter has been submitted as [CS13b].

In Chapter 6 we consider a problem complementary to the one mentioned above. Rather than look for solutions in subsets of a long initial segment of the naturals, we count the solutions to general linear equations in small cyclic groups. This part was published in [CS12]. Minor changes in presentation, when compared to this paper, result from the appearance of a brilliant and general Zakarczemny's solution to the problem considered, which was however subsequent to our result.

### 1.3. Additive combinatorics beyond our interest

Like all interesting problems in mathematics, the problems considered in the thesis are not isolated and are related to many others in additive combinatorics. To give an impression thereof we shall now briefly present some problems, very similar to those mentioned in the previous section, yet very different from the perspective of the techniques employed in the analysis.

[^0]
### 1.3.1. Sum-product estimates

The family of Freiman-type results characterizes sets of integers with small doubling as big subsets of multidimensional progressions. It is therefore reasonable to expect that a finite set $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ of small doubling should have a rather large product-set $A \cdot A=\left\{a_{1} a_{2}: a_{1}, a_{2} \in A\right\}$ as arithmetic progressions seem to be incompatible with multiplication. From analogous considerations it seems plausible that if $|A \cdot A| \leqslant K|A|$ then $A$ cannot have small doubling.

A classical theorem of Erdős and Szemerédi states a common generalization of the above.
Theorem (Erdős-Szemerédi [ES83]). There is a real $\varepsilon>0$ such that for every finite set $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ we have

$$
\max (|A+A|,|A \cdot A|) \gg|A|^{1+\varepsilon} .
$$

It was conjectured by Erdős and Szemerédi that $\varepsilon=1-o(1)$ and the current state-of-the-art result due to Konyagin and Rudnev [KR13], developing on Solymosi's Sol05, asserts that $\varepsilon$ can be arbitrarily close to $\frac{1}{3}$. An analogous result also holds in prime fields, but the first results of this type [BKT04, Kon03] appeared roughly 20 years after [ES83].

Theorem. There are positive reals $\varepsilon, \delta$ such that for every prime $p$ and a subset $A \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{p}$, if $|A| \leqslant p^{\delta}$ then

$$
\max \{|A+A|,|A \cdot A|\} \gg|A|^{1+\varepsilon}
$$

The currently best form of the sum-product theorem in this setting is due to Rudnev Rud11] who proved that one can have $\varepsilon=\frac{1}{11}-o(1)$ in the most interesting range $|A| \leqslant \sqrt{p}$.

Although these sum-product theorems seem to be natural companions to small-doubling problems considered in the thesis, they are really very different. First of all, these problems involve products and are therefore hardly susceptible to usual Fourier-based techniques so effectively employed by Ruzsa and his followers. Also, the known proofs have more adhoc flavor when compared with the well established approach of Ruzsa. A quite extreme example is Ele97] and works subsequent to it, where a sum-product theorem follows from the Szemerédi-Trotter theorem on geometric incidences.

### 1.3.2. Relative results and higher order structures

As to our considerations on linear equations, a natural source of problems relating to noninvariant equations could be looking for analogies with better studied invariant ones and following those lines.

Let us then start with the simplest invariant equation of all, i.e. $x+z=2 y$, which describes three-term arithmetic progressions (3-AP). It was proved in 1953 by Roth Rot53 that subsets $A$ of $[N]$ of density at least $\delta(N)$, for some $\delta(N)=o(1)$, always contain a solution to this equation, and therefore contain a 3 -AP. It took twenty more years and brilliant ideas of Szemerédi [Sze75] to prove that existence of longer APs, which are solutions to systems of linear equations of the form $x_{i-1}+x_{i+1}=2 x_{i}$ and can be therefore regarded as higher order structures, can also be guaranteed on density basis. While continuous progress on improving
bounds on density in Roth's theorem can be observed, with the currently best $|A| \gg \frac{N}{\log ^{1-o(1)} N}$ due to Sanders [San11], this is still not enough to directly prove that (relative) Roth's theorem holds for (relatively) dense subsets of the primes. A novel idea was needed instead and that was the introduction of pseudorandom sets, distributed uniformly enough to allow conveying more traditional arguments. This also somewhat explains why results of Green [Gre05c], Green-Tao [GT08] and Gowers [Gow10] are so valuable and non-trivial.

Unfortunately the same lines could only partially be followed at all in case of non-invariant equations, even with the obvious replacement of density results and conjectures by some Ramsey-type ones, as was motivated in Subsection 1.2.2. In particular, by the same argument, even the Schur equation $x+y=z$ can have no solutions in a 2 -coloring of primes so relative results seem to be too much to hope for. As for the higher order structures, which correspond to systems of linear equations, there seem to be no natural obstruction of this kind, but the corresponding condition on existence of Ramsey-type numbers, based on Rado's theorem, is significantly more complicated.

There is also one more question closely related to the subject of our interest that awaits a solution, i.e. Rado's boundedness conjecture. It says that for any linear equation in $k$ variables that contains no invariant equation, there exists an $n(k)$-coloring of $\mathbb{N}$ that is free of monochromatic solutions to this equation. The emphasis here is put on the fact that $n(k)$ does not depend on the coefficients of the equation. Just until the recent result of Fox and Kleitman [FK06] there has been no progress on this conjecture whatsoever.

### 1.3.3. Yet broader perspective

As mentioned at the very beginning of the Section, the problems considered in the thesis are closely related with some important problems in additive combinatorics. In fact, existential theorems of Ramsey/Szemerédi-type, which date back to the early years of XX century, and sum-product theorems are the core of the now blossoming area of additive combinatorics.

Research following the proof of Szemerédi resulted in discovering connections between combinatorial arithmetic and measure-preserving dynamical systems Fur77, understanding how higher-dimensional structures can be controlled by higher-order Fourier-like functionals Gow01 and developing regularity theories in graphs Sze75, KS91, hypergraphs Gow07, Tao07 and in arithmetic GT10. There is currently at least seventeen distinct proofs of Szemerédi's theorem known and almost every one opened new perspectives on additive combinatorics and, reciprocally, the areas of mathematics it originated in.

Also sum-product theorems gave rise to a number of methods. Since geometric methods, via the Szemerédi-Trotter theorem on point-line incidences, appeared to be so fruitful in treatment of the real setting, attempts to adapt it to the finite setting arose with the first result of the type due to Bourgain, Katz and Tao [BKT04] and following quantitative ones due to Helfgott and Rudnev [HR10 and Jones Jon11. The other direction investigated was to translate results between the two settings, with Vu and Woods' [VWW11] and Grosu's Gro13] results on equivalence between the two for small sets. In a natural way, interest
in sum-product phenomena extends to results on approximate algebraic structures with the climax in Helfgott's Hel08] and Breuillard, Green and Tao's [BGT12. Sum-product theorems find also a lot of more direct applications as similar phenomena can be naturally traced back e.g. in analysis or PDEs.

All the links mentioned above between problems considered, or additive combinatorics in general, and other areas of research may seem to be internal to mathematics but this is not all so.

The graph removal lemma, descendant to Szemerédi's graph regularity lemma, which is itself a key ingredient in his proof of Szemerédi's theorem, is a fundamental tool in a fairly new area of computer science called property testing. Sum-product theorems and relevant techniques, which basically prove that large-scale irregularities are unavoidable in many arithmetic scenarios, found also many applications in theoretical computer science. They allowed e.g. many hardness results in complexity theory and deterministic constructions of cryptographic primitives like expanders and extractors.

For the last impression on numerous connections and applications of additive combinatorics let us just mention that Bibak's survey on additive combinatorics [Bib13] lists 350 bibliographic entries with roughly a half concerning applications.

## Chapter 2

## Some basic concepts of theory of set addition

In this short chapter we aim at introducing some of the concepts and elementary tools that we shall rely on in Chapters 3 through 5 .

As briefly explained in the introduction, we aim at investigating in Chapter 3 the case when the doubling $K(A)=\frac{|A+A|}{|A|}$ of a finite set $A \subseteq G$ is small. Somewhat surprisingly, the very basic results touching upon this setting will be important for our treatment of the Schur-like numbers in Section 5.3. The following family of lemmas describes combinatorial behavior of sets with a bounded doubling.

Lemma 2.1 (Plünnecke's inequality). For any integers $h^{\prime} \geqslant h>0$ and finite subsets $A, B$ of an abelian group $G$ such that $|B+h A| \leqslant K|B|$, there is $B^{\prime} \subseteq B$ such that

$$
\left|B^{\prime}+h^{\prime} A\right| \leqslant K^{h^{\prime} / h}\left|B^{\prime}\right|
$$

Lemma 2.2 (Ruzsa's inequality). For every finite subsets $U, V, W$ of an abelian group $G$ we have

$$
|U+V||U+W| \geqslant|U||V-W|
$$

A simple combination of the above lemmas results in the following Plünnecke-Ruzsa's lemma.

Lemma 2.3 (Plünnecke-Ruzsa's inequality). Suppose that $A, B$ are finite subsets of an abelian group and $|A+B| \leqslant K|B|$. Then for all natural numbers $k, l \geqslant 0$ we have

$$
|k A-l A| \leqslant K^{k+l}|B|
$$

where $k A$ and $l A$ denote iterated sumsets.
Proof. If any of the numbers $k, l$ equals 0 then either the result follows trivially if $k=l=0$, or by straightforward application of Lemma 2.1 in the other case.

Therefore without loss of generality we may now assume that $k \geqslant l \geqslant 1$. Let us then apply Lemma 2.1 to sets $A, B$ and integers $l$ and 1 , so that one finds $B^{\prime} \subseteq B$ such that $\left|B^{\prime}+l A\right| \leqslant K^{l}\left|B^{\prime}\right| \leqslant K^{l}|B|$. Subsequently, let us apply the same lemma to sets $A, B^{\prime}$ and integers $k$ and $l$, so that for some $B^{\prime \prime} \subseteq B^{\prime}$ we have $\left|B^{\prime \prime}+k A\right| \leqslant K^{k}\left|B^{\prime \prime}\right| \leqslant K^{k}|B|$.

By Ruzsa's inequality we conclude that

$$
|k A-l A| \leqslant\left|B^{\prime \prime}\right| \cdot|k A-l A| \leqslant\left|B^{\prime \prime}+k A\right| \cdot\left|B^{\prime \prime}+l A\right| \leqslant K^{k+l}|B| .
$$

This is a very good combinatorial characterization of iterated sumsets of sets $A$ with small doubling but a structural information is more difficult to extract and this is exactly what Freiman's-type theorems, treated in the next chapter, are about.

A key concept in additive combinatorics that we shall often tacitly rely on is that of Freiman's homomorphisms. It is crafted in a manner that allows us to transfer an additive problem (of a bounded complexity) from one group into another, that may behave better for some purposes. A typical reason is to make a set under consideration become a relatively dense subset of the underlying group.

Definition 2.4 (Freiman's homomorphism). Let $k \geqslant 1$ be an integer, and let $A \subseteq G$ and $A^{\prime} \subseteq G^{\prime}$ be two subsets of abelian groups $G, G^{\prime}$. A Freiman homomorphism of order $k$ from $A$ to $A^{\prime}$ is any map $\varphi: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ with the property that

$$
a_{1}+\cdots+a_{k}=a_{1}^{\prime}+\cdots+a_{k}^{\prime}
$$

implies

$$
\varphi\left(a_{1}\right)+\cdots+\varphi\left(a_{k}\right)=\varphi\left(a_{1}^{\prime}\right)+\cdots+\varphi\left(a_{k}^{\prime}\right) .
$$

If in addition there is an inverse map $\varphi^{-1}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ which is a Freiman homomorphism of order $k$ from $A^{\prime}$ to $A$, then we say that $\varphi$ is a Freiman isomorphism of order $k$, and that $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ are Freiman-isomorphic of order $k$.

While we shall only occasionally consider Freiman-isomorphic copies of a set, it will be usual in the next chapter to require some objects to be proper. This will be the case for generalized arithmetic progressions and convex progressions (see Definition 3.6) and in fact properness will appear to be equivalent to being Freiman-isomorphic with some underlying truly multidimensional set.

In the next chapter we shall deal with multidimensional arithmetic progressions.
Definition 2.5 (generalized arithmetic progression). Let $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{d}$ be arithmetic progressions. We call the sumset $P=P_{1}+\cdots+P_{d}$ a $d$-dimensional generalized arithmetic progression

[^1]and write $d(P)=d$ and $\operatorname{size}(P)=\left|P_{1}\right| \cdot \ldots \cdot\left|P_{d}\right|$. We say that $P$ is proper if its cardinality equals its size.

Note that the above definition decides on the dimension of a progression based on the structure that defines it, rather than on its properties as a subset of the underlying group. Also, a generalized arithmetic progression is a Freiman 2-homomorphic copy of a hyperrectangle.

Although the ultimate goal of Freiman's-type theorems is to show that $A$ makes a big part of a multidimensional (coset) progression, the arithmetic progressions are not the most effective intermediate objects to work with. This is especially so because they do not behave in a regular manner from analytical point of view, which is a dominant approach to problems considered in the next chapters.

A remedy to these issues has been the introduction to additive combinatorics of the Bohr sets: first by Ruzsa Ruz94 in the context of Freiman's theorem and later by Bourgain in his work [Bou99] on Roth's theorem.

Definition 2.6. Let $G=\mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}$ be a cyclic group and its dual group be $\widehat{G} \simeq \mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}$. We define the Bohr set with frequency set $\Gamma \subseteq \widehat{G}$ and width parameter $\gamma \in\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right]$ to be the set

$$
\begin{aligned}
B(\Gamma, \gamma) & =\left\{x \in G: \forall_{t \in \Gamma}\left\|\frac{\arg (t(x))}{2 \pi}\right\|_{\mathbb{R} / \mathbb{Z}} \leqslant \gamma\right\} \\
& =\left\{x \in G: \forall_{t \in \Gamma}\left\|\frac{t x}{N}\right\|_{\mathbb{R} / \mathbb{Z}} \leqslant \gamma\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

where the second formulation is valid for our case of cyclic groups only and follows the identification of $t \in\{0, \ldots, N-1\}$ with the character $x \mapsto e^{2 \pi i x t / N}$.

Also, we call $\operatorname{dim} B=|\Gamma|$ the dimension of the Bohr set $B$ and $\gamma$ its radius. Furthermore, for $\eta>0$ and a Bohr set $B=B(\Gamma, \gamma)$ by $B_{\eta}$ we mean the Bohr set $B(\Gamma, \eta \gamma)$.

An important property of Bohr sets to mention is that $B\left(c^{-1} \cdot \Gamma, \gamma\right)=c \cdot B(\Gamma, \gamma) \subseteq B(\Gamma, c \gamma)$ for $c \in \mathbb{N}_{+}$if only $N$ is prime.

Remark. It is customary in the literature to call $|\Gamma|$ the rank of the Bohr set $B(\Gamma, \gamma)$ in order to emphasize the difference between an underlying structure, and the Bohr set as a subset of the underlying group. This latter, more geometric point of view, defines the dimension by the scaling behavior of the mapping $\eta \mapsto\left|B_{1+\eta}\right|$. The two approaches are comparable, however, hence our choice, which is compatible with our definition of the dimension for generalized arithmetic progressions.

## Chapter 3

## Freiman's and Green-Ruzsa's theorems

The family of Freiman's-type theorems deals with finite subsets $A$ of integers or other abelian group, of small doubling $K=K(A)$, when compared with $|A|$. If this is the case then $A$ is proved to form a big part of a (proper) coset progression, i.e. a sumset $P+H$ of a $d$-dimensional arithmetic progression $P$ and a subgroup $H$, of dimension $d \leqslant d(K)$ and size at most $f(K)|A|$. The aim of investigations in this area is to establish possibly good bounds on $d(K)$ and $f(K)$ simultaneously.

As can be easily verified, the best possible bound for $d(P)$ is $\lfloor K-1\rfloor$. Similarly, one cannot hope to obtain anything better than $\operatorname{size}(P)=\exp (O(K))|A|$.

Example. Let $K$ be a positive integer, $X=\left\{e_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{K-1}$ be a linearly independent family of vectors in $\mathbb{Z}^{K}$ and $P=\{0, v, \ldots, L v\}$ for some vector $v \perp X$. Then $X+P$ has doubling $K-o_{L \rightarrow \infty}(1)$ and is clearly a $(K-1)$-dimensional progression. The same holds for every set $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ that is $k$-isomorphic to $X+P$, for sufficiently large $k$.

### 3.1. Ruzsa's approach to Freiman's-type theorems

Freiman's original result, which dates back to the late 1960s and the appearance of monograph [Fre73], concerns torsion-free groups only and is very inefficient in bound for $f(K)$. We owe to Ruzsa's ingenious approach [Ruz94] the series of advances to the theory that we witnessed at the turn of the millennia. One of the factors that contribute the most to its robustness is our ability to clearly distinguish four steps, which all subsequent proofs of the Freiman-type theorems followed. Let us now present these steps.

## Step 1: good modeling

The approach proposed by Ruzsa is not geometric in nature, like it is the original one of Freiman, but heavily relies on Fourier analysis. To make it efficient, the set $A$ under consideration needs to be dense in the ambient group $G$, which does not need to be the case, or just
cannot be in the original integral setting. Therefore, one looks for an appropriate Freiman isomorphic set $A^{\prime}$, dense in a group $G^{\prime}$.

Ruzsa Ruz92 proves that such a (partial) embedding exists where $A^{\prime}$ is an isomorphic copy of a large subset of $A$. Since, in the following steps, Ruzsa considers the set $2 A^{\prime}-2 A^{\prime}$, the appropriate Freiman isomorphism needs to be of order at least 8 .

## Step 2: Bogolyubov-Ruzsa's lemma

In the dense case, when $\left|A^{\prime}\right| \geqslant \alpha\left|G^{\prime}\right|$, it turns out that $2 A^{\prime}-2 A^{\prime}$ contains a large Bohr set $B$ of a suitably bounded dimension.

Ruzsa's proof suggests to consider $B=B(\Gamma, \gamma)$ for $\Gamma=\operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}\left(A^{\prime}\right)$, the large spectrum of the indicator function of $A^{\prime}$, in which case $|\Gamma| \leqslant \alpha^{-2}$. A brilliant idea of Chang Cha02, Lemma 3.1], the Chang spectral lemma, proves that choosing $\Gamma \subseteq \operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ to be maximal dissociated guarantees $|\Gamma| \leqslant \alpha^{-1} \log \alpha^{-1}$. Finally, relatively recent result of Sanders proves that one can have $|\Gamma|=\log ^{O(1)} \alpha^{-1}$.

## Step 3: elucidating structure of Bohr sets

Any Bohr set $B(\Gamma, \gamma)$ contains a large $|\Gamma|$-dimensional generalized arithmetic progression $P^{\prime}$.
This is a usual geometry of numbers argument relying on Minkowski's theorems and it has hardly evolved at all since appearance of Ruzsa's paper Ruz94.

## Step 4: pullback and covering

Having chosen the set $A^{\prime}$ appropriately, we can now pull the progression $P^{\prime}$ back to $P \subseteq G$ and, under some reasonable conditions, it still makes a big part of the set $2 A-2 A$, i.e. $|P| \geqslant C(K)|A|$. Then, a covering argument allows one to conclude that $A$ itself is covered by a few translates of $P$.

This last step devotes its current form to contributions of Ruzsa and Chang. The first incarnation of the argument, due to Ruzsa Ruz94, is so simple and beautiful at the same time that it deserves presentation. Let us then have a progression $P$ such that $P \subseteq 2 A-2 A$ and $|P| \geqslant C(K)|A|$. Consider any maximal set $X=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{s}\right\} \subseteq A$ such that the translates $x_{i}+P$ are pairwise disjoint. Then we have $A \subseteq X+P-P \subseteq \operatorname{Span}(X)+P-P$ and, since $X+P \subseteq 3 A-2 A$, by Plünnecke's inequality $|X| \leqslant|3 A-2 A| /|P| \leqslant K^{5} / C(K)$. Unfortunately $C(K)^{-1}$ can depend super-polynomially on $K$ and for results on Bololyubov-Ruzsa's lemma prior to Sanders's [San12] this dependance is exponential. This shortcoming was overcome by Chang [Cha02] in her iterative covering procedure.

One further optimization of the dimension of the progression is still possible and it allows, at the same time, to guarantee properness of the progression obtained. It origins in the work of Freiman and was subsequently explained in Bilu's [Bil99]. While this geometric method

[^2]allows one to reduce the dimension to $K$, it imposes extra cost in terms of the size of the progressions that is particularly prohibitive in case of the fine-tuned result of Sanders.

The following are the state-of-the-art versions of the Freiman theorem.
Theorem 3.1 (Sanders [San12, Theorem 11.4]). Suppose that $G$ is a torsion-free abelian group and $A \subseteq G$ is finite with $|A+A| \leqslant K|A|$. Then $A$ is contained in a d $(K)$-dimensional generalized arithmetic progression $P$ of size at most $\exp (h(K))|A|$. Moreover, we may take $d(K), h(K)=O\left(K \log ^{O(1)} K\right)$.

Like said above, it is possible to obtain an even sharper bound on the dimension, at the cost of a higher degree of the polynomial in $h(K)$, or equivalently in the exponent of $f$. Moreover, some additional conditions on $|A|$ must be imposed. On the other hand, those weaknesses are counterbalanced by properness of the progression obtained, which is not possible in Sanders's theorem without complete loss of the so hardly earned sharp bound on the size.

Theorem 3.2 (Chang Cha02, Theorem 2]). Under the assumptions of Theorem 3.1, if $|A| \geqslant \max \left(C K^{2} \log ^{2} K,(K+\epsilon)^{2} / 2 \epsilon\right)$, for some $\epsilon>0$, then there is a proper generalized arithmetic progression $P$ of dimension $d(P) \leqslant\lfloor K-1+\epsilon\rfloor$ and $\operatorname{size}(P)=\exp \left(O\left(K^{2} \log ^{3} K\right)\right)|A|$, such that $A \subseteq P$.

### 3.2. Green-Ruzsa's theorem

We owe the generalization of Freiman's theorem to the abelian setting to Green and Ruzsa's paper [GR07]. The proof closely follows the path suggested by Ruzsa but some care is needed. First of all, it is crucial to appropriately formulate a hypothetical theorem. It follows from consideration of the family of examples with $A=G=\mathbb{F}_{2}^{d}$ that the dimension cannot be bounded by any function of the doubling, because in this case the doubling of $A$ equals 1 independently of $d$.

It appears that the right hypothesis is to look for $A$ contained in a progression of cosets of some subgroup of $G$.

Definition 3.3. We define a coset progression to be any subset of $G$ of the form $P+H$, where $H$ is a subgroup of $G$ and $P$ is a generalized arithmetic progression. The dimension $d(P+H)$ of the coset progression $P+H$ is the dimension $d(P)$ of its underlying generalized arithmetic progression $P$ and $\operatorname{size}(P+H)$ is $\operatorname{size}(P)|H|$. We say that a progression is proper if its cardinality equals its size.

Observe that in the torsion-free setting every finite coset progression is in fact a generalized arithmetic progression.

In their paper GR07 Green and Ruzsa established a generalization of Freiman's theorem for arbitrary abelian groups that was subsequently improved by Sanders to the following form.

Theorem 3.4 (Sanders [San12, Theorem 11.4]). Let $A \subseteq G$ be finite and $|A+A| \leqslant K|A|$. Then $A$ is contained in a coset progression $P+H$ of dimension $d(P+H)=O\left(K \log { }^{O(1)} 2 K\right)$ and $\operatorname{size}(P+H)=\exp \left(O\left(K \log ^{O(1)} 2 K\right)\right)|A|$.

Like in the torsion-free case, one has to pay extra if one looks for proper progressions, which deteriorates the bound on size to roughly size $(P+H)=\exp \left(O\left(K^{2+o(1)}\right)\right)|A|$.

In what follows we show an analog of Theorem 3.2 in the general abelian groups setting, which is this.

Theorem 3.5. Under the assumptions of Theorem 3.4, either there is a proper convex coset progression $X+H$ such that $A \subseteq X+H$, of dimension $d(X+H) \leqslant(2+o(1)) K$ and $\operatorname{size}(X+H)=\exp \left(O\left(K \log ^{O(1)} 2 K\right)\right)|A|$, or $A$ is fully contained in $O\left(K^{2} \log ^{O(1)} K\right)$ cosets, whose total cardinality is bounded by $\exp \left(O\left(K \log ^{O(1)} 2 K\right)\right)|A|$, of some subgroup of $G$.

Moreover, the progression can be chosen to be a proper coset progression $P+H$, in which case $d(P+H) \leqslant 2\lfloor K\rfloor$ and $\operatorname{size}(P+H)=\exp \left(O\left(K^{2} \log ^{O(1)} 2 K\right)\right)|A|$.

Here, we provide some necessary definitions.
Definition 3.6. Suppose that $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is closed, centrally symmetric and convex, $B \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d}$ spans $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ as a real vector space and $\phi: \mathbb{Z}^{d} \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism. Then we refer to the image $X=\phi\left(B \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d}\right)$ as a convex progression of dimension $d$. The size of $X$ is simply $\operatorname{size}(X)=\left|B \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d}\right|$, and the volume is $\operatorname{vol}(X)=\operatorname{vol}_{d}(B)$, the $d$-dimensional volume of $B$ in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$.

Definition 3.7. Let $X$ be a convex progression and $H$ be a subgroup of $G$. Then we call $X+H$ a convex coset progression. By analogy with coset progressions, we define size as $\operatorname{size}(X+H)=\operatorname{size}(X)|H|$.

Let $s \geqslant 1$ be an integer. If $\phi\left(x_{1}\right)-\phi\left(x_{2}\right) \in H$ implies $x_{1}=x_{2}$ for all $x_{1}, x_{2} \in s B \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d}$, then we say that $X+H$ is s-proper.

Note that the above definition of properness, just like in the case of regular coset progressions (see Definition 3.3 ) is equivalent to requiring $X+H$ to be Freiman max $(s, 2)$-isomorphic to the direct product of $H$ and a $d$-dimensional set (either a hyper-rectangle or a convex body, intersected with $\mathbb{Z}^{d}$ ). Here, we need the isomorphism to be of order at least 2 in order to guarantee that it extends to a homomorphism at all.

## Outline of the argument

The general idea behind the proof is to apply Green-Ruzsa's Theorem 3.4 in order to obtain an embedding $A \subseteq P+H$ and to apply Chang's Theorem 3.2 to the projection $\pi(A)$ of $A$ onto $P$ later on.

This approach is not applicable directly, however, because we need to work in the torsionfree setting. To this end, by Lemma 3.8, we replace the coset progression $P+H$ in Section 3.3 by some 2-proper convex coset progression $X+H^{\prime}$ of comparable dimension and size. The

2-properness of $X+H^{\prime}$, which implies slightly more than just properness, will allow us to model a lack of torsion of an underlying group.

The last step remaining is to relate the doubling of $A$, appearing in the formulation of Theorem 3.5, to that of its projection $\pi(A)$, which will turn up in the aforementioned application of Chang's theorem. This, together with a precise definition of the projection, will be presented at the beginning of Section 3.4

In the final section we will tailor our approach to deal with the highly-tuned result of Sanders. This will require from our part a proof of a slight variant of Chang's Theorem 3.2.

### 3.3. Geometry of numbers

In this section, we aim to prove the following two lemmas. Basically, they state that coset progressions are economically contained inside proper (convex) coset progressions.

Lemma 3.8. Suppose that $X+H$ is a convex coset progression of dimension d. Let $s \geqslant 1$ be an integer. Then there is an s-proper convex coset progression $X^{\prime}+H^{\prime}$ of dimension $d^{\prime} \leqslant d$ and $\operatorname{size}\left(X^{\prime}+H^{\prime}\right)=s^{d} \exp (O(d \log d)) \operatorname{size}(X+H)$, such that $X+H \subseteq X^{\prime}+H^{\prime}$.

Lemma 3.9. Under the assumptions of Lemma 3.8, there is an s-proper coset progression $P^{\prime}+H^{\prime}$ of dimension $d^{\prime} \leqslant d$ and $\operatorname{size}\left(P^{\prime}+H^{\prime}\right)=s^{d} \exp \left(O\left(d^{2} \log d\right)\right) \operatorname{size}(X+H)$, such that $X+H \subseteq P^{\prime}+H^{\prime}$.

In order to relate the size of a progression to its volume we quote the following lemma.
Lemma 3.10 ([TV06, Lemma 3.26 and Inequality 3.14]). Suppose that $X$ is a convex progression. Then

$$
\frac{1}{2^{d}} \leqslant \frac{\operatorname{size}(X)}{\operatorname{vol}(X)} \leqslant \frac{3^{d} d!}{2^{d}}
$$

Proof of Lemma 3.8. We proceed by induction on $d$, reducing the progression's dimension whenever it is not $s$-proper. Obviously, any zero-dimensional progression is so.

Fix $s$ and let $X=\phi\left(B \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d}\right)$ for some $d>0$. If $X+H$ is not $s$-proper then there exists a non-zero $x_{h} \in 2 s B \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d}$ such that $\phi\left(x_{h}\right) \in H$. Consider $x_{\text {irr }} \in 2 s B \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d}$ such that $x_{h}=m x_{\text {irr }}$ for $m \in \mathbb{N}$ as big as possible. Then, as an immediate consequence of [TV06, Lemma 3.4], there exists a completion $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d-1}, x_{\text {irr }}\right)$ of $x_{\text {irr }}$ to an integral basis of $\mathbb{Z}^{d}$.

Let $\psi: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d}$ be the linear transformation satisfying $\psi\left(x_{i}\right)=e_{i}, i=1, \ldots, d-1$ and $\psi\left(x_{\mathrm{irr}}\right)=e_{d}$ for $\left(e_{i}\right)$ the canonical basis of $\mathbb{Z}^{d}$. For such transformation, $\psi\left(\mathbb{Z}^{d}\right)=\mathbb{Z}^{d}$ and $\operatorname{vol}_{d}(\psi(B))=\operatorname{vol}_{d}(B)$.

Let $B^{\prime}=\pi_{\mathbb{R}^{d-1} \times\{0\}}(\psi(B))$ and $H^{\prime}=\left\langle H, \phi\left(x_{\mathrm{irr}}\right)\right\rangle$ be, respectively, the projection of $\psi(B)$ onto the hyperplane $\mathbb{R}^{d-1} \times\{0\}$ and the subgroup of $G$ generated by $H$ and $\phi\left(x_{\mathrm{irr}}\right)$.

Since one can treat $\left.\phi \circ \psi^{-1}\right|_{\mathbb{R}^{d-1} \times\{0\}}$ as some $\phi^{\prime}: \mathbb{R}^{d-1} \rightarrow G$, we have $X+H \subseteq X^{\prime}+H^{\prime}$ for $X^{\prime}=\phi^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime} \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d-1}\right)$. Indeed, for an arbitrary element of $X+H$ we have the following
representation, with $x \in \mathbb{R}^{d-1} \equiv \mathbb{R}^{d-1} \times\{0\}, l \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $h \in H$ :

$$
\phi\left(\psi^{-1}(x)+l x_{\mathrm{irr}}\right)+h=\phi^{\prime}(x)+\left(l \phi\left(x_{\mathrm{irr}}\right)+h\right) \in X^{\prime}+H^{\prime} .
$$

Next, we estimate the size of $X^{\prime}+H^{\prime}$ but, for technical reasons, we prefer to consider $\operatorname{vol}\left(X^{\prime}\right)\left|H^{\prime}\right|$ instead. These two quantities are related by Lemma 3.10

Since

$$
m \phi\left(x_{\mathrm{irr}}\right)=\phi\left(x_{h}\right) \in H,
$$

it follows that

$$
\left|H^{\prime}\right|=\left|\left\langle H, \phi\left(x_{\mathrm{irr}}\right)\right\rangle\right|=\left|H+\left\{0, \phi\left(x_{\mathrm{irr}}\right), \ldots,(m-1) \phi\left(x_{\mathrm{irr}}\right)\right\}\right| \leqslant m|H| .
$$

In order to bound $\operatorname{vol}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$, consider the double-sided cone $O$ spanned by $B^{\prime}$ and by

$$
\pm \psi\left(x_{h} / 2 s\right)= \pm m \psi\left(x_{\mathrm{irr}}\right) / 2 s= \pm m / 2 s \cdot e_{d} \in \psi(B),
$$

the last stemming from $x_{h} \in 2 s B$. From

$$
\frac{2}{d} \operatorname{vol}_{d-1}\left(B^{\prime}\right) \cdot \frac{m}{2 s}=\operatorname{vol}_{d}(O) \leqslant \operatorname{vol}_{d}(\psi(B))=\operatorname{vol}_{d}(B)
$$

we conclude that

$$
\operatorname{vol}_{d-1}\left(B^{\prime}\right) \cdot\left|H^{\prime}\right| \leqslant \frac{s d}{m} \operatorname{vol}_{d}(B) \cdot m|H|=s d \operatorname{vol}_{d}(B)|H| .
$$

Notice that the inequality $\operatorname{vol}_{d}(O) \leqslant \operatorname{vol}_{d}(\psi(B))$ is a non-trivial one because, in general,

$$
B^{\prime}=\pi_{\mathbb{R}^{d-1} \times\{0\}}(\psi(B)) \nsubseteq \psi(B) \cap\left(\mathbb{R}^{d-1} \times\{0\}\right)
$$

and therefore $O \nsubseteq \psi(B)$. Instead, let us consider the convex set $\tau(\psi(B))$, where

$$
\tau\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right)=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d-1}, x_{d}-C M_{\psi(B)}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d-1}\right)\right),
$$

$C M_{\psi(B)}(\cdot)$ denoting the center of mass of the corresponding fibre of $\psi(B)$. Obviously, in the spirit of Fubini's theorem, $\operatorname{vol}_{d}\left(\tau(\psi(B))=\operatorname{vol}_{d}(\psi(B))\right.$. Moreover,

$$
B^{\prime} \subset \tau(\psi(B)) \text { and } \pm \psi\left(x_{h} / 2 s\right)= \pm m / 2 s \cdot e_{d} \in \psi(B) \cap \tau(\psi(B))
$$

so $O \subseteq \tau(\psi(B))$ and hence $\operatorname{vol}_{d}(O) \leqslant \operatorname{vol}_{d}(\psi(B))$.
By an inductive argument and by Lemma 3.10 we can obtain an $s$-proper convex coset
progression $X^{\prime \prime}+H^{\prime \prime} \supset X+H$ of dimension $d^{\prime \prime} \leqslant d$, such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{size}\left(X^{\prime \prime}\right)\left|H^{\prime \prime}\right| & \leqslant \frac{3^{d} d!}{2^{d}} \operatorname{vol}\left(X^{\prime \prime}\right)\left|H^{\prime \prime}\right| \\
& \leqslant\left(\frac{3 s}{2}\right)^{d}(d!)^{2} \operatorname{vol}(X)|H| \\
& \leqslant(3 s)^{d}(d!)^{2} \operatorname{size}(X)|H| \\
& =s^{d} \exp (O(d \log d)) \operatorname{size}(X)|H| .
\end{aligned}
$$

We prove Lemma 3.9 in much the same way as Green proves [Gre05a, Theorem 2.5], with an application of [Gre05a, Lemma 2.3] replaced by that of Lemma 3.8. Both proofs result in the same asymptotic bounds on size $\left(P^{\prime}+H^{\prime}\right)$ as both [Gre05a, Lemma 2.3] and Lemma 3.8 establish them asymptotically the same.

To this end we need the following lemma.
Lemma 3.11 ([Gre05a, Lemma 1.5]). Let $B$ be a symmetric convex body in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, and let $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{d}$ be a lattice of dimension d. Then there is a generalized progression $P \subseteq B \cap \Lambda$ of dimension $d$ such that $B \cap \Lambda \subseteq d(d!)^{2} P$.

Now we just literally repeat Green's proof of [Gre05a, Theorem 2.5].
Proof of Lemma 3.9. Apply Lemma 3.8 with the convex coset progression $X+H$ and the integer $t=d(d!)^{2} s$. This gives us a $t$-proper convex coset progression $X^{\prime}+H^{\prime}$ of dimension $d^{\prime} \leqslant d$, such that $X+H \subseteq X^{\prime}+H^{\prime}$ and

$$
\operatorname{size}\left(X^{\prime}+H^{\prime}\right)=s^{d} \exp \left(O\left(d^{2} \log d\right)\right) \operatorname{size}(X+H) .
$$

Write $X^{\prime}=\phi^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime} \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d^{\prime}}\right)$. Now Lemma 3.11 implies that there is a progression $P \subseteq B^{\prime} \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d^{\prime}}$ such that $B^{\prime} \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d^{\prime}} \subseteq d^{\prime}\left(d^{\prime}!\right)^{2} P \subseteq d(d!)^{2} P$. Write $P^{\prime}=\phi^{\prime}\left(d(d!)^{2} P\right)$. Then $X+H \subseteq X^{\prime}+H^{\prime} \subseteq P^{\prime}+H^{\prime}$ and the fact that $X^{\prime}+H^{\prime}$ is $d(d!)^{2} s$-proper implies that $P^{\prime}+H^{\prime}$ is $s$-proper.

It remains to bound the size of $P^{\prime}+H^{\prime}$. Since $P^{\prime} \subseteq\left(d(d!)^{2} X^{\prime}\right.$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{size}\left(P^{\prime}+H^{\prime}\right) & \leqslant\left(d(d!)^{2}\right)^{d^{\prime}} \operatorname{size}\left(X^{\prime}+H^{\prime}\right) \\
& \leqslant\left(d(d!)^{2}\right)^{d} \operatorname{size}\left(X^{\prime}+H^{\prime}\right) \\
& \leqslant s^{d} \exp \left(O\left(d^{2} \log d\right)\right) \operatorname{size}(X+H)
\end{aligned}
$$

and the result follows.

### 3.4. Projections, the main argument

Let us first introduce a notion of projection. For any $s$-proper convex coset progression $X+H$ we define the canonical projection $\pi_{s X}(\cdot)$ of $s X+H$ onto $s X$ in the following way:
$\pi_{s X}(x+h)=x$ for $x \in s X$ and $h \in H$. Since $X+H$ is $s$-proper, this definition is unambiguous. Of course any $s$-proper progression is so for all $s^{\prime} \leqslant s$ and we can consider relevant projections $\pi_{s^{\prime} X}(\cdot)$ for $s^{\prime} \leqslant s$.

We will now show an auxiliary lemma which roughly relates the doubling of a set to additive properties of its projection.

Lemma 3.12. Let $A \subseteq X+H$, where $X+H$ is a 2-proper convex coset progression and $K_{\min }=\min _{Y \subseteq \pi_{X}(A)}\left|Y+\pi_{X}(A)\right| /|Y|$. Then $K(A) \geqslant K_{\text {min }}$.

Proof. Let $y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots \in \pi_{X}(A)$ be all elements of $Y=\pi_{X}(A)$ in decreasing order with respect to the cardinality $\left|A_{H}\left(y_{i}\right)\right|$ of $A_{H}\left(y_{i}\right)=A \cap\left(y_{i}+H\right)$. Write $Y_{i}=\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{i}\right\}$.

Then, by the assumption, $\left|Y_{i}+Y\right| \geqslant i K_{\text {min }}$ and there are at least $\left|A_{H}\left(y_{i}\right)\right|$ elements of $A+A$ in every $H$-coset of $Y_{i}+Y+H$. By the fact that $X+H$ is 2 -proper, there are exactly $\left|Y_{i}+Y\right|$ such cosets, hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
|A+A| & \geqslant \sum_{i}\left(\left|Y_{i}+Y\right|-\left|Y_{i-1}+Y\right|\right) \cdot\left|A_{H}\left(y_{i}\right)\right| \\
& =\sum_{i}\left|Y_{i}+Y\right| \cdot\left(\left|A_{H}\left(y_{i}\right)\right|-\left|A_{H}\left(y_{i+1}\right)\right|\right) \\
& \geqslant \sum_{i} i K_{\min } \cdot\left(\left|A_{H}\left(y_{i}\right)\right|-\left|A_{H}\left(y_{i+1}\right)\right|\right) \\
& =K_{\min } \sum_{i}(i-(i-1))\left|A_{H}\left(y_{i}\right)\right| \\
& =K_{\min }|A|
\end{aligned}
$$

Notice that, as a direct consequence, this lemma allows us to prove some version of the Green-Ruzsa theorem, provided that we can bound $K_{\min }$ in terms of the doubling $K(A)$.

In particular, by Lemma 2.1 we have for every $Y \subseteq \pi_{X}(A)$ and some $Y^{\prime} \subseteq Y$

$$
\left|\pi_{X}(A)+\pi_{X}(A)\right| \leqslant\left|Y^{\prime}+\pi_{X}(A)+\pi_{X}(A)\right| \leqslant\left|Y^{\prime}\right|\left(\frac{\left|Y+\pi_{X}(A)\right|}{|Y|}\right)^{2} \leqslant \frac{\left|Y+\pi_{X}(A)\right|^{2}}{|Y|}
$$

hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|Y+\pi_{X}(A)\right| & \geqslant \sqrt{|Y| \cdot\left|\pi_{X}(A)+\pi_{X}(A)\right|} \geqslant \sqrt{|Y| \cdot\left|\pi_{X}(A)\right|} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\left|\pi_{X}(A)+\pi_{X}(A)\right|}{\left|\pi_{X}(A)\right|}} \\
& \geqslant|Y| \sqrt{K\left(\pi_{X}(A)\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $K\left(\pi_{X}(A)\right) \leqslant K_{\text {min }}^{2} \leqslant K(A)^{2}$, the second inequality stemming from the previous lemma, and a variant of the Green-Ruzsa theorem follows with the dimension bounded by $K^{2}$.

In order to obtain a linear bound on the dimension, we need some more elaborate reasoning. Here we prove a slightly more general version of the second part of Theorem 3.5.

Theorem 3.13. Let $A \subseteq G$ satisfy $|A+A| \leqslant K|A|$ and let $s \geqslant 1$ be an integer. Then either there is an s-proper coset progression $P+H$ of dimension $d(P+H) \leqslant 2\lfloor K\rfloor$ and $\operatorname{size}(P+H) \leqslant s^{2 K} \exp \left(O\left(K^{2} \log ^{3} 2 K\right)\right)|A|$, such that $A \subseteq P+H$, or $A$ is fully contained in $O\left(K^{3} \log ^{2} K\right)$ cosets, whose total cardinality is bounded by $\exp \left(O\left(K \log ^{O(1)} 2 K\right)\right)|A|$, of some subgroup of $G$.
Proof. By Theorem 3.4 and Lemma 3.8, $A$ is contained in a 2-proper convex coset progression $X+H$ of dimension $d=O\left(K \log { }^{O(1)} 2 K\right)$ and $\operatorname{size}(X+H)=\exp \left(O\left(K \log ^{O(1)} 2 K\right)\right)|A|$. Write $X=\phi\left(B \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d}\right)$.

Consider $Z=\phi^{-1}\left(\pi_{X}(A)\right) \cap B \subset \mathbb{Z}^{d}$. Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
K_{\min } & =\min _{T \subseteq \pi_{X}(A)}\left|T+\pi_{X}(A)\right| /|T| \\
& =\min _{T \subseteq Z}|T+Z| /|T|=|S+Z| /|S|
\end{aligned}
$$

for some $S \subseteq Z$. Here, the middle equality is a consequence of $X+H$ being 2-proper. Obviously, $|S+S| /|S| \leqslant K_{\min } \leqslant K$, where the last inequality stems from Lemma 3.12 , We distinguish now two cases: either $|S| \geqslant C K_{\min }^{2} \log ^{2} K_{\text {min }}$, and therefore $S$ satisfies the assumptions of Theorem 3.2, or $S$ is too small.

In the first case, by Chang's Theorem 3.2 , there exists a generalized arithmetic progression $Q$ containing $S$, of dimension $d(Q) \leqslant\left\lfloor K_{\min }\right\rfloor$ and $\operatorname{size}(Q)=\exp \left(O\left(K_{\min }^{2} \log ^{3} K_{\min }\right)\right)|S|$. By Ruzsa's covering lemma there exists a subset $Z^{\prime} \subseteq Z$ such that $\left|Z^{\prime}\right| \leqslant|S+Z| /|S|=K_{\text {min }}$ and $Z \subseteq Z^{\prime}+S-S \subseteq \operatorname{Span}\left(Z^{\prime}\right)+Q-Q$. Therefore, $Z$ is contained in a generalized arithmetic progression $Q^{\prime}$ of dimension $d\left(Q^{\prime}\right) \leqslant\left|Z^{\prime}\right|+d(Q) \leqslant 2\left\lfloor K_{\min }\right\rfloor$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{size}\left(Q^{\prime}\right) & \leqslant 3^{\left|Z^{\prime}\right|} 2^{d\left(Q^{\prime}\right)} \operatorname{size}(Q)=\exp \left(O\left(K_{\min }^{2} \log ^{3} K_{\min }\right)\right)|S| \\
& =\exp \left(O\left(K_{\min }^{2} \log ^{3} K_{\min }\right)\right)|X|
\end{aligned}
$$

where the last equality follows from $|S| \leqslant|Z|=\left|\pi_{X}(A)\right| \leqslant|X|$.
The case concludes by moving back by $\phi$ to $G$ : for $P=\phi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$ we find $A \subseteq P+H$, the coset progression $P+H$ is of dimension $d(P+H) \leqslant 2\left\lfloor K_{\text {min }}\right\rfloor$ and

$$
\operatorname{size}(P+H) \leqslant \exp \left(C K_{\min }^{2} \log ^{3} K_{\min }\right)|X||H|=\exp \left(O\left(K^{2} \log ^{3} K\right)\right)|A|
$$

An application of Lemma 3.9 gives the desired result.
On the other hand, if $|S|<C K_{\min }^{2} \log ^{2} K_{\min }$, then $A \subseteq \pi_{X}(A)+H$ and the number of cosets of $H$ involved is at most

$$
\left|\pi_{X}(A)\right|=|Z| \leqslant|Z+S|=K_{\min }|S|=O\left(K^{3} \log ^{2} K\right)
$$

Moreover, as established in the first paragraph of the proof,

$$
\left|\pi_{X}(A)\right||H| \leqslant \operatorname{size}(X+H)=\exp \left(O\left(K \log ^{O(1)} 2 K\right)\right)|A|
$$

### 3.5. Further refinement of the result

The bound on the size of the progression obtained in Theorem 3.13 might have been good enough if the reasoning was based on the original result of Green and Ruzsa [GR07], in which case the size was bounded by $\exp \left(O\left(K^{4} \log ^{O(1)} 2 K\right)\right)|A|$. However, a new version of Bogolyubov-Ruzsa's lemma, originated in Sch11 and fully developed by Sanders San12, results in such good bounds in Green-Ruzsa's theorem that our loss of control of size of the progression is hardly justifiable. In this last section of the chapter we prove the promised Theorem 3.5 that gives much finer control.

To this end we first recall Freiman's lemma [TV06, Lemma 5.13].
Lemma 3.14 (Freiman's lemma). Suppose that $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is not contained in a proper affine subspace. Then we have the lower bound

$$
|A+A| \geqslant(d+1)|A|-\frac{d(d+1)}{2}
$$

Now we formulate a slightly improved version of Chang's Theorem 3.2
Theorem 3.15. Let $A \subseteq G$ be a finite subset of a torsion-free group $G$ such that $0 \in A$ and $|A+A| \leqslant K|A|$. If $|A| \geqslant C K \log ^{C} K$ then there is a convex progression $X$ of dimension $d(X) \leqslant(1+o(1)) K$ and $\operatorname{size}(X)=\exp \left(O\left(K \log ^{O(1)} K\right)\right)|A|$, such that $A \subseteq X$. If, additionally, $|A| \geqslant(K+\epsilon)^{2} / 2 \epsilon$, for $\epsilon>0$, then $d(X) \leqslant\lfloor K-1+\epsilon\rfloor$.

Remark. The constants $C$ making part of the condition on $|A|$ are absolute and their precise values follow from the proof below.

Proof. By Theorem 3.1, $A \subseteq X$ where $X=\phi\left(B \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d}\right)$ is a convex progression of dimension $d \leqslant d(K)=O\left(K \log ^{O(1)} K\right)$ and size $(X)$ is bounded by $\exp \left(O\left(K \log ^{O(1)} K\right)\right)|A|$. For technical reasons we additionally assume that $d(K)=\Omega\left(K \log ^{\Omega(1)} K\right)$ and substitute a suitable function for $d(K)$ if needed.

Let us denote by $d^{\prime}$ the dimension of the affine space $V^{\prime}$ spanned by $\phi^{-1}(A) \cap B$. If $d^{\prime} \leqslant K-1$, we can skip the next few steps, where we establish bounds on $d^{\prime}$.

Otherwise, by Freiman's lemma,

$$
K|A| \geqslant|A+A| \geqslant\left(d^{\prime}+1\right)|A|-d^{\prime}\left(d^{\prime}+1\right) / 2
$$

and $|A| \leqslant r\left(d^{\prime}\right)$ for a function $r$ such that

$$
r(x)=\frac{x(x+1)}{2(x+1-K)}
$$

for $x>K-1$.
Let us define $d^{\prime \prime}$ as the second solution to the equation $r(x)=r(d(K))$ in the range
$x>K-1$, which is equivalent to

$$
x^{2}-x\left(\frac{d(K)(d(K)+1)}{d(K)+1-K}-1\right)+(K-1) \frac{d(K)(d(K)+1)}{d(K)+1-K}=0
$$

By Viète's formula

$$
d^{\prime \prime}=\frac{d(K)(d(K)+1)}{d(K)+1-K}-1-d(K)=\frac{d(K)+1}{d(K)+1-K}(K-1)=(1+o(1)) K
$$

the last, asymptotic equality coming from our assumption about super-linear growth of $d(K)$. Note also that one can choose the constants $C$ in the theorem's hypothesis such that $|A| \geqslant C K \log ^{C} K>r(d(K))$.

Since $r(x)$ is convex for $x>K-1$ and $r\left(d^{\prime}\right) \geqslant|A|>r(d(K))$, and $d^{\prime} \leqslant d(K)$, we have

$$
d^{\prime} \leqslant d^{\prime \prime}=(1+o(1)) K
$$

If $|A| \geqslant(K+\epsilon)^{2} / 2 \epsilon>r(\lfloor K-1+\epsilon\rfloor)$, for $\epsilon>0$, we can conclude that $d^{\prime} \leqslant\lfloor K-1+\epsilon\rfloor$.
In any case $\phi^{-1}(A)$ lies in an affine space $V^{\prime}$ of small dimension $d^{\prime}$. Since $0 \in A$ this space is not only affine but it is linear as well. It remains to show that $A$ can be considered to be a subset of a $d^{\prime}$-dimensional convex progression $X^{\prime}=\phi^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime} \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d^{\prime}}\right)$. This is immediate if we take an endomorphism $T: V^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime}}$ such that $T\left(V^{\prime} \cap \mathbb{Z}^{d}\right)=\mathbb{Z}^{d^{\prime}}$. Now we just write $\phi^{\prime}=\left.\phi\right|_{V^{\prime}} \circ T^{-1}$ and $B^{\prime}=T\left(B \cap V^{\prime}\right)$.

A literal repetition of the proof of Theorem 3.13, with application of Chang's Theorem 3.2 replaced by that of the above theorem, proves Theorem 3.5 .

Note how the last paragraph of the proof above tacitly explains introduction of convex (coset) progressions to the reasoning. While slicing a generalized arithmetic progression usually results in a less regular object, a slice of a convex progression is once again a convex progression. This leaves from us the burden of constant work on shaping our object as a generalized progression.

It is also worth noting that the difference in our bounds for the sizes of $X+H$ and $P+H$ is not simply caused by our inability to conduct the reasoning effectively, but it stems from a fundamental difficulty of finding small generalized progressions covering convex ones. This geometric problem is also reflected in a similar difference featuring in the pair of Lemmas 3.8 and 3.9 .

## Chapter 4

## Interlude

In the previous chapter we paid particular attention to good control over the dimension of a generalized arithmetic progression obtained in Green-Ruzsa's theorem. It is time now to show limitations of this approach. An immediate one can be reduced to the following slogan: Good characterization of sets with small doubling, promised by Freiman's and Green-Ruzsa's theorems, is not that good.

To make the above remark clear, let us consider a finite set $A$ such that $|A+A| \leqslant K|A|$. By Freiman's theorem there is a generalized arithmetic progression $P$ of dimension $d(K)$ and size bounded by $f(K)$, such that $A \subseteq P$. Therefore, we can conclude that

$$
|A+A| \leqslant|P+P| \leqslant 2^{d(K)}|P| \leqslant 2^{d(K)} f(K)|A| .
$$

However, the factor $2^{d(K)} f(K)$, which is a good measure of accuracy of the characterization, is exponential in $K$, as we know that we necessarily have $d(K)=\Omega(K)$ for any reasonable choice of the functions $d$ and $f$. We could make this measure merely polynomial in $K$, if only we moved our interest from the problem investigated by Freiman toward another, highly related one that we present in the following paragraphs.

Growing interest in Freiman's theorem that followed in the beginning of the current century was not only due to the new and ingenious Ruzsa's proof, whose structure was roughly followed by all subsequent refinements and generalizations mentioned in the previous chapter. It was also due to its applications to some of the very most interesting problems in additive combinatorics. To this respect we can mention Gower's breakthrough proof [Gow98, Gow01] of Szemerédi's theorem as well as a new result [SSV05] on Erdős-Moser problem due to Sudakov, Szemerédi and Vu.

However, the two proofs mentioned above did not quite rely on some additively structured set being a subset of a generalized arithmetic progression. The key was rather that a huge portion of this set made part of a low dimensional arithmetic progression, which is basically a form of the Bogolyubov-Ruzsa lemma. While this is enough for the purpose of proving Freiman's theorem, the notion of low-dimensionality differs substantially for both statements.

As we have already mentioned several times, in case of the Freiman theorem, one cannot
expect the relevant dimension to be anything less than at least $\Omega(K)$. On the other hand, there is a priori no reason why a progression, whose existence postulates Bogolyubov-Ruzsa's lemma, should have to be so highly-dimensional. This belief goes actually much further and is now know as the polynomial Freiman-Ruzsa conjecture.

Conjecture 4.1 (polynomial Freiman-Ruzsa conjecture, PFR). Let $A \subseteq G$ be such that $|A+A| \leqslant K|A|$. Then there is a coset progression $P+H$ of dimension $O(\log K)$ and size $(P+H) \leqslant C_{1}(K)|A|$ such that $|A \cap(P+H)| \geqslant C_{2}(K)^{-1}|A|$. Both functions $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ can be taken polynomial.

The fundamental significance of the conjecture can be better understood in perspective of the following theorem due to Ruzsa, which states it in several equivalent formulations for a particular case of a dyadic group.

Theorem 4.2 (Ruzsa Gre05b, Proposition 2.2]). The following five statements are equivalent.

1. If $A \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{2}^{\infty}$ has $|A+A| \leqslant K|A|$, then there is $A^{\prime} \subseteq A,\left|A^{\prime}\right| \geqslant|A| / C_{1}(K)$, which is contained in a coset of some subspace of size at most $C_{2}(K)|A|$.
2. If $A \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{2}^{\infty}$ has $|A+A| \leqslant K|A|$, then $A$ may be covered by at most $C_{3}(K)$ cosets of some subspace of size at most $C_{4}(K)|A|$.
3. If $A \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{2}^{\infty}$ has $|A+A| \leqslant K|A|$, and if additionally there is a set $B,|B| \leqslant K$, such that $A+B=A+A$, then $A$ may be covered by at most $C_{5}(K)$ cosets of some subspace of size at most $C_{6}(K)|A|$.
4. Let $f: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}^{\infty}$ be a function such that $\left|\left\{f(x)+f(y)-f(x+y): x, y \in F_{2}^{m}\right\}\right| \leqslant K$. Then $f$ may be written as $g+h$, where $g$ is linear and $|\operatorname{Im}(h)| \leqslant C_{7}(K)$.
5. Let $f: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}^{\infty}$ be a function such that for at least $2^{3 m} / K$ of the quadruples $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right) \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{m}$ with $x_{1}+x_{2}=x_{3}+x_{4}$ we have $f\left(x_{1}\right)+f\left(x_{2}\right)=f\left(x_{3}\right)+f\left(x_{4}\right)$. Then there is an affine linear function $g: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}^{\infty}$ such that $f(x)=g(x)$ for at least $2^{m} / C_{8}(K)$ values of $x$.

Furthermore if $C_{i}(K)$ is bounded by a polynomial in $K$ for all $i \in I$, where $I$ is any of the sets $\{1,2\},\{3,4\},\{5,6\},\{7\}$ and $\{8\}$ then in fact $C_{i}(K)$ is bounded by a polynomial in $K$ for all $i$.

Spectrum of applications of the conjectured result is not limited to additive combinatorics only. The exposition paper Lov12 mentions several applications in theoretical computer science, like e.g. effective constructions of some cryptographic primitives, linearity testing for maps $f: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}^{\infty}$ and proving bound on complexity of some problems. The common source of applicability of the PFR conjecture is that it allows to approximate arbitrary function $\phi$ that is properly characterized combinatorially by a bounded number of affine functions. This is crucial e.g. both to Gowers's [Gow98, Gow01] and Aggarwal, Divesh and Dodis's ADL13].

While the quest on the polynomial Freiman-Ruzsa conjecture is still on, the quasi-polynomial Freiman-Ruzsa theorem, Theorem 3.4, has been proved recently by Sanders [San12], following the first breakthrough result of Schoen [Sch11.

Although we are not interested in the details of Sanders's proof, we shall incorporate several results of his in the next chapter where we investigate upper bounds on Rado numbers. We shall also follow the general approach of Bohr sets analysis. Here we only make some remarks on why the Bohr sets prove to be such a useful tool in our investigations.

First of all, what is clearly present in Ruzsa's approach to Freiman's theorem, $d$-dimensional Bohr sets are very much like $d$-dimensional generalized arithmetic progressions, and at the same time they are defined in an analytic manner. This makes them a perfect intermediate object to move back and forth between a structural and Fourier analytic worlds.

The second feature of the Bohr sets is that they play the role of subspaces very well which facilitates translation of any methods from the easier final field setting to the general one. While iterative approaches to problems in the next chapter are conceptually easy to follow, the key idea thereof is finding a long arithmetic progression in a sumset, which is more expensive to do than just find a proper Bohr set. The situation is very similar to the one that we encounter in Lemmas 3.8 and 3.9, where guaranteeing existence of a proper generalized progression and merely a proper convex progressions are very different in terms of cost. Note also that actual subspaces of a linear space are themselves Bohr sets.

Finally, it should not be too much of a surprise that a tool that proves valuable in considerations of one particular equation, i.e. $x+y=x^{\prime}+y^{\prime}$ can be so for other equations as well.

## Chapter 5

## Rado numbers and solving linear equations

In the last two chapters we investigate linear equations. We pay particular attention to conditions of solvability of these equations.

### 5.1. Classification of linear equations

It has been a long studied question of when a Diophantine equation has a solution in a set of integers and it has been known for long that not all equations are created equal to this respect. The main division line goes between those which can be called invariant and those which cannot. A great account of this is two-part Ruzsa's work Ruz93, Ruz95.

Definition 5.1. Given a linear equation of integer coefficients

$$
a_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{k} x_{k}=0,
$$

for non-zero $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$, we say that:

1. it is invariant if $\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i}=0$;
2. it is of genus $g$ if $g$ is the maximal number such that there are $g$ pairwise disjoint non-empty subsets $\mathcal{I}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{I}_{g} \subseteq[k]$ such that $\bigcup_{j=1}^{g} \mathcal{I}_{j}=[k]$ and $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}_{j}} a_{i}=0$ for every $j=1, \ldots, g$.
3. it contains an equation that satisfies property $\mathcal{P}$ if there is a subset $\mathcal{I} \subseteq[k]$ such that the equation $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} a_{i} x_{i}=0$ satisfies $\mathcal{P}$.

Remark. Note that in the above definition we do not deal with non-homogeneous equations, i.e. the ones with non-zero constant on the right-hand side. This is so throughout the chapter and we use the word linear to mean homogenous linear without any further explanation.

While existence of non-trivial solutions to invariant equations can be guaranteed on density basis alone, it is no longer so for general non-invariant equations. A natural example is the set of odd numbers, which is free of any solutions to Schur's equation $x+y=z$ despite of having density $\frac{1}{2}$. For this reason a study of non-invariant equations has to follow slightly different lines, designated long ago by Schur [Sch17] and Rado Rad33].

Definition 5.2. We say that an equation is (partition-)regular if for every finite coloring $\mathbb{N}=A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ there exists a monochromatic solution to it.

It follows by the compactness principle that, for any regular equation, there is the smallest integer $r(n)$ such that for every $n$-coloring of $\{1, \ldots, r(n)\}$ there is a monochromatic solution to it.

Rado Rad33 provided a convenient characterization of partition-regular systems of linear equations. The following theorem is the single-equation version thereof.

Theorem 5.3 (Rado). A homogeneous linear equation is regular if and only if it contains an invariant equation.

There is a particular weakness in the above theorem, however, namely invariant equations always have trivial solutions with all $x_{i}$ 's equal. We denote by $\mathrm{R}(n)$ the least integer such that for every $n$-coloring of $\{1, \ldots, \mathrm{R}(n)\}$ there is a non-trivial solutions to a given equation and we are only interested in $\mathrm{R}(n)$ hereafter. It turns out that $\mathrm{R}(n)$ exists for regular invariant equations in more than two variables.

Since known finintistic proofs of Rado's theorem rely on finding long monochromatic arithmetic progressions or similar arithmetic structures, the resulting upper bounds are rather poor. A straightforward application of the van der Waerden theorem would result in an Ackerman-type bound for the Rado numbers and application of the powerful result of Gowers [Gow01, Theorem 18.2] cannot give anything better than roughly

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \leqslant \operatorname{tower}(5 n)
$$

where

$$
\text { tower } \left.(n)=2^{2^{\cdot \cdot 2}}\right\} \mathrm{n} \text { times } .
$$

As already mentioned, if a linear equation is invariant, then density results are highly related to Rado numbers. It follows from Bloom's Blo12, Theorem 1.1] based on Sanders's work [San11] that for every $k$-variable invariant equation we have

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \leqslant 2^{O\left(n^{1 /(k-2)} \log ^{5} n\right)}
$$

If, additionally, we assume that $k \geqslant 6$ then from [SS14, Theorem 1.1] one can deduce that

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \leqslant 2^{O\left(\log ^{7} n\right)}
$$

Furthermore, for equations with genus $g \geqslant 2$ we have

$$
\mathrm{R}(n)=n^{1+O(1 / g)}
$$

see Ruzsa's [Ruz93, Theorem 3.6].
As to the lower bound, we are about to introduce the only construction that is a source of all strong lower bounds for convex equations, which form a particular class of invariant ones. It is due to Behrend [Beh46] and in spite of its simplicity it has been only slightly improved over the last sixty years.

The main idea behind it is a simple observation that any set of points all lying on a convex surface is free of non-trivial solutions to convex equations, i.e. equations of the form

$$
a_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{k} x_{k}=\left(a_{1}+\cdots+a_{k}\right) y
$$

for $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k} \in \mathbb{N}$. By an averaging argument, there is a sphere that contains a lot of lattice points from $[L]^{d} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{d}$ and it requires only a slight effort to embed this set in $[N]$ so that no non-trivial solution appears. This can be done in a way that the resulting set is of size $N \exp (-O(\sqrt{\log N}))$.

It follows from Behrend's construction composed with a probabilistic covering argument that for every convex equation

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \geqslant 2^{O\left(\log ^{2} n\right)}
$$

Hence for all convex equations with $k \geqslant 6$ we have quite tight bounds on Rado numbers.
On the other hand, if a linear equation is non-invariant, then every set of integers contains a subset proportional in size and free of solutions to this equation. Hence, by iterative argument,

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \gg C^{n}
$$

for some $C>1$ depending on the equation.

The above discussion shows that one of the most widely open questions concerning Rado numbers is that of upper bounds for non-invariant equations. This chapter is devoted to these equations only and our main results are the following three theorems proved in Section 5.2 , Many of the proofs presented share the same idea of identifying long monochromatic arithmetic progressions or, in the more involved cases, large Bohr sets. The following results are presented in the order of increasing strength of hypothesis. The more structured the equation considered, the more efficient our methods will be. All implied constants depend only on the equation.

Theorem 5.4. Let $a_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{k} x_{k}=0$ be a regular equation with integer coefficients. Then for every $n$

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \ll 2^{O\left(n^{4} \log ^{4} n\right)}
$$

Theorem 5.5. Let $a_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{k} x_{k}=0$ be an equation with integer coefficients that contains an invariant equation with at least 4 variables. Then for every $n$

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \leqslant 2^{O\left(n^{3} \log ^{5} n\right)} .
$$

Theorem 5.6. Let $a_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{k} x_{k}=0$ be an equation with integer coefficients that contains an equation of genus 2 , then

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \leqslant 2^{O\left(n^{2} \log ^{5} n\right)}
$$

While the above results make a significant progress when compared with tower-like bounds, the gap between lower and upper bounds is still wide. We will keep this issue in mind in Section 5.3 when a particularly simple class of Schur-like equations will be considered.

A classical theorem of Schur [Sch17, prior to general Rado's result Rad33], asserts that for every partitioning of the first \en!」 positive integers into $n$ classes one can always find three numbers in one partition class satisfying the equation $x+y=z$. In other words, a certain class is not sum-free.

Denote by $\mathrm{S}(n)$ the smallest integer $N$ such that for every $n$-coloring of $\{1, \ldots, N\}$ there is a monochromatic solution to $x+y=z$. We know that

$$
321^{n / 5} \ll \mathrm{~S}(n) \leqslant\lfloor(e-1 / 24) n!\rfloor .
$$

For the lower bound see Exo94]. The upper one stems from the relation $\mathrm{S}(n)<\mathrm{R}(3, \ldots, 3 ; 2)$ between Schur and Ramsey numbers, from the classical recurrence relation

$$
\mathrm{R}\left(k_{1}, \ldots, k_{n} ; 2\right) \leqslant 2-n+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathrm{R}\left(\ldots, k_{i-1}, k_{i}-1, k_{i+1}, \ldots ; 2\right)
$$

and the bound $\mathrm{R}(3,3,3,3 ; 2) \leqslant 65$ proved in Whi72. Abbott and Moser AM66 proved that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathrm{~S}(n)^{1 / n}$, although not necessarily finite, does exist. Proving any significantly stronger bound on $\mathrm{S}(n)$ would be highly appreciated but we will only manage to improve it a little bit in a special case only.

We call a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z} k$-sum-free if it contains no solution to the equation

$$
x_{1}+\cdots+x_{k+1}=y_{1}+\cdots+y_{k} .
$$

Also we denote by $S_{k}(n)$ the analogues of the Schur numbers for the above equation. Because every $(k+1)$-sum-free set is also $k$-sum-free, we have

$$
\mathrm{S}(n)=\mathrm{S}_{1}(n) \geqslant \mathrm{S}_{2}(n) \geqslant \ldots .
$$

It is easy to check that for every $k$ we still have $\mathrm{S}_{k}(n)>C_{k}^{n}$, for some constant $C_{k}>1$. While such equation is easier to handle for larger $k$, because of the large number of summands
involved, a straightforward application of Schur's argument, which is sketched in the first paragraph of Subsection 5.2.1, only gives $\mathrm{S}_{k}(n) \ll \frac{1}{k} n$ !. Our result is the following.

Theorem 5.7. For some absolute positive constant $c$, we have

$$
\mathrm{S}_{2}(n) \ll n^{-c \frac{\log n}{\log \log n} n!.}
$$

The sections that are about to follow can be read independently.

### 5.2. Rado numbers

This section consists of two parts. In the first one we describe the main ideas of our approach to upper bounds for Rado numbers and compare it with a traditional one, based on identifying long monochromatic arithmetic progressions in structured sets. Since sumsets, nor even sets of the form $2 A-2 A$ do not have to contain sufficiently long progressions, the results obtained will be rather poor, but still much better than previous bounds. In the second part we will prove the main results of this chapter. To this end we will heavily rely on properties of Bohr sets.

### 5.2.1. Sketch of the argument

To prove our results we try to adapt classical Schur's method, which is originally designed to prove upper bounds on partitions free of solutions to the equation $x+y=z$ and can be described as follows. Suppose that $X_{0}=[N]=A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ is a sum-free partition. Then, iteratively, for $X_{k-1} \subseteq A_{k} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ and $X_{k-1}-X_{k-1}$ disjoint with $A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{k-1}$ we may assume that $X_{k-1} \cap A_{k}$ is the largest among $X_{k-1} \cap A_{k}, \ldots, X_{k-1} \cap A_{n}$. Write $a=\max \left(X_{k-1} \cap A_{k}\right)$. Clearly $X_{k}=a-\left(X_{k-1} \cap A_{k} \backslash\{a\}\right)$ satisfies the conditions imposed. Iterating this process, after $n$ steps we find a set $X_{n}$ such that $\left(X_{n}-X_{n}\right) \cap[N]=\emptyset$ and of size at least $N / n$ !. This results in the bound $N \ll n$ !.

Now, notice that it is enough in the general case to consider equations of the form

$$
a x-a y+b z=0
$$

with $a, b$ positive integers, because by Rado's theorem every regular equation can be reduced to a such one. It is immediate that Schur's argument cannot be directly applied for the above equations. To make it work one can try to locate in $a \cdot A_{1}-a \cdot A_{1}$ a long arithmetic progression passing through 0 . It has to be disjoint with $b \cdot A_{1}$ and we can iterate this procedure on the subsequence of elements divisible by $b$, which is partitioned between at most $n-1$ sets of the initial partition. To express this idea we recall the following lemma.

Lemma 5.8 ([CRS07, Corollary 1]). Let $A \subseteq[N]$ with $|A| \geqslant \delta N$. Then there exist integers $d>0$ and $l \gg \frac{\log N}{\log (1 / \delta)}$ such that $d, 2 d, \ldots, l d \in A-A$.

Theorem 5.9. For a regular linear equation $a_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{k} x_{k}=0$ with integer coefficients we have

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \leqslant \operatorname{tower}((1+o(1)) n)
$$

where the $o(1)$ term depends only on the equation.

Proof. Let $[\mathrm{R}(n)-1]=A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ be a partition without a monochromatic solution to our equation and set $N=R(n)-1$. Also, following Rado's characterization of regular equations, let $I$ be such that $\sum_{i \in I} a_{i}=0$. First, observe that there are no monochromatic solutions to the equation

$$
a x-a y+b z=0
$$

where $a=\left|a_{i_{0}}\right|$ for some $i_{0} \in I$ and $b=\left|\sum_{i \notin I} a_{i}\right|$. Suppose that $\left|A_{1} \cap\{1, \ldots, N / a\}\right| \geqslant N / n a$ and let $A \subseteq A_{1}$ be any set of elements of $A_{1}$ belonging to the same residue class modulo $b$ with $|A| \geqslant\left|A_{1}\right| / b$. We apply Lemma 5.8 to $A$, so that $d, 2 d, \ldots, l d \in A-A$ for some $l \gg \frac{\log N}{\log (a b n)}$. Notice that $d \equiv 0(\bmod b)$ and $a d / b, 2 a d / b, \ldots, l a d / b \notin A_{1}$, so that

$$
a d / b, 2 a d / b, \ldots, l a d / b \in A_{2} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}
$$

Whence $\mathrm{R}(n-1) \gg \frac{\log N}{\log (a b n)}$ or, equivalently,

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \leqslant(a b n)^{O(\mathrm{R}(n-1))}
$$

and the assertion follows.

Next we show that Theorem 5.9 can be highly improved provided that the equation considered contains an invariant component of at least three variables, i.e. there exists $I$ such that $\sum_{i \in I} a_{i}=0$ and $|I| \geqslant 3$. To this end we need some lemmas. The first one is a deep result due to Sanders, proved in [San11, Theorem 1.1], see also [Blo12]. The other can be extracted from the proof of [FHR92, Theorem 3].

Lemma 5.10. Let $A \subseteq[N]$ with $|A| \geqslant \delta N$. Then A contains $\exp \left(-O\left((1 / \delta) \log ^{5}(1 / \delta)\right)|A|^{k-1}\right.$ solutions to any invariant equation with $k \geqslant 3$ variables.

Lemma 5.11. Let $A, B, C \subseteq[N]$ with $|A|,|B|,|C| \geqslant \delta N$. Then every $x$ with at least $\varepsilon|A||B||C| / N$ representations in $A+B+C$ is a middle term of an arithmetic progression of length $\Omega\left(\varepsilon \delta N^{\Omega\left(\varepsilon^{2} \delta^{3}\right)}\right)$, fully contained in $A+B+C$.

Proof. Here we roughly follow the lines of the proof of [FHR92, Theorem 3]. First we embed $[N]$ into $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ for prime $p>6 N$. Since a relevant $p<12 N$ exists we can assume that $A, B, C \subseteq \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ with $|A|,|B|,|C| \geqslant \delta^{\prime} p$ for $\delta^{\prime}=\delta / 12$. Then we are interested in $x$ 's that have at least $\varepsilon^{\prime}|A||B \| C| / p$ for $\varepsilon^{\prime}=6 \varepsilon$.

Given that $(A * B * C)(x) \geqslant \varepsilon^{\prime}|A||B||C| / p$ we want to show, for some non-zero $d \in \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ and $j \in\{-J, \ldots, J\}$, that $(A * B * C)(x+j d) \neq 0$. Or, equivalently, that

$$
\sum_{r} \widehat{A}(r) \widehat{B}(r) \widehat{C}(r)\left(e^{2 \pi i r x / p}-e^{2 \pi i r(x+j d) / p}\right)<\varepsilon^{\prime}|A||B \| C| .
$$

Since for $y$ equal either $x$ or $x+j d$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\sum_{r \notin \sec _{\eta}(C)} \widehat{A}(r) \widehat{B}(r) \widehat{C}(r) e^{2 \pi i r y / p}\right| & \leqslant \eta|C| \sum_{r \in \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}}|\widehat{A}(r) \widehat{B}(r)| \\
& \leqslant \eta|C| \sqrt{\sum_{r \in \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}}|\widehat{A}(r)|^{2}} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_{r \in \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}}|\widehat{B}(r)|^{2}} \\
& =\eta p \sqrt{|A||B||C| \leqslant \frac{\eta}{\delta^{\prime}}|A||B||C|}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\eta$ is to be fixed later, it is enough to prove that

$$
\left|\sum_{r \in \operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}(C)} \widehat{A}(r) \widehat{B}(r) \widehat{C}(r)\left(e^{2 \pi i r x / p}-e^{2 \pi i r(x+j d) / p}\right)\right|<\left(\varepsilon^{\prime}-\frac{2 \eta}{\delta^{\prime}}\right)|A||B \| C| .
$$

Now, $\left|\operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}(C)\right| \cdot \eta^{2}|C|^{2} \leqslant p|C| \leqslant \delta^{\prime-1}|C|^{2}$ so $\left|\operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}(C)\right| \leqslant \eta^{-2} \delta^{\prime-1}$ and by the box principle there is non-zero $d \in \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\|d r / p\|_{\mathbb{R} / \mathbb{Z}} \leqslant p^{-1 /\left|\operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}(C)\right|} \leqslant p^{-\eta^{2} \delta^{\prime}}$ for all $r \in \operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}(C)$. Since $\left|1-e^{2 \pi i t}\right| \leqslant 2 \pi\|t\|_{\mathbb{R} / \mathbb{Z}}$ it follows that, for this particular $d$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\sum_{r \in \operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}(C)} \widehat{A}(r) \widehat{B}(r) \widehat{C}(r)\left(e^{2 \pi i r x / p}-e^{2 \pi i r(x+j d) / p}\right)\right| & \leqslant 2 \pi|C| \cdot|j| p^{-\eta^{2} \delta^{\prime}} \sum_{r \in \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}}|\widehat{A}(r) \widehat{B}(r)| \\
& \leqslant \frac{2 \pi|j|}{\delta^{\prime}} p^{-\eta^{2} \delta^{\prime}}|A||B||C|
\end{aligned}
$$

which proves that a relevant arithmetic progression exists for $J<\frac{\delta^{\prime} \varepsilon^{\prime}-2 \eta}{2 \pi} \cdot p^{\eta^{2} \delta^{\prime}}$.
The choice of $\eta=\delta^{\prime} \varepsilon^{\prime} / 4$ concludes the proof.
Having introduced the lemmas we can prove the following.
Theorem 5.12. Let $a_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{k} x_{k}=0$ be an equation of integer coefficients and $I \subseteq[k]$ be such that $\sum_{i \in I} a_{i}=0$. Suppose that $|I| \geqslant 3$, then

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \leqslant 2^{2^{O\left(n^{2} \log ^{6} n\right)}}
$$

The implied constant depends only on the equation.
Proof. Let $M=\sum_{i \in I}\left|a_{i}\right| / 2, N=\mathrm{R}(n)-1$ and $[N]=A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ be a partition without a monochromatic solution to our equation. Suppose that $\left|A_{1} \cap\{1, \ldots, N / M\}\right| \geqslant N / M n$ and for $b=\left|\sum_{i \notin I} a_{i}\right|$ let again $A \subseteq A_{1}$ consist of all elements of $A_{1}$ belonging to the same residue class modulo $b$ with $|A| \geqslant \frac{\left|A_{1}\right|}{b} \geqslant \delta N$ for $\delta=(M b n)^{-1}$. Set also $\varepsilon=\exp \left(-C \delta^{-1} \log ^{5}\left(\delta^{-1}\right)\right)$, where $C>0$ is the constant given by Lemma 5.10 .

We may assume that $I=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right\}$ and observe that no $A_{i}$ contains a solution to the equation

$$
a_{1} x_{1}+a_{2} x_{2}+a_{3} x_{3}+b y=0 .
$$

By Lemma 5.10 there are at least $\varepsilon|A|^{2}$ solutions to the invariant equation

$$
a_{1} x_{1}+a_{2} x_{2}+a_{3} x_{3}=0 .
$$

In other words, 0 has at least $\varepsilon|A|^{2}$ representations in $a_{1} \cdot A+a_{2} \cdot A+a_{3} \cdot A$, hence by Lemma 5.11 there is a symmetric arithmetic progression $P \subseteq a_{1} \cdot A+a_{2} \cdot A+a_{3} \cdot A \subseteq\{1, \ldots, N\}$ of length $\Omega\left(\varepsilon \delta N^{\Omega\left(\varepsilon^{2} \delta^{3}\right)}\right)$. Therefore $\frac{1}{b} \cdot P \subseteq A_{2} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$, because the set $A_{1}$ is free of solutions to the equation considered, and as a result $\mathrm{R}(n-1) \gg \varepsilon \delta \cdot \mathrm{R}(n)^{\Omega\left(\varepsilon^{2} \delta^{3}\right)}$.

The last inequality implies that $\mathrm{R}(1) \gg \varepsilon \delta \mathrm{R}(2)^{\Omega\left(\varepsilon^{2} \delta^{3}\right)} \gg \ldots \gg(\varepsilon \delta)^{n} \mathrm{R}(n)^{\Omega\left(\varepsilon^{2} \delta^{3}\right)^{n}}$, hence

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \ll(\varepsilon \delta)^{n \Omega\left(\varepsilon^{2} \delta^{3}\right)^{-n}}=2^{2^{O\left(n^{2} \log ^{6} n\right)}}
$$

which proves the claim.
It is worth mentioning that one can obtain even better upper bound for all equations containing an equation of genus 2. To get still further improvement, instead of arithmetic progressions we make use of Bohr sets. This reduces roughly one exponent in our bounds, but it makes all the proofs more complicated. A crucial additive property of dense sets $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}$ that influences our approach is that one can guarantee existence of a shift of a large, low dimensional Bohr sets in $A+A+A$, but it is just not so for $A+A$. Therefore, we cannot proceed as in the proof of Theorem 5.9. On the other hand, one can show that $A+A$ contains a large proportion of a shift of a low dimensional, large Bohr set, which allows us to overcome this difficulty. Next subsections contain rigorous proofs based on the above ideas.

### 5.2.2. Main results based on Bohr sets analysis

Proving the strongest results of ours requires recalling a more sophisticated concept of Bohr sets, some extra notation and some lemmas. Bohr sets were introduced to modern additive combinatorics, beyond the limited setting of the Freiman-type problems, by Bourgain [Bou99] and since then have become a fundamental tool in additive combinatorics. Sanders [San08, San12 further developed the theory of Bohr proving many important results.

Definition 2.6 of Bohr sets and the two lemmas below are pretty standard, hence we refer the reader to TV06 for a more complete account.

Lemma 5.13. For every $\gamma>0$ we have

$$
\gamma^{|\Gamma|} N \leqslant|B(\Gamma, \gamma)| \leqslant 8^{|\Gamma|+1}|B(\Gamma, \gamma / 2)| .
$$

The size of Bohr sets can vary significantly even for small changes of the width parameter, which is the motivation for the following definition.

Definition 5.14. We call a Bohr set $B(\Gamma, \gamma)$ regular if for every $\eta,|\eta| \leqslant 1 /(100|\Gamma|)$, we have

$$
(1-100|\Gamma||\eta|)|B| \leqslant\left|B_{1+\eta}\right| \leqslant(1+100|\Gamma||\eta|)|B| .
$$

Bourgain Bou99 showed that regular Bohr sets are ubiquitous.
Lemma 5.15. For every Bohr set $B(\Gamma, \gamma)$ there exists $\frac{1}{2} \gamma \leqslant \gamma^{\prime} \leqslant \gamma$ such that $B\left(\Gamma, \gamma^{\prime}\right)$ is regular.

The most important consequence of regularity of a Bohr set is expressed by the following lemma. Here we denote by $\mu_{X}$ the uniform probability measure on a finite nonempty set $X$.

Lemma 5.16 (Bou08, Lemma 3.16]). Let $B \subseteq G$ be a d-dimensional, regular Bohr set. Suppose that $S \subseteq B_{\varepsilon}$ and $\varepsilon<\kappa /(100 d)$ for some $\kappa<1$. Then for every set $A \subseteq B$, we have

$$
\left\|\mu_{B} \cdot A-\left(\mu_{B} * \mu_{S}\right) \cdot A\right\|_{\ell_{1}(G)}<2 \kappa,
$$

where $\mu_{B} * \mu_{S}$ denotes the convolution of relevant density functions as defined in Notation.
An immediate consequence of the above lemma is the following.
Lemma 5.17. Let $B$ be a d-dimensional regular Bohr set, let $A$ be a set and $\mu_{B}(A)=\delta$. Suppose that $S \subseteq B_{\varepsilon}$ and $\varepsilon<\kappa \delta /(200 d)$ for $\kappa<1$. Then

$$
\frac{1}{|B|} \sum_{x \in B} \mu_{S}(A+x) \geqslant(1-\kappa) \delta .
$$

Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta & =\sum_{x} \mu_{B}(x) A(x) \\
& \leqslant\left\|\mu_{B} \cdot A-\left(\mu_{B} * \mu_{S}\right) \cdot A\right\|_{\ell_{1}}+\sum_{x}\left(\mu_{B} * \mu_{S}\right)(x) A(x) \\
& \leqslant \kappa \delta+\sum_{a \in A}\left(\mu_{S} * \mu_{B}\right)(a)=\kappa \delta+\sum_{a \in A} \sum_{x \in B} \frac{\mu_{S}(a+x)}{|B|} \\
& =\kappa \delta+\frac{1}{|B|} \sum_{x \in B} \mu_{S}(A+x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The above is pretty standard and we will refer to it in course of proving the theorems.

## Proof of Theorem 5.4.

The following lemma is due to Sanders.
Lemma 5.18 (San08, Lemma 6.4]). Let $B=B(\Gamma, \gamma)$ be a d-dimensional regular Bohr set and let $A \subseteq B$ be such that $\mu_{B}(A)=\delta_{A} \geqslant \delta$. Then either $A-A$ contains $(1-\alpha)$
fraction of a regular Bohr set $B_{\rho}$, where $\rho \gg \delta^{4} / d$ and $\rho$ does not depend on $A$, or there is a regular Bohr set $B^{\prime}=B\left(\Gamma \cup \Lambda, \gamma^{\prime}\right)$ and $x$ such that $\mu_{B^{\prime}}(A+x) \geqslant 1.01 \delta_{A}$. Furthermore, $|\Lambda|=O\left(\delta^{-2} \log (1 / \alpha)\right)$ and $\gamma^{\prime} \gg \gamma \delta^{6} /\left(d^{3} \log (1 / \alpha)\right)$.

It is important to realize that the Bohr set mentioned in the first alternative of the lemma can be chosen universally, i.e. independently of the set $A$. This follows from Sanders's proof of the lemma, although he does not state it this way 1 We will make use of this property when we apply the lemma to several sets $A_{i}$ simultaneously.

Proof of Theorem 5.4. Clearly, it is enough to consider an equation of the form

$$
a x-a y+b z=0
$$

with $a, b>0$. Suppose that $[N]=A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ is a solution-free partition. Let $p$ be a prime between $(2 a+b) N$ and $2(2 a+b) N$. Then each color class is solution-free in $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$.

Let $M=\max (a, b)$ and $\delta=1 /(3 n)$, and $\varepsilon=n^{-2}$. We build the proof around an iterative procedure and during its execution we keep track of several variables: a subset $\mathcal{I} \subseteq[n]$, a regular Bohr set $B=B(\Gamma, \gamma) \subseteq \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$, counters Count ${ }_{i}$ and the aggregated value Total $=\sum$ Count $_{i}$. Also, we make the following invariants hold:

I0 $\forall_{i \notin \mathcal{I}}$ Count $_{i}=0$
I1 $\forall_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \mu_{a b \cdot B}\left(a \cdot A_{i}+x_{i}\right) \geqslant 1.01^{\text {Count }_{i}} \cdot \frac{\delta}{2}+(O(n \log n)-$ Total $) \varepsilon$ for some $x_{i}$
I2 $B=B(\Gamma, \gamma)$ is regular, $|\Gamma|=O\left(\right.$ Total $\left.\cdot n^{2} \log n\right)$ and $\gamma \gg n^{-O(\text { Total })}$
The aim that the procedure is supposed to pursue is to make the following conditions hold:
C1 $\forall_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \mu_{a b \cdot B}\left(a \cdot A_{i}-a \cdot A_{i}\right) \geqslant 1-\delta$
C2 $\forall_{i \notin \mathcal{I}} \mu_{a b \cdot B}\left(b \cdot A_{i}\right)<\delta$
To begin with let $B=B^{0}=[-N / a, N / a]$, which is a one-dimensional regular Bohr set, $\mathcal{I}=\emptyset$ and Count ${ }_{i}=0$ for all $i$. We easily verify that the invariants hold in this case. Whenever any of the conditions is violated we perform one of the two operations described below and increase one of the counters by one.

By the invariant (I1) it is clear that this procedure stops after at most $O(n \log n)$ steps and, when it stops, we must have both conditions satisfied. For this reason we allow ourselves to plug the bound Total $=O(n \log n)$ into the calculations below. Since $\left(a \cdot A_{i}-a \cdot A_{i}\right) \cap b \cdot A_{i}=\emptyset$, by condition (C1) we have

$$
\forall_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \mu_{a b \cdot B}\left(b \cdot A_{i}\right)<\delta
$$

[^3]When combined with condition (C2), we get

$$
\mu_{a b \cdot B}(b \cdot[N])<n \delta=\frac{1}{3}
$$

which is a contradiction if $|B| \geqslant 7$, because by the initial choice

$$
a b \cdot B \subseteq a b \cdot B^{0} \subseteq b \cdot[-N, N]
$$

and therefore $\mu_{a b \cdot B}(b \cdot[N])=\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{|B|}>\frac{1}{3}$. Hence $|B| \leqslant 6$ which by invariant (I2) and Lemma 5.13 implies

$$
N=2^{O\left(n^{4} \log ^{4} n\right)}
$$

It is now enough to describe what operations are performed in case a condition does not hold and to verify that the invariants are preserved.

If condition ( C 2 ) is violated, then there is $i \notin \mathcal{I}$ such that $\mu_{a b \cdot B}\left(b \cdot A_{i}\right) \geqslant \delta$, which is equivalent to $\mu_{a \cdot B}\left(A_{i}\right) \geqslant \delta$. Therefore for $\eta \in\left(\frac{\varepsilon \delta}{8000 M|\Gamma|}, \frac{\varepsilon \delta}{4000 M|\Gamma|}\right]=n^{-O(1)}$ such that $B_{\eta}$ is regular, by Lemma 5.17 applied to the set $A_{i}$ and the Bohr sets $a \cdot B$ and $a b \cdot B_{\eta} \subseteq a \cdot B_{\varepsilon}$ we have

$$
\mu_{a b \cdot B_{\eta}}\left(A_{i}+x_{i}\right) \geqslant 0.9 \delta \geqslant 1.01 \frac{\delta}{2}+O(n \log n) \varepsilon
$$

for some $x_{i}$. The above implies, for a redefined $x_{i}$, that

$$
\mu_{a b \cdot\left(a \cdot B_{\eta}\right)}\left(a \cdot A_{i}+x_{i}\right) \geqslant 1.01 \frac{\delta}{2}+O(n \log n) \varepsilon
$$

To finalize the operation we update our variables.

1. $\mathcal{I} \leftarrow \mathcal{I} \cup\{i\}$
2. $B \leftarrow a \cdot B_{\eta}$
3. Count $_{i} \leftarrow$ Count $_{i}+1=1$.

The only invariant that holds now in a not immediately obvious manner is (I1) for $\mathcal{I} \backslash\{i\}$. However, we know that it held for the old value of $B$, of which the new one is a small subset. Therefore, thanks to the choice of $\eta$ sufficiently small, Lemma 5.17 guarantees that at the expense of one $\varepsilon$ we may have the invariant satisfied.

If condition ( C 2 ) is not violated but condition $(\mathrm{C} 1)$ is so, we need to distinguish two cases. The first is that, for $\rho=\Omega\left(\delta^{4} /|\Gamma|\right)=n^{-O(1)}$, we have condition ( C 1$)$ satisfied for the regular Bohr set $B_{\rho}$ and the family $\left(A_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$; the second is the opposite, which by Lemma 5.18 implies that some density increment is possible for one of the sets $A_{i}$ for $i \in \mathcal{I}$.

Let us now consider the first case. If condition (C2) remains satisfied for the resulting Bohr set $B_{\rho}$ the whole iterative procedure stops with

1. $B \leftarrow B_{\rho}$.

Otherwise, for $B_{\rho}$ and some $i \notin \mathcal{I}$, we repeat the operation described for the case of condition (C2) being violated. This results in the following.

1. $\mathcal{I} \leftarrow \mathcal{I} \cup\{i\}$
2. $B \leftarrow a \cdot B_{\eta \rho}$
3. Count $_{i} \leftarrow$ Count $_{i}+1=1$.

In the only case remaining there is some $i \in \mathcal{I}$ such that $\mu_{a b \cdot B_{\rho}}\left(a \cdot A_{i}-a \cdot A_{i}\right)<1-\delta$. By Lemma 5.18 there is a regular Bohr set $B^{\prime}=B\left(\Gamma^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime}\right) \subseteq B_{\eta}$ and $x$ such that

$$
\mu_{a b \cdot B^{\prime}}\left(a \cdot A_{i}+x\right) \geqslant 1.01 \mu_{a b \cdot B}\left(a \cdot A_{i}+x_{i}\right) .
$$

Furthermore,

$$
\operatorname{dim} B^{\prime}=\operatorname{dim} B+O\left(\delta^{-2} \log (1 / \delta)\right)=\operatorname{dim} B+O\left(n^{2} \log n\right)
$$

and

$$
\gamma^{\prime} \gg \gamma \delta^{6} /\left(|\Gamma|^{3} \log (1 / \delta)\right)=\gamma \cdot n^{-O(1)}
$$

Therefore, we update the variables accordingly:

1. $B \leftarrow B^{\prime}$
2. Count $_{i} \leftarrow$ Count $_{i}+1$.

Again, like in the first case considered, Lemma 5.17 guarantees that the invariants keep being satisfied.

## Proof of Theorem 5.5.

While the proof of Theorem 5.4 dealt with many elements $A_{i}$ of a solution-free partition in parallel, proofs of Theorems 5.6 and 5.7 are more linear in structure. In this regard they resemble exemplary proofs of Theorems 5.9 and 5.12

The lemma below is what really stands behind proofs of upper bounds for equations with many variables and we will also make use of it in the proof of Theorem 5.6. This is a local variant of, established in San12], Sanders's effective version of Bogolyubov's lemma.

Lemma 5.19 ([SS14, Theorem 5.2]). Let $\varepsilon \in(0,1]$ be a real number. Let $A$ and $S$ be subsets of regular Bohr sets $B$ and $B_{\varepsilon}$, respectively, where $\varepsilon \leqslant 1 /(100 d)$ and $d=\operatorname{dim} B$. Suppose that $\mu_{B}(A), \mu_{B_{\varepsilon}}(S) \geqslant \delta$. Then $A-A+S-S$ contains a regular Bohr set $\tilde{B} \subseteq B$, such that $\operatorname{dim} \tilde{B}=d+O\left(\log ^{4}(1 / \delta)\right)$ and

$$
|\tilde{B}| \geqslant \exp \left(-O\left(d \log d+d \log (1 / \varepsilon)+d \log (1 / \delta)+\log ^{5}(1 / \delta)\right)\right)|B| .
$$

This lemma is proved in [SS14] for pairs of possibly different sets $A, A^{\prime}$ and $S, S^{\prime}$. It is precisely this that stands behind the resulting Bohr set $\tilde{B}$ being translated in the original
statement of the lemma. One can check that in the symmetric case of ours a genuine nontranslated set $\tilde{B}$ can be found.

Next two lemmas will serve as a main iterative block of Lemma 5.22. The first one was proved by Sanders and is a local version of the Heath-Brown-Szemerédi density increment method.

Lemma 5.20 ([San11, Lemma 3.8]). Let $0<\eta, \varepsilon \leqslant 1$. Let $A \subseteq B$ and $S \subseteq B_{\varepsilon}$ be such that $\mu_{B}(A)=\delta$ and $\mu_{B_{\varepsilon}}(S)=\tau$ for a d-dimensional regular Bohr set $B$. If

$$
\sum_{r \in \operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}(S)}|\widehat{A}(r)|^{2} \geqslant(1+\nu)|A|^{2},
$$

then there is a regular Bohr set $B^{\prime} \subseteq B_{\varepsilon}$ of dimension $\operatorname{dim} B^{\prime}=d+O\left(\eta^{-2} \log (1 / \tau)\right)$ and cardinality

$$
\left|B^{\prime}\right| \geqslant\left(\frac{\eta}{2 d \log (1 / \tau)}\right)^{d+O\left(\eta^{-2} \log (1 / \tau)\right)}\left|B_{\varepsilon}\right|
$$

such that $\mu_{B^{\prime}}(A+x) \geqslant \delta(1+\Omega(\nu))$ for some $x$.

Lemma 5.21. Let $B \subseteq \mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}$ be a regular d-dimensional Bohr set and $\varepsilon<c / 100 d$ for $1 / 64<c<1 / 32$. If $A, A^{\prime} \subseteq B$ and $S, S^{\prime} \subseteq B_{\varepsilon}$, and

$$
\mu_{B}(A), \mu_{B}\left(A^{\prime}\right), \mu_{B_{\varepsilon}}(S), \mu_{B_{\varepsilon}}\left(S^{\prime}\right) \geqslant \delta,
$$

then either there is $x \in B_{1+\varepsilon}$ such that

$$
(A * S)(x),\left(A^{\prime} * S^{\prime}\right)(-x) \geqslant \frac{1}{10} \delta^{2}\left|B_{\varepsilon}\right|
$$

or there is a regular Bohr set $B^{\prime} \subseteq B_{\varepsilon}$ such that $\operatorname{dim} B^{\prime}=\operatorname{dim} B+O\left(\delta^{-1} \log (1 / \delta)\right)$,

$$
\left|B^{\prime}\right| \gg\left(\frac{\delta}{2 d \log (1 / \delta)}\right)^{d+O\left(\delta^{-1} \log (1 / \delta)\right)}\left|B_{\varepsilon}\right|
$$

and $\mu_{B^{\prime}}(A+y) \geqslant(1+\Omega(1)) \delta$ or $\mu_{B^{\prime}}\left(A^{\prime}+y\right) \geqslant(1+\Omega(1)) \delta$ for some $y$.

Proof. We have $A+S, A^{\prime}+S^{\prime} \subseteq B_{1+\varepsilon}$ and, by regularity, $\left|B_{1+\varepsilon}\right| \leqslant(1+c)|B|$. Let us assume that there is no $x$ satisfying the property required, i.e. for all $x \in B_{1+\varepsilon}$ we have either

$$
(A * S)(x)<\frac{1}{10} \delta^{2}\left|B_{\varepsilon}\right| \quad \text { or } \quad\left(A^{\prime} * S^{\prime}\right)(-x)<\frac{1}{10} \delta^{2}\left|B_{\varepsilon}\right| .
$$

By symmetry we may assume that $(A * S)(x)<\frac{1}{10} \delta^{2}\left|B_{\varepsilon}\right|$ for at least $\frac{1}{2}\left|B_{1+\varepsilon}\right|$ elements $x \in B_{1+\varepsilon}$. Let us denote the set of these $x$ 's by $X$.

Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{x \in B_{1+\varepsilon} \backslash X}(A * S)(x) & \geqslant \sum_{x \in B_{1+\varepsilon}}(A * S)(x)-\left(\delta^{2} / 10\right)\left|B_{1+\varepsilon}\right|\left|B_{\varepsilon}\right| \\
& \geqslant|A||S|-((1+c) / 10)|A||S| \geqslant \frac{4}{5}|A||S| .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here the second inequality stems from $A+S \subseteq B_{1+\varepsilon}$ and a combination of the following two estimates: $\delta\left|B_{1+\varepsilon}\right| \leqslant(1+c) \delta|B| \leqslant(1+c)|A|$ and $\delta\left|B_{\varepsilon}\right| \leqslant|S|$. Hence

$$
\sum_{x \in B_{1+\varepsilon} \backslash X}(A * S)(x)^{2} \geqslant \frac{\left(\frac{4}{5}|A||S|\right)^{2}}{\frac{1}{2}\left|B_{1+\varepsilon}\right|} \geqslant \frac{\left(\frac{4}{5}|A||S|\right)^{2}}{\frac{1++|B|}{2}|B| A| |^{2}|S|^{2}} \frac{5|B|}{} .
$$

It follows by Parseval's formula that

$$
\frac{1}{N} \sum_{r=0}^{N-1}|\widehat{A}(r)|^{2}|\widehat{S}(r)|^{2} \geqslant \sum_{x \in B_{1+\varepsilon \backslash X}}(A * S)(x)^{2} \geqslant \frac{6|A|^{2}|S|^{2}}{5|B|}
$$

and, by the definition of the large spectrum and Parseval's formula,

$$
\frac{1}{N} \sum_{r \notin \operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}(S)}|\widehat{A}(r)|^{2}|\widehat{S}(r)|^{2} \leqslant(\eta|S|)^{2} \cdot \frac{1}{N} \sum_{r \in \mathbb{Z}_{N}}|\widehat{A}(r)|^{2}=c \delta|S|^{2}|A| \leqslant c \frac{|A|^{2}|S|^{2}}{|B|}
$$

for $\eta=(c \delta)^{1 / 2}$. Therefore, as $|\widehat{S}(r)| \leqslant|S|$,

$$
\sum_{r \in \operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}(S)}|\widehat{A}(r)|^{2} \geqslant \frac{1}{|S|^{2}} \sum_{r \in \operatorname{Spec}_{\eta}(S)}|\widehat{A}(r)|^{2}|\widehat{S}(r)|^{2} \geqslant \frac{7|A|^{2} N}{|B|} \geqslant \frac{7}{6}|A|^{2} .
$$

The proof concludes with application of Lemma 5.20.
The following lemma constitutes the main iterative step of the proof of Theorem 5.5
Lemma 5.22. Let $B$ be a regular d-dimensional Bohr set in $\mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\operatorname{dim} B=d$. Suppose that $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}$ is such that $\mu_{B}(A)=\delta$ and it contains no solution to the equation

$$
b_{1} x_{1}+b_{2} x_{2}+b_{3} x_{3}+b_{4} x_{4}+b x=0
$$

with $b_{1}+b_{2}+b_{3}+b_{4}=0$. Then there exists a regular Bohr set $T \subseteq B$ disjoint from $A$ such that

$$
\operatorname{dim} T=\operatorname{dim} B+O\left(\delta^{-1} \log ^{2}(1 / \delta)\right)
$$

and

$$
|T| \geqslant \exp \left(-O\left(d \log d \log ^{2}(1 / \delta)+d \log ^{3}(1 / \delta)+\log ^{5}(1 / \delta)\right)\right)|B| .
$$

The implied constants depend only on the equation considered.
Proof. Let $M=\max \left|b_{i}\right|, \beta=\left|b_{1} b_{2} b_{3} b_{4}\right|$ and $1+c$ be the density increment factor given by

Lemma 5.21, which we assume to be smaller than 2 , and $c_{1}, c_{2}>0$ be constants small enough for the argument below to work. Set $\varepsilon_{1}=c_{1} \delta /\left(M^{3} d\right)$ and $\varepsilon_{2}=c_{2} \delta^{2} /\left(M^{3} d\right)$.

Let us consider the Bohr sets

$$
B^{1}=\frac{\beta}{b_{1}} \cdot B_{\varepsilon_{1}}, B^{2}=\frac{\beta}{b_{2}} \cdot B_{\varepsilon_{2}}, B^{3}=\frac{\beta}{b_{3}} \cdot B_{\varepsilon_{1}}, B^{4}=\frac{\beta}{b_{4}} \cdot B_{\varepsilon_{2}} .
$$

By a proper choice of constants $c_{1}$ and $c_{2}$ we may assume that they are all regular Bohr sets of dimension $d$ and, by Lemma $5.13,\left|B^{i}\right|=\Omega(\delta / d)^{6 d+6}|B|$. These sets are all subsets of $B_{c_{1} \delta / d}$, so by Lemma 5.17 we have

$$
\frac{1}{|B|} \sum_{x \in B} \sum_{i=1}^{4} \mu_{B^{i}}(A+x)(x) \geqslant\left(4-\frac{c}{3}\right) \delta .
$$

Therefore, either for some $x \in B$ and for all $i=1, \ldots, 4$ we have

$$
\mu_{\beta \cdot B_{\varepsilon_{i}}}\left(b_{i} \cdot(A+x)\right)=\mu_{B^{i}}(A+x) \geqslant\left(1-\frac{c}{2}\right) \delta,
$$

with the convention $\varepsilon_{3}=\varepsilon_{1}$ and $\varepsilon_{4}=\varepsilon_{2}$, or $\mu_{B^{i}}(A+x) \geqslant\left(1+\frac{c}{18}\right) \delta$ for some $i$. In the latter case we repeat the above reasoning for the pair $A+x, B^{i} \subseteq B$.

Since the density is naturally bounded from above, after at most $O(\log (1 / \delta))$ iterative steps we end up with some $A+x$ and some Bohr set $B^{\prime} \subseteq B$ such that $\mu_{B^{\prime}}(A+x) \geqslant \delta$, and for some $y$ and all $i=1, \ldots, 4$ we have

$$
\mu_{\beta \cdot B_{\varepsilon_{i}}^{\prime}}\left(b_{i} \cdot(A+y)\right)=\mu_{B^{\prime 2}}(A+y) \geqslant\left(1-\frac{c}{2}\right) \delta .
$$

Also, $\operatorname{dim} B^{\prime}=d$ and

$$
\left|B^{\prime}\right|=\Omega(\delta / d)^{O(d \log (1 / \delta))}|B| .
$$

Hence, by application of Lemma 5.21 to the Bohr set $\beta \cdot B_{\varepsilon_{1}}=\beta \cdot B_{\varepsilon_{3}}$ and the sets $A, A^{\prime}, S, S^{\prime}$ of the lemma equal to the sets $b_{1} \cdot(A+y), b_{3} \cdot(A+y), b_{2} \cdot(A+y)$ and $b_{4} \cdot(A+y)$ truncated to their relevant Bohr sets $\beta \cdot B_{\varepsilon_{i}}$, respectively, we have either

$$
\mu_{\beta \cdot B_{\varepsilon_{2}}^{\prime}}\left(b_{2} \cdot(A+y) \cap\left(x-b_{1} \cdot(A+y)\right)\right) \geqslant 0.1\left(\left(1-\frac{c}{2}\right) \delta\right)^{2} \geqslant 0.01 \delta^{2}
$$

and

$$
\mu_{\beta \cdot B_{\varepsilon_{2}}^{\prime}}\left(b_{4} \cdot(A+y) \cap\left(-x-b_{3} \cdot(A+y)\right)\right) \geqslant 0.01 \delta^{2}
$$

for some $x$, or there is a regular Bohr set $B^{\prime \prime} \subseteq \beta \cdot B_{\varepsilon_{2}}^{\prime} \subseteq B$ with the following properties:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{dim} B^{\prime \prime}=\operatorname{dim} B^{\prime}+O\left(\delta^{-1} \log (1 / \delta)\right) \\
\left|B^{\prime \prime}\right| \geqslant\left(\frac{\delta}{2 d \log (1 / \delta)}\right)^{d+O\left(\delta^{-1} \log (1 / \delta)\right)}\left|B_{\varepsilon_{2}}^{\prime}\right| \geqslant\left(\frac{\delta}{2 d \log (1 / \delta)}\right)^{O\left(d \log (1 / \delta)+\delta^{-1} \log (1 / \delta)\right)}|B|
\end{gathered}
$$

and, for some $z$, we have $\mu_{B^{\prime \prime}}(A+z) \geqslant(1+c) \cdot\left(1-\frac{c}{2}\right) \delta=(1+\Omega(1)) \delta$.

Repetition of the above procedure at most $O(\log (1 / \delta))$ times results in a translate $A+x$ and a regular Bohr set $\tilde{B} \subseteq B$ such that

$$
\mu_{\beta \cdot \tilde{B}_{\varepsilon_{2}}}\left(b_{2} \cdot(A+y) \cap\left(x-b_{1} \cdot(A+y)\right)\right) \geqslant 0.01 \delta^{2}
$$

and

$$
\mu_{\beta \cdot \tilde{B}_{\varepsilon_{2}}}\left(b_{4} \cdot(A+y) \cap\left(-x-b_{3} \cdot(A+y)\right)\right) \geqslant 0.01 \delta^{2}
$$

for some $x$. Furthermore $\tilde{B}_{\varepsilon_{2}}$ is a regular Bohr set of $\operatorname{dim} \tilde{B}=d+O\left(\delta^{-1} \log ^{2}(1 / \delta)\right)$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
|\tilde{B}| & \geqslant\left(\frac{\delta}{d}\right)^{O\left(\left(d+\delta^{-1}\right) \log ^{2}(1 / \delta)\right)}|B| \\
& =\exp \left(-O\left(\left(d \log d+\delta^{-1} \log (1 / \delta)\right) \log ^{2}(1 / \delta)\right)|B|\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $A^{\prime}=b_{2} \cdot(A+y) \cap\left(x-b_{1} \cdot(A+y)\right)$ and $S=b_{4} \cdot(A+y) \cap\left(-x-b_{3} \cdot(A+y)\right)$. We are almost done but we cannot yet apply Lemma 5.19. One last application of Lemma 5.17 shows that there is some $s$ such that $\mu_{\beta \cdot \tilde{B}_{\varepsilon_{s}}}(S+s) \geqslant \delta^{2} / 101$ for $\varepsilon_{s}=\varepsilon_{1}^{3}$. Write $S^{\prime}=(S+s) \cap \beta \cdot \tilde{B}_{\varepsilon_{s}}$.

Applying Lemma 5.19 to the sets $A^{\prime} \subseteq \beta \cdot \tilde{B}_{\varepsilon_{2}}$ and $S^{\prime} \subseteq \beta \cdot \tilde{B}_{\varepsilon_{s}}$ we obtain a Bohr set $T^{\prime}$ such that

$$
T^{\prime} \subseteq A^{\prime}-A^{\prime}+S^{\prime}-S^{\prime} \subseteq 2\left(\beta \cdot \tilde{B}_{\varepsilon_{2}}\right)+2\left(\beta \cdot \tilde{B}_{\varepsilon_{s}}\right) \subseteq B
$$

and

$$
T^{\prime} \subseteq A^{\prime}-A^{\prime}+S^{\prime}-S^{\prime} \subseteq b_{1} A+b_{2} A+b_{3} A+b_{4} A
$$

In particular, the above implies that $T=T_{1 / b}^{\prime}$ is disjoint from $A$, because $A$ is free of solutions to the equation by assumption and $b \cdot A$ is therefore disjoint from $T^{\prime}$.

The dimension of $T$ is

$$
\operatorname{dim} T=\operatorname{dim} \tilde{B}+O\left(\log ^{4}(1 / \delta)\right)=\operatorname{dim} B+O\left(\delta^{-1} \log ^{2}(1 / \delta)\right)
$$

and its cardinality is

$$
\begin{aligned}
|T| & \left.\geqslant \exp \left(-O\left(d \log d+d \log (1 / \delta)+\log ^{5}(1 / \delta)\right)\right)\right)\left|\tilde{B}_{\varepsilon_{2}}\right| \\
& =\exp \left(-O\left(d \log d \log ^{2}(1 / \delta)+d \log ^{3}(1 / \delta)+\log ^{5}(1 / \delta)\right)\right)|B|
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof of Theorem 5.5. Suppose that $[N]=A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ is a solution-free partition. Let $p$ be a prime between $\left(\left|b_{1}\right|+\left|b_{2}\right|+\left|b_{3}\right|+\left|b_{4}\right|+b\right) N$ and $2\left(\left|b_{1}\right|+\left|b_{2}\right|+\left|b_{3}\right|+\left|b_{4}\right|+b\right) N$. Then each color class is solution-free in $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$. We start with a one-dimensional Bohr set $T_{0}=[-N, N]$ and let $A_{1}$ be any class with $\mu_{T^{0}}\left(A_{1}\right) \geqslant 1 /(3 n)$. Iterative application of Lemma 5.22 gives
after $k$ steps a Bohr set $T_{k} \subseteq T_{k-1}$ that is disjoint from $A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{k}$ and

$$
\left|T_{k}\right| \gg \exp \left(-O\left(k n \log ^{5} n\right)\right)\left|T_{k-1}\right| \gg \exp \left(-O\left(k^{2} n \log ^{5} n\right)\right) N
$$

Clearly, $T_{n}$ does not contain any element from $A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$. In particular $T_{n}=\{0\}$, so that

$$
1=\left|T_{n}\right| \gg \exp \left(-O\left(n^{3} \log ^{5} n\right)\right) N
$$

and therefore

$$
\mathrm{R}(n) \ll 2^{C n^{3} \log ^{5} n}
$$

which completes the proof.

## Proof of Theorem 5.6.

A careful reader might have noticed that a proof of Theorem 5.6 can be deduced from that of Theorem 5.5, because we get sets $A$ and $S$ for free in the genus 2 case when $b_{2}=-b_{1}$ and $b_{4}=-b_{3}$. We extract these essentials here.

The lemma we are about to prove constitutes the main iterative step of the proof of Theorem 5.6.

Lemma 5.23. Let $b_{1}, b_{2}$ and $b$ be positive integers and let $B=B(\Gamma, \gamma)$ be a regular Bohr set of dimension d. Suppose that $A \subseteq B, \mu_{B}(A)=\delta$, does not contain any solution to the equation

$$
b_{1} x_{1}-b_{1} x_{2}+b_{2} x_{3}-b_{2} x_{4}+b y=0
$$

Then there exists a regular Bohr set $T \subseteq B$ disjoint from $A$ such that

$$
\operatorname{dim} T=\operatorname{dim} B+O\left(\log ^{4}(1 / \delta)\right)
$$

and

$$
|T| \geqslant \exp \left(-O\left(d \log d+d \log (1 / \delta)+\log ^{5}(1 / \delta)\right)\right)|B|
$$

The implied constants depend only on $b_{1}, b_{2}$ and $b$.
Proof. Choose a constant $1 / 64 \leqslant c \leqslant 1 / 32$ such that $B_{\varepsilon}$ is a regular Bohr set, where $\varepsilon=c \delta /\left(100 b_{1} b_{2} d\right)$. Put $B^{i}=b_{i} \cdot B_{\varepsilon}$ for $i=1,2$ and $B^{\prime}=b_{1} b_{2} \cdot B_{\varepsilon}$. By Lemma 5.17 we have

$$
\frac{1}{|B|} \sum_{x \in B} \mu_{B^{1}}(A+x) \geqslant(1-2 c) \delta \geqslant \frac{1}{2} \delta
$$

Therefore for some $x$

$$
\mu_{B^{1}}(A+x) \geqslant \frac{1}{2} \delta
$$

hence

$$
\mu_{B^{\prime}}\left(b_{2} \cdot(A+x)\right)=\mu_{B^{1}}(A+x) \geqslant \frac{1}{2} \delta
$$

Again choose a constant $1 / 64 \leqslant c^{\prime} \leqslant 1 / 32$ such that $B_{\varepsilon^{\prime}}^{\prime}$ is a regular Bohr set, where $\varepsilon^{\prime}=c^{\prime} \delta /\left(100 b_{1} b_{2} d\right)$. Using the same argument we find $y$ such that

$$
\mu_{B_{\varepsilon^{\prime}}^{\prime}}\left(b_{1} \cdot(A+y)\right) \geqslant \frac{1}{2} \delta .
$$

Therefore, by Lemma 5.19

$$
b_{1} \cdot A-b_{1} \cdot A+b_{2} \cdot A-b_{2} \cdot A
$$

contains a Bohr set $\tilde{B} \subseteq B^{\prime}$ of dimension $\operatorname{dim} B+O\left(\log ^{4}(1 / \delta)\right)$ such that

$$
|\tilde{B}| \geqslant \exp \left(-O\left(d \log d+d \log (1 / \delta)+\log ^{5}(1 / \delta)\right)\right)\left|B^{\prime}\right|
$$

Since $A$ is a solution-free set it follows that $b \cdot A$ is disjoint from $\tilde{B}$, hence $A$ is disjoint from $T:=\tilde{B}_{1 / b}$. Observe that

$$
T \subseteq B^{\prime}=b_{1} b_{2} \cdot B_{\varepsilon} \subseteq B_{b_{1} b_{2} \varepsilon} \subseteq B .
$$

To finish the proof it is enough to establish the postulated lower bound on $|T|$. By Lemma 5.13 , which relates $|T|$ and $|\tilde{B}|$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
|T| & \geqslant \exp \left(-O\left(d+\log ^{4}(1 / \delta)\right)\right)|\tilde{B}| \\
& \geqslant \exp \left(-O\left(d \log d+d \log (1 / \delta)+\log ^{5}(1 / \delta)\right)\right)\left|B^{\prime}\right| \\
& \geqslant \exp \left(-O\left(d \log d+d \log (1 / \delta)+\log ^{5}(1 / \delta)\right)\right)|B| .
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally the assertion follows by application of Lemmas 5.15 and 5.13 , which give regularity of the resulting set and its comparability in size with $|T|$, respectively.

Proof of Theorem 5.6. We proceed similarly as in the proof of Theorem 5.5. Suppose that $[N]=A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ is a solution-free partition and let $p$ be a prime between $\left(2 b_{1}+2 b_{2}+b\right) N$ and $2\left(2 b_{1}+2 b_{2}+b\right) N$. Then each color class is solution-free in $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$. We start with $T^{0}=[-N, N]$, which is a one-dimensional Bohr set, and let $A_{1}$ be any class with $\mu_{T^{0}}\left(A_{1}\right) \geqslant 1 /(3 n)$. Iterative application of Lemma 5.23 gives after $k$ steps a Bohr set $T_{k} \subseteq T_{k-1}$ of dimension $O\left(k \log ^{4} n\right)$, that is disjoint from $A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{k}$ and

$$
\left|T_{k}\right| \geqslant \exp \left(-O\left(k \log ^{5} n\right)\right)\left|T_{k-1}\right| \geqslant \exp \left(-O\left(k^{2} \log ^{5} n\right)\right) N
$$

Since $T_{n} \cap\left(A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}\right)=\emptyset$ it follows that $T_{n}=\{0\}$. Hence

$$
1=\left|T_{n}\right| \geqslant \exp \left(-O\left(n^{2} \log ^{5} n\right)\right) N
$$

and the assertion follows.

### 5.3. Schur-like numbers

In this section we prove Theorem 5.7, which lowers an upper bound on Schur-like numbers below the threshold established by a natural argument presented in the beginning of Subsection 5.2.1.

To begin with we need the following two lemmas.
Lemma 5.24. Suppose that $\{1, \ldots, N\}=A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ is a partition into sum-free sets such that $\left|A_{1}\right| \geqslant \ldots \geqslant\left|A_{n}\right|$ and set $\sigma_{k}=\sum_{i>k}\left|A_{i}\right|$. Then we have

$$
\left|A_{k}\right|>\frac{\left|A_{1}\right|}{(k-1)!}-2\left(\sigma_{k}+1\right) .
$$

Proof. We use a classical Schur's argument. Let $i_{1}=1$ and $B_{1}=A_{i_{1}}=\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{t}\right\}$ with $a_{1}<\ldots<a_{t}$ and notice that all numbers $a_{2}-a_{1}, \ldots, a_{t}-a_{1}$ belong to $A_{2} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$. At most $\sigma_{k}$ of these elements belong to $\bigcup_{i>k} A_{i}$, hence $B_{2}=\left\{a_{2}-a_{1}, \ldots, a_{t}-a_{1}\right\} \cap A_{i_{2}}$ has

$$
\left|B_{2}\right| \geqslant \frac{\left|A_{1}\right|-1-\sigma_{k}}{k-1}
$$

elements for some $2 \leqslant i_{2} \leqslant k$. Therefore, by repeated application of the above argument, we get the family of sets $B_{k}$ such that $B_{k}$ and $B_{k}-B_{k}$ are disjoint with $A_{i_{1}} \cup \cdots \cup A_{i_{k-1}}$ and $A_{i_{1}} \cup \cdots \cup A_{i_{k}}$ respectively, and

$$
\left|B_{k}\right| \geqslant \frac{\left|A_{1}\right|}{(k-1)!}-\left(\sigma_{k}+1\right) \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{i!}>\frac{\left|A_{1}\right|}{(k-1)!}-2\left(\sigma_{k}+1\right),
$$

and the assertion follows, because $\left|A_{k}\right| \geqslant\left|B_{j}\right| \geqslant\left|B_{k}\right|$ for $j$ such that $i_{j}=k$.
Lemma 5.25. Suppose that $N<\mathrm{S}_{2}(n)$. Then there exists a partition $[N]=A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ into 2-sum-free sets such that $\left|A_{1}\right| \geqslant \ldots \geqslant\left|A_{n}\right|$ and

$$
\bigcup_{i>k} A_{i} \subseteq\left(3 A_{k}-A_{k}\right) \cup\left(2 A_{k}-2 A_{k}\right),
$$

for every $1 \leqslant k \leqslant n$.
Proof. Let $[N]=A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ be any 2-sum-free partition maximal with respect to the lexicographical order of $\left(\left|A_{1}\right|, \ldots,\left|A_{n}\right|\right)$. Since no element $a \in \bigcup_{i>k} A_{i}$ can be added to $A_{k}$ without spoiling the 2-sum-free property, we have $\bigcup_{i>k} A_{i} \subseteq\left(3 A_{k}-A_{k}\right) \cup\left(2 A_{k}-2 A_{k}\right)$.

Below we prove the main result of this section.
Proof of Theorem 5.7. Assume that our partitioning satisfies the assertion of Lemma 5.25 First, we show that there exist $x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\left(A_{1}-A_{1}\right) \cap\left(A_{2}-A_{2}+x_{2}\right) \cap \cdots \cap\left(A_{k}-A_{k}+x_{k}\right)\right|=\left(\Omega\left(n^{-\frac{9}{10}}\right)\right)^{k} N, \tag{5.3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some $k \gg \frac{\log n}{\log \log n}$. To this end we shall prove that the sets $A_{i}-A_{i}$, for $i=1, \ldots, k$, are large. The proof distinguishes two cases.

First, suppose that $\left|A_{1}\right| \leqslant N / n^{c}$, for some appropriate positive $c$. Then there are at least $\frac{1}{2} n^{c}$ classes with at least $N / 2 n$ elements each. By Lemma 5.25 , for every $l$, we have

$$
\left|3 A_{l}-A_{l}\right|+\left|2 A_{l}-2 A_{l}\right| \geqslant \sum_{i>l}\left|A_{i}\right| \geqslant N-l \frac{N}{n^{c}} .
$$

Since, by Plünnecke-Ruzsa's Lemma 2.3. $\left|3 A_{l}-A_{l}\right|,\left|2 A_{l}-2 A_{l}\right| \leqslant\left(\frac{\left|A_{l}-A_{l}\right|}{\left|A_{l}\right|}\right)^{4}\left|A_{l}\right|$, we have

$$
\left|A_{l}-A_{l}\right| \geqslant\left(\frac{N}{2}-l \frac{N}{2 n^{c}}\right)^{1 / 4}\left|A_{l}\right|^{3 / 4} \gg \frac{N}{n^{3 / 4}}
$$

for all $l \leqslant k=\frac{1}{2} n^{c}$.
Next, we assume that $\left|A_{1}\right|>N / n^{c}$ and we set $k=c \frac{\log n}{\log \log n}$ and $\sigma_{k}=\sum_{i>k}\left|A_{i}\right|$. If $\sigma_{k}<N / n^{3 c}$, then by Lemma $5.24\left|A_{k}\right| \gg N / n^{2 c+o(1)}$, and $\left|A_{l}-A_{l}\right| \geqslant\left|A_{k}\right| \gg N / n^{2 c+o(1)}$ for all $l \leqslant k$. If $\sigma_{k} \geqslant N / n^{3 c}$ then it follows that $\left|A_{k}\right| \geqslant\left|A_{k+1}\right| \geqslant \sigma_{k} / n \geqslant N / n^{1+3 c}$. Thus, by Lemma 5.25 for every $1 \leqslant l \leqslant k$ we have

$$
\left|3 A_{l}-A_{l}\right|+\left|2 A_{l}-2 A_{l}\right| \geqslant \sum_{i>k}\left|A_{i}\right|=\sigma_{k} \gg \frac{N}{n^{3 c}}
$$

so that, by the Plünnecke-Ruzsa inequality again we get

$$
\left|A_{l}-A_{l}\right| \geqslant\left(N / n^{3 c}\right)^{1 / 4}\left|A_{k}\right|^{3 / 4} \gg \frac{N}{n^{3 / 4+3 c}} .
$$

In either case we have $\left|A_{l}-A_{l}\right| \gg \frac{N}{n^{9 / 10}}$ for $l \leqslant k=c \frac{\log n}{\log \log n}$. Since the expected size of the set

$$
\left(A_{1}-A_{1}\right) \cap\left(A_{2}-A_{2}+x_{2}\right) \cap \cdots \cap\left(A_{k}-A_{k}+x_{k}\right) \cap[N],
$$

for $x_{i}$ chosen uniformly at random from $\{-2 N+1, \ldots, 2 N-1\}$, is at least $\left(\Omega\left(n^{-\frac{9}{10}}\right)\right)^{k} N$, one obtains (5.3.1) for some choice of $x_{i}$ 's.

At this point we drop the indexes corresponding to sets $A_{k+1}, \ldots, A_{n}$ (we will re-enumerate them later on) and we follow Schur's argument again, starting with the set

$$
C_{k}=\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{q}\right\}=\left(A_{1}-A_{1}\right) \cap\left(A_{2}-A_{2}+x_{2}\right) \cap \cdots \cap\left(A_{k}-A_{k}+x_{k}\right) \cap[N]
$$

given by (5.3.1). Observe that $c_{u}-c_{v} \in 2 A_{i}-2 A_{i}$, for all $1 \leqslant u<v \leqslant q$ and $1 \leqslant i \leqslant k$. Therefore, as all the sets $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{k}$ are 2 -sum-free and assuming that $c_{1}=\min C_{k}$, we have

$$
c_{2}-c_{1}, \ldots, c_{q}-c_{1} \notin A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{k} .
$$

At least $q^{\prime} \geqslant(q-1) /(n-k)$ of the above elements, call them $C_{k+1}=\left\{c_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, c_{q^{\prime}}^{\prime}\right\}$, lie in the same partition class, say $A_{k+1}$. Assuming again that $c_{1}^{\prime}=\min C_{k+1}$, it follows by the above
argument that

$$
c_{2}^{\prime}-c_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, c_{q^{\prime}}^{\prime}-c_{1}^{\prime} \notin A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{k+1}
$$

Iterating this procedure, we obtain in the last step a set $C_{n} \subseteq A_{n}$ such that $\left|C_{n}\right| \gg q /(n-k)$ ! and $\left(C_{n}-\min C_{n}\right) \cap\left(A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}\right)=\emptyset$. Thus $\left|C_{n}\right| \leqslant 1$ and we infer that

$$
N \ll n^{\frac{9}{10} k}(n-k)!
$$

for some $k \gg \frac{\log n}{\log \log n}$.

## Chapter 6

## Schinzel's problem

It seems natural that arithmetic Ramsey problems make most sense in the torsion free setting so one may be tempted to look for a complementary problem in the torsion setting. One that has been proposed quite recently is Schinzel's problem [Sch08, Sch09] that asks for the number of solutions of a homogenous linear equation. Although this is not a Ramsey problem like the ones previously considered, they share a common core of ensuring existence of solutions to an equation, or from this chapter's perspective, counting them.

### 6.1. Statement of the problem

Let $n, k$ be positive integers and $\boldsymbol{a}=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{b}=\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}\right)$ be sequences of integers and naturals respectively. We are interested in the number of solutions to the congruence

$$
a_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{k} x_{k} \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod n)
$$

for integers $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$ satisfying $0 \leqslant x_{i} \leqslant b_{i}$. We denote this number by $N_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})$.
Intuitively, by an averaging argument, we can hope to prove a bound of the form

$$
N_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant \gamma \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1+b_{i}\right)
$$

for a suitably chosen $\gamma$. On the other hand, since for $a_{i}=b_{i}=1$, for $i=1, \ldots, k$, and $k=n-1$ we have $N_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})=N_{n}(\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{1})=1$, we can see that $\gamma(n)=2^{1-n}$ would be the best possible coefficient, provided we restricted ourselves to those dependent only on $n$.

Note, that the setting of our choice, where $0 \leqslant x_{i} \leqslant b_{i}$, is considerably different from the symmetric case when we only require $\left|x_{i}\right| \leqslant b_{i}$. In the latter, by the box principle, we can immediately deduce a non-trivial bound, i.e. that the number of solutions to the congruence considered is at least

$$
\frac{1}{n} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1+b_{i}\right)
$$

We shall prove the following theorem conjectured by Schinzel [Sch08, SZ06]. We present it here in the setting of the group $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$, which is obviously equivalent to that of the congruence $(\bmod n)$.

Theorem 6.1. Let $n, k$ be positive integers, sequences $\boldsymbol{a}=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{b}=\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}\right)$ be such that $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ and $b_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$ for $i=1, \ldots, k$. Then

$$
N_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant 2^{1-n} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1+b_{i}\right) .
$$

Schinzel and Zakarczemny [SZ06] proved this theorem in the case of $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}$ satisfying for all $i, j$ the following: $\operatorname{gcd}\left(n, a_{i}\right) \mid \operatorname{gcd}\left(n, a_{j}\right)$ or $\operatorname{gcd}\left(n, a_{j}\right) \mid \operatorname{gcd}\left(n, a_{i}\right)$, or $n \mid \operatorname{lcm}\left(a_{i}, a_{j}\right)$. Later Schinzel [Sch09] established the following result.

Theorem 6.2 (Schinzel Sch09, Theorem 1 and Corollary]). Let

$$
n=\prod_{\lambda=1}^{l} q_{\lambda}^{\alpha_{\lambda}},
$$

where $q_{\lambda}$ are distinct primes, $\alpha_{\lambda}>0$ and

$$
\sum_{\lambda=1}^{l} \frac{1}{q_{\lambda}} \leqslant 1+\frac{\min (l, 2 l-5)}{n} .
$$

Then, under the assumptions of Theorem 6.1.

$$
N_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant 2^{1-n} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1+b_{i}\right) .
$$

In particular, Schinzel's conjecture holds for $n<60$.
This theorem will serve us when proving Theorem 6.1 for $n<22$.
In the appendix to the same paper Kaczorowski Kac09 proposed an elegant, purely combinatorial method, which allowed him to establish the bound

$$
N_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant \frac{1}{n\binom{n k-1}{k}} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1+b_{i}\right) .
$$

Our proof of the theorem will be founded on the idea of Kaczorowski.
If $b_{i}=1$ for $i=1, \ldots, k$, then Theorem 6.1 follows from a more general result of Olson. We keep here, mutatis mutandis, the notation from the above theorems.

Definition 6.3. Let $G$ be a finite abelian group. We define Davenport's constant $D(G)$ of the group $G$ to be the smallest integer $s$ such that every $s$-element sequence of elements of $G$ has a non-trivial subsequence that sums to zero.

Theorem 6.4 (Olson Ols69, Theorem 2]). Let $G$ be a finite abelian group, $k$ be a positive integer, $\mathbf{1}=(1)_{i=1, \ldots, k}$ be the sequence of $k$ ones and a sequence $\boldsymbol{a}=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)$ be such that $a_{i} \in G$ for $i=1, \ldots, k$. Then

$$
N_{G}(\boldsymbol{a}, \mathbf{1}) \geqslant 2^{1-D(G)} \cdot 2^{k} .
$$

A natural conjecture, which unifies these results, has been recently proved by Zakarczemny [Zak12] and calls for the following.

Theorem 6.5 (Zakarczemny [Zak12]). Let $G$ be a finite abelian group, $k$ be a positive integer, and sequences $\boldsymbol{a}=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{b}=\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}\right)$ be such that $a_{i} \in G$ and $b_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$ for $i=1, \ldots, k$. Then

$$
N_{G}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant 2^{1-D(G)} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1+b_{i}\right) .
$$

Since still very little is known about $D(G)$, the proof of Zakarczemny follows an indirect approach and exploits Olson's result.

### 6.2. Notation and a sketch of the argument

For brevity of notation, we write in this chapter $\mathbb{Z}_{n}=\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$. Also, we adapt the following non-standard notation.

Definition 6.6. Let $n$ be a positive integer, $I$ be a set, and integer sequences $\boldsymbol{b}^{-}=\left(b_{i}^{-}\right)_{i \in I}$, $\boldsymbol{b}^{+}=\left(b_{i}^{+}\right)_{i \in I}$ satisfy $0 \leqslant b_{i}^{-} \leqslant b_{i}^{+}$. Let $c$ and all the elements $a_{i}$ of a sequence $\boldsymbol{a}=\left(a_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ belong to $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$.

We define $N_{c ; n}\left(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}^{-} \leqslant \boldsymbol{b}^{+}\right)$as the number of integer solutions $\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ with $b_{i}^{-} \leqslant x_{i} \leqslant b_{i}^{+}$, of the equation

$$
\sum_{i \in I} a_{i} x_{i}=c .
$$

Likewise, for a sequence of naturals $\boldsymbol{b}=\left(b_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$, we denote by $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})$ the set

$$
C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})=\left\{\sum_{i \in I} a_{i} x_{i}: 0 \leqslant x_{i} \leqslant b_{i}\right\} .
$$

Also we denote by $\boldsymbol{e}_{\boldsymbol{j}}$ the sequence $\left(e_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ such that $e_{j}=1$ and $e_{i}=0$ for $i \neq j$. Finally, $\mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{1}$ denote the sequences consisting exclusively of zeros and ones respectively, while $\mathbf{1}_{A}$ stands for the indicator sequence of a subset $A \subset I$.

Whenever we perform an arithmetic operation on two sequences this is meant to be performed coordinatewise.

We identify an element with a one-element sequence. When the elements considered split into subfamilies, we separate them by semicolons, e.g. $N_{c ; n}\left(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t} \leqslant \boldsymbol{b} ; \boldsymbol{a}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{t}^{\prime} \leqslant \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime}\right)$. In all cases, indexing sets will be given implicitly. Finally, we shall usually drop "zeros" from the notation, therefore $N_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})=N_{0 ; n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \mathbf{0} \leqslant \boldsymbol{b})$.

Let us now briefly sketch our argument. Following the idea of Kaczorowski Kac09], which is itself a clear attempt at adapting the box principle to our setting, we look for a sequence $\boldsymbol{t}=\left(t_{i}\right)$ such that $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})=C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})$ and the sum $\sum t_{i}$ is possibly small (it can be easily chosen to be at most $n-1)$. Obviously $N_{c ; n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t} \leqslant \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant \frac{1}{n} \Pi\left(1+b_{i}-t_{i}\right)$ for some residue class $c$. If $\sum t_{i}$ is considerably smaller than $n$, then we can easily conclude that

$$
N_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant N_{c ; n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t} \leqslant \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant 2^{1-n} \prod\left(1+b_{i}\right)
$$

for sufficiently large $n$.
In the subsequent parts of the chapter we shall encounter various inequalities claimed to hold for sufficiently large integers. In all cases an easy inductive argument proves the claim. Similarly, we shall use several times a particular, yet well known, form of Bernoulli's inequality, i.e. $(1+a / x)^{x} \leqslant 2^{a}$ for any real numbers $0<x \leqslant a$.

### 6.3. Boundary cases lemmas

Of course, it is sufficient to consider the problem if $a_{i} \neq 0$ for all $i$. Similarly, we can assume that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)=1$.

We can also restrict our attention to the case when $0<b_{i}<n$ for all $i$. It basically follows from the observation that both the function $N_{n}(\cdot)$ and the bound requested are "additive" as functions of $b_{i}$ for every $i$. Let us make this more explicit by the analysis of the case $b_{1}=B n+r$. We assume here that the bound holds for $b_{1}<n$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
N_{n}\left(a_{1}, b_{1} ; \boldsymbol{a}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime}\right)= & N_{n}\left(a_{1}, 0 \leqslant n-1 ; \boldsymbol{a}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime}\right)+N_{n}\left(a_{1}, n \leqslant 2 n-1 ; \boldsymbol{a}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime}\right)+ \\
& \cdots+N_{n}\left(a_{1}, B n \leqslant B n+r ; \boldsymbol{a}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime}\right) \\
= & N_{n}\left(a_{1}, n-1 ; \boldsymbol{a}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime}\right)+N_{n}\left(a_{1}, n-1 ; \boldsymbol{a}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime}\right)+ \\
& \cdots+N_{n}\left(a_{1}, r ; \boldsymbol{a}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime}\right) \\
\geqslant & 2^{1-n} n \prod_{i \neq 1}\left(1+b_{i}\right)+2^{1-n} n \prod_{i \neq 1}\left(1+b_{i}\right)+ \\
& \cdots+2^{1-n}(1+r) \prod_{i \neq 1}\left(1+b_{i}\right) \\
= & 2^{1-n}(1+B n+r) \prod_{i \neq 1}\left(1+b_{i}\right) \\
= & 2^{1-n} \prod\left(1+b_{i}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We now show an easy lemma which will turn out useful in our proof of the theorem. It also justifies the claim, appearing in the preceding section, saying that we can select a sequence $\boldsymbol{t}=\left(t_{i}\right)$ such that $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})=C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})$ and $\sum t_{i} \leqslant n-1$.

Lemma 6.7. If we have $0 \leqslant t_{i} \leqslant b_{i}$ and $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t}) \neq C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})$ then there exists some $j$ such that $t_{j}<b_{j}$ and $\left|C_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t}+\boldsymbol{e}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right)\right|>\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})\right|$.

Proof. Observe that $C_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t}+\boldsymbol{e}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right)=C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})+\left\{0, a_{j}\right\}$.
Let us now suppose that $C_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t}+\boldsymbol{e}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right)=C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})+\left\{0, a_{j}\right\}=C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})$ for all $j$ such that $t_{j}<b_{j}$. Since the sumset operation is associative, we have the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) & =C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})+\bigoplus_{j: t_{j}<b_{j}} \bigoplus_{l=0}^{b_{j}-t_{j}}\left\{0, a_{j}\right\} \\
& =C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\bigoplus$ denotes the sumset operation iterated over a family of sets. The contradiction proves the result.

The following lemma will allow us to deal with some structured cases in our proof of the main result.

Lemma 6.8. Let $\boldsymbol{\alpha}=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{\delta}\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{\beta}=\left(\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{\delta}\right)$ be sequences such that $\alpha_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ and $\beta_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$ for $i=1, \ldots, \delta$, and

$$
\delta \leqslant \sum \beta_{i} \leqslant \min \left(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor,\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})\right|-1\right)
$$

Moreover, let $\boldsymbol{a}=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d}\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{b}=\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{d}\right)$ be such that $a_{j}$ generates $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ and $b_{j} \in \mathbb{N}_{+}$ for $j=1, \ldots, d$. Then, if $n \geqslant 9$, Schinzel's conjecture holds, i.e.

$$
N_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta} ; \boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \prod\left(1+\beta_{i}\right) \prod\left(1+b_{j}\right)
$$

Proof. First, we quote a lemma from Schinzel's paper Sch08.
Lemma ([Sch08, lemma 5]). For positive integers a and $x \leqslant a$ we have

$$
\left(1+\frac{a}{x}\right)^{x+1} \leqslant 2^{a+1}
$$

except for the pair $a=2, x=1$.
Now, if $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta} ; \boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) \neq \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ then, since every $a_{j}$ generates $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, we have

$$
\sum b_{j}<n-\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})\right| \leqslant n-\sum \beta_{i}-1
$$

Henceforth, in this case, by the arithmetic mean-geometric mean and Bernoulli's inequalities,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\prod\left(1+\beta_{i}\right) \prod\left(1+b_{j}\right) & \leqslant\left(1+\frac{\sum \beta_{i}+\sum b_{j}}{\delta+d}\right)^{\delta+d} \\
& \leqslant 2^{\sum \beta_{i}+\sum b_{j}} \leqslant 2^{n-1} \\
& \leqslant 2^{n-1} \cdot N_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta} ; \boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})
\end{aligned}
$$

Let us now assume that $n>b_{1} \geqslant b_{2} \geqslant \cdots$ and $l \leqslant n-\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})\right|$ is the smallest number such that $C_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta} ; a_{1}, b_{1} ; \ldots ; a_{l}, b_{l}\right)=\mathbb{Z}_{n}$.

Since $C_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta} ; a_{1}, b_{1} ; \ldots ; a_{l}, b_{l}\right)=\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, every choice of $0 \leqslant x_{j} \leqslant b_{j}$ for $j=l+1, \ldots, d$ leads to at least one solution to the equation considered. Therefore

$$
N_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta} ; \boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant \prod_{j>l}\left(1+b_{j}\right)
$$

and it is now sufficient to prove that

$$
\prod_{i=1}^{\delta}\left(1+\beta_{i}\right) \prod_{j=1}^{l}\left(1+b_{j}\right) \leqslant 2^{n-1}
$$

If $l=1$ then, using the same inequalities again, for $n \geqslant 7$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\prod_{i=1}^{\delta}\left(1+\beta_{i}\right) \prod_{j=1}^{l}\left(1+b_{j}\right) & \leqslant\left(1+\frac{\sum \beta_{i}}{\delta}\right)^{\delta}\left(1+b_{1}\right) \\
& \leqslant 2^{\sum \beta_{i}}\left(1+b_{1}\right) \leqslant 2^{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor} \cdot n \leqslant 2^{n-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

If $l>1$ then $\sum_{j<l} b_{j} \leqslant n-1-\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})\right|$, because every $a_{j}$ generates $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, and also $b_{l} \leqslant\left(\sum_{j<l} b_{j}\right) /(l-1)$. This leads, much the same way as above, to

$$
\begin{aligned}
\prod_{i=1}^{\delta}\left(1+\beta_{i}\right) \prod_{j=1}^{l}\left(1+b_{j}\right) & =\prod_{i=1}^{\delta}\left(1+\beta_{i}\right) \prod_{j=1}^{l-1}\left(1+b_{j}\right) \cdot\left(1+b_{l}\right) \\
& \leqslant\left(1+\frac{\sum \beta_{i}}{\delta}\right)^{\delta}\left(1+\frac{\sum_{j<l} b_{j}}{l-1}\right)^{l-1}\left(1+\frac{\sum_{j<l} b_{j}}{l-1}\right) \\
& \leqslant\left(1+\frac{\sum \beta_{i}}{\delta}\right)^{\delta}\left(1+\frac{n-1-\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})\right|}{l-1}\right)^{l} \\
& \leqslant 2^{\sum \beta_{i}}\left(1+\frac{n-1-\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})\right|}{l-1}\right)^{l}
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we can conclude, since either we can apply the aforementioned lemma of Schinzel, if its assumptions hold, and then

$$
2^{\sum \beta_{i}}\left(1+\frac{n-1-\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})\right|}{l-1}\right)^{l} \leqslant 2^{\sum \beta_{i}} \cdot 2^{n-\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})\right|} \leqslant 2^{n-1}
$$

or, otherwise, $l=2, n-1-\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})\right|=2$ and we just write for $n \geqslant 9$

$$
2^{\sum \beta_{i}}\left(1+\frac{n-1-\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})\right|}{l-1}\right)^{l} \leqslant 2^{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor} \cdot 3^{2} \leqslant 2^{n-1}
$$

### 6.4. Proof of the theorem

In the following lemma we present the procedure that we use to find a suitable sequence $\boldsymbol{t}=$ $\left(t_{i}\right)$. If this procedure fails the previous lemma applies and, therefore, Schinzel's conjecture
holds.
Lemma 6.9. Under the assumptions of Theorem 6.1, if $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)=1$, then either there exists some sequence $\boldsymbol{t}=\left(t_{i}\right)$ such that $0 \leqslant t_{i} \leqslant b_{i}, \sum t_{i} \leqslant 3 n / 4$ and $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})=C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})$, or there exists some generator $a$ of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ such that

$$
\sum_{i: a_{i} \neq \pm a} b_{i} \leqslant \min \left(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor,\left|C_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b} \cdot \mathbf{1}_{\left\{i: a_{i} \neq \pm a\right\}}\right)\right|-1\right) .
$$

Proof. Choose $\boldsymbol{t}=\left(t_{i}\right), 0 \leqslant t_{i} \leqslant b_{i}$, to be any sequence minimal with respect to $\sum t_{i}$ among the sequences maximal with respect to $\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})\right|$ and satisfying $\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})\right| \geqslant 2 \sum t_{i}$.

If $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})=C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})$ then

$$
\sum t_{i} \leqslant\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})\right| / 2 \leqslant n / 2
$$

Similarly, by Lemma 6.7. if $\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})\right|=\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})\right|-1$ then for some $j$ such that $t_{j}<b_{j}$ we have $C_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t}+\boldsymbol{e}_{j}\right)=C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})$ and

$$
\sum t_{i}+\left(\boldsymbol{e}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right)_{i}=1+\sum t_{i} \leqslant 1+\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})\right| / 2 \leqslant(n+1) / 2 \leqslant 3 n / 4
$$

and we are done.
Let us now assume that none of the above cases holds. Hence, for some particular $j^{*}$, we have $t_{j^{*}}<b_{j^{*}}$ and $\left|C_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t}+\boldsymbol{e}_{j^{*}}\right)\right|=\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})\right|+1$. Let us write $a=a_{j^{*}}$.
$C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})$ is therefore a union of cosets of some subgroup $H$ of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ and an arithmetic progression $P$ with common difference $a$, which is contained in another coset of $H$. In the subsequent parts of this argument we shall call any coset of $H$ involved an active one and any such coset contained in $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})$ a full one. Obviously, $|H| \geqslant 2$ and $\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})\right| \geqslant 2$. A natural choice of $H$ is simply $a \cdot \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ but we prefer to consider possibly large subgroup, so we shall assume that $H$ is maximal.

If $P=C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})$ then, because $|P|=\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})\right| \geqslant 2$, for any $j$ such that $t_{j}<b_{j}$ we have $a_{j} \in a \cdot \mathbb{Z}_{n}$, as otherwise $C_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t}+\boldsymbol{e}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right)$ would be the disjoint union of $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})$ and $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})+\left\{a_{j}\right\}$. Since $0 \in P$, necessarily $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t}) \subseteq a \cdot \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ and consequently $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) \subseteq a \cdot \mathbb{Z}_{n}$. Therefore

$$
\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})\right|<\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})\right|-1 \leqslant\left|a \cdot \mathbb{Z}_{n}\right|-1,
$$

so $a_{j}= \pm a$. Consequently, $a_{j} \neq \pm a$ implies $t_{j}=b_{j}$ and

$$
\sum_{i: a_{i} \neq \pm a} b_{i}=\sum_{i: a_{i} \neq \pm a} t_{i} \leqslant \min \left(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor,\left|C_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b} \cdot \mathbf{1}_{\left\{:: a_{i} \neq \pm a\right\}}\right)\right|-1\right) .
$$

Here, the first inequality stems from $\sum t_{i} \leqslant\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$ and the second, by Lemma 6.7, from minimality of the chosen sequence $\boldsymbol{t}$. Furthermore, $a$ generates $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ by our assumption that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)=1$.

In the case when $P \neq C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})$, every full coset of $H$ is mapped onto some other such
coset under the mapping $x \mapsto x+a_{j}$ for every $j$ such that $t_{j}<b_{j}$. If it was not so, the above would apply to the active cosets. Moreover, by maximality of $\boldsymbol{t}$, we would have $|P|=|H|-1$. This would, however, contradict the assumption that $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})<C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})-1$. Hence, by maximality of $H$, we get $a_{j} \in H$.

This allows us to invoke Lemma 6.7 in order to find a sequence $\boldsymbol{\tau}=\left(\tau_{i}\right)$ such that $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t}+\boldsymbol{\tau})=C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})$ with $\sum \tau_{i} \leqslant\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})\right|-\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})\right|$ and $0 \leqslant \tau_{i} \leqslant b_{i}-t_{i}$. In particular

$$
\sum t_{i} \leqslant \frac{1}{2}\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})\right| \leqslant \frac{1}{2}\left(\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})\right|-\sum \tau_{i}\right) \leqslant \frac{1}{2}\left(n-\sum \tau_{i}\right) .
$$

Then, because $\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})\right|-\left|C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})\right| \leqslant|H|$, we have $\sum \tau_{i} \leqslant|H|$ and, by a simple calculation,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum t_{i}+\sum \tau_{i} & \leqslant \frac{1}{2}\left(n-\sum \tau_{i}\right)+\sum \tau_{i} \\
& =\frac{n}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \sum \tau_{i} \\
& \leqslant \frac{n}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \cdot|H| \leqslant \frac{n}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{n}{2} \\
& =\frac{3}{4} n
\end{aligned}
$$

The sequence $\boldsymbol{t}+\boldsymbol{\tau}$ is just a one we look for
Proof of Theorem 6.1]. We deal with the cases when $n<22$ by referring to Schinzel's Theorem 6.2. For $n \geqslant 22$ we apply Lemma 6.9. If the lemma results in some generator $a$ of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, we can apply Lemma 6.8, which readily shows the theorem.

In the other case, there is a sequence $\boldsymbol{t}=\left(t_{i}\right), 0 \leqslant t_{i} \leqslant b_{i}$, such that $\sum t_{i} \leqslant 3 n / 4$ and $C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})=C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})$. Moreover

$$
N_{c_{0} ; n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t} \leqslant \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant \prod\left(1+b_{i}-t_{i}\right) / n
$$

for some $c_{0} \in C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})=C_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})$.
By subtracting one particular solution represented in $N_{c_{0} ; n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t})$ from all those counted in $N_{c_{0} ; n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{t} \leqslant \boldsymbol{b})$ we get at least $\Pi\left(1+b_{i}-t_{i}\right) / n$ solutions of the equation considered, so $N_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant \Pi\left(1+b_{i}-t_{i}\right) / n$.

By Bernoulli's inequality

$$
1+b_{i}-t_{i} \geqslant\left(1+b_{i}\right)^{1-t_{i} / b_{i}} \geqslant \frac{1+b_{i}}{2^{t_{i}}}
$$

Hence, for $n \geqslant 22$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
N_{n}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) & \geqslant \frac{1}{n} \prod\left(1+b_{i}-t_{i}\right) \geqslant \frac{1}{n} \prod \frac{1+b_{i}}{2^{t_{i}}} \\
& \geqslant \frac{\prod\left(1+b_{i}\right)}{n \cdot 2 \sum t_{i}} \geqslant \frac{\prod\left(1+b_{i}\right)}{n 2^{3 n / 4}} \\
& \geqslant 2^{1-n} \prod\left(1+b_{i}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 6.5. Concluding remarks

The reasoning used in the proof of Lemma 6.9 can be easily adapted to the general abelian case. We remark here that while we do not attempt to generalize Lemma 6.8, it is only applied if Lemma 6.9 results in some generator of a cyclic subgroup. Consequently, a theorem follows.

Theorem 6.10. Let $G$ be a finite abelian group, $|G| \geqslant 22$ or $G$ cyclic, $k$ be a positive integer, $\boldsymbol{a}=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{b}=\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}\right)$ be sequences such that $a_{i} \in G$ and $b_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$ for $i=1, \ldots, k$. Then

$$
N_{G}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}) \geqslant 2^{1-|G|} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1+b_{i}\right) .
$$

In an obvious manner this result is inferior to Theorem 6.5 and we could not even have hoped to improve it by elementary means similar to ours. The brilliant idea of Zakarczemny that stays behind his proof of Theorem 6.5 is very different and combinatorial in nature. It basically relies on covering the box $\left\{0, \ldots, b_{1}\right\} \times \cdots \times\left\{0, \ldots, b_{k}\right\}$ uniformly by a family of cubes of the form $\left\{0, l_{1}\right\} \times \ldots \times\left\{0, l_{k}\right\}$. The latter can be successfully treated with Olson's Theorem 6.4 and the result follows.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ It is worth mentioning that this statement is true for particular choices of the notion of density, or largeness, considered, which is in our case upper asymptotic density. There are other notions of largeness, however, which are orthogonal to these and may allow a density based reasoning to prove existence of a solution to a non-invariant equation. A typical example are elements of nilpotent ultrafilters, which can be considered, in a sense, dense sets.
    ${ }^{2}$ It means that there is a subset of variables such that the linear form limited to these variables is invariant.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ An elementary bound of the form $|k A-l A| \ll(k+l)^{|A|}$ is better, however, if $k, l \gg|A|$

[^2]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~A}$ set $X$ is said to be dissociated if the only representation of 0 in $\operatorname{Span}(X)$ corresponds to the zero-vector of coefficients.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ The claim basically follows from considering the second paragraph of Sanders's proof, where he introduces $\delta^{\prime}$, which corresponds to the product $\rho \gamma$ in variables of the statement of Lemma 5.18, and considering the very last paragraph of this proof, where conditions on $\delta^{\prime}$ are listed.

