ONLINE CONTAINERS FOR HYPERGRAPHS, WITH APPLICATIONS TO LINEAR EQUATIONS

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ABSTRACT. A set of containers for a hypergraph G is a collection \mathcal{C} of vertex subsets, such that for every independent (or, indeed, merely sparse) set I of G there is some $C \in \mathcal{C}$ with $I \subset C$, no member of \mathcal{C} is large, and the collection \mathcal{C} is relatively small. Containers with useful properties have been exhibited by Balogh, Morris and Samotij [6] and by the authors [39, 40, 41], along with several applications.

Our purpose here is to give a simpler algorithm than the one used in [40], which nevertheless yields containers with all the properties needed for the main container theorem of [40] and its consequences. Moreover this algorithm produces containers having the so-called online property, allowing the colouring results of [40] to be extended to all, not just simple, hypergraphs. Most of the proof of the container theorem remains the same if this new algorithm is used, and we do not repeat all the details here, but describe only the changes that need to be made. However, for illustrative purposes, we do include a complete proof of a slightly weaker but simpler version of the theorem, which for many (perhaps most) applications is plenty.

We also present applications to the number of solution-free sets of linear equations, including the number of Sidon sets, that were announced in [40].

1. INTRODUCTION

Let G be an r-uniform hypergraph with vertex set V(G) and edge set E(G). Very often we shall assume that V(G) is the set $[n] = \{1, \ldots, n\}$. A subset $I \subset V(G)$ is independent if it contains no edge. A set of containers for G is a collection Cof subsets of V(G), such that, for every independent set I, there is a container $C \in C$ with $I \subset C$. To be useful, each container should be not much bigger than an independent set can be, but the number of containers should be much smaller than the number of independent sets. A collection C can sometimes serve as a substitute for the collection of independent sets in simple expectation arguments, the small size of |C| rendering the argument effective where an expectation instead over all independent sets would yield nothing worthwhile.

Saphozhenko [34, 35] seems to have been the first to explicitly consider containers for ordinary graphs, in his studies of the number of independent sets in regular graphs, and he coined the phrase "container method" (see [37]). The usefulness of containers for a particular 3-uniform hypergraph was highlighted by Green [17] in his solution to the Cameron-Erdős problem: see §1.3 for more on this. Containers for simple regular hypergraphs were introduced in [39] (extended to non-regular in [41]). More recently, however, the containers constructed by Balogh, Morris and Samotij in [6] (inspired originally by the graph methods of Kleitman and Winston [22]) and by the authors in [40] have been especially effective in addressing

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certain questions of extremal combinatorics, due to the small size (essentially optimal) of the collection C. In consequence, the method has been adopted more widely, as in for example [7, 11, 27, 30].

The purpose of the present paper is to describe an algorithm for container construction that is similar to, but different from, the algorithm in [40]. The algorithm here is more straightforward (it passes through the vertex set only once instead of multiple times), and so it is more transparent and comprehensible. It has the further advantage that it has the so-called online property; the algorithm in [40] had this property only when applied to simple hypergraphs. The online property is needed for applications where the number of vertices |C| of a container C is important (many applications care instead about the number of edges inside C). This is described a little more in §1.1, and an application to list colourings is given in §1.2.

The paper [40] has a fair amount of discussion of the container method and of the motivation behind that algorithm. Essentially all of what is written there is relevant here too, so rather than reproduce it we refer the reader to [40] for fuller information. The statement of the main container results here, Theorem 1.1 and its corollaries, stated in §1.1, are the same as in [40] (apart from the replacement of tuples (T_{r-1}, \ldots, T_0) by single sets T — see Remark 2.2). Indeed, the proofs from [40] carry over word for word, once some straightforward degree calculations have been carried out verifying that the present algorithm performs as least as well as the old one. For this reason we do not give the full proofs, but restrict ourselves just to carrying out these degree calculations and explaining why the rest of the proof is identical apart from purely cosmetic differences. This approach means the present paper is not completely self-contained, but it avoids excessive duplication.

Having said that, much of the complexity of the proofs in [40] arose from an effort to establish a good bound on the measure $\mu(C)$ of each container (stated in Theorem 1.1 (d)). For most applications, it is enough that $\mu(C)$ is bounded merely by some constant less than one. It is much easier to prove such a weaker result, and so, for illustrative purposes, we include a full proof of a slightly weaker version of the main container theorem; this is Theorem 1.2.

During its operation, the algorithm used here monitors certain quantities (subset degrees), and takes certain actions when these quantities reach a certain threshold. These thresholds are specified by threshold functions θ_s , discussed in §2.3. The threshold functions are evaluated before the algorithm starts (this is a crucial difference between the present algorithm and that in [40]). The values of these functions determine how small the containers are and, more importantly, what conditions on the hypergraph are needed in order to build the containers. To obtain Theorem 1.1 we need to choose θ_s quite carefully, so that the action of this algorithm emulates the one in [40]. But, if a weaker result is acceptable, then such delicacy is not necessary, and a more straightforward choice is enough to give the (still very effective) Theorem 1.2. More explanation can be found in §2.3 and §3.

At the same time as giving the new algorithm, we take the opportunity to describe some applications concerning solution-free sets for linear equations: see $\S1.3$. These were announced in [40] but no proofs were given.

1.1. Containers. The main container theorem is Theorem 1.1 below. We define here the terms needed, but for more discussion of them we refer the reader to [40].

The fundamental point of the construction is that there is a function $C : \mathcal{P}[n] \to \mathcal{P}[n]$, defined by means of an algorithm, which, given any small set T as input, produces some larger set C(T). The algorithm also ensures that, for every independent set I, there is some small $T \subset I$ with $I \subset C(T)$. This gives a collection of containers $\mathcal{C} = \{C(T) : T \text{ is small}\}$, where \mathcal{C} is relatively small because there are few small sets T.

Of course, the terms all need to be quantified. We measure set sizes using *degree measure*, the measure of $S \subset [n]$ being $\mu(S) = (1/nd) \sum_{u \in U} d(u)$. Here d(u) is the degree of the vertex u in G and d is the average degree. When the graph is regular then degree measure agrees with the uniform measure |S|/n, but for non-regular graphs degree measure is more useful.

The reason for using degree measure is that, in a general r-uniform hypergraph of average degree d, the size of an independent set can be arbitrarily close to 1 in uniform measure, and so uniform measure will give no useful bound on container sizes. However (as is easily shown) the degree measure of an independent set is at most 1-1/r, and so there is hope of bounding the degree measure of the containers away from 1. This is the import of Theorem 1.1 (d). The algorithm is thus designed with degree measure in mind. Consequently the sets T it produces have $\mu(T)$ small (Theorem 1.1 (b)). But for $|\mathcal{C}|$ to be relatively small we need to ensure |T| is small for these sets T. The algorithm achieves this by the simple expedient of not placing vertices of very small degree into T: thus $\mu(T)$ small implies |T| is small (Theorem 1.1 (c)).

As usual we define $[n]^{(s)} = \{ \sigma \subset [n] : |\sigma| = s \}$ and $[n]^{(\leq s)} = \bigcup_{t \leq s} [n]^{(t)}$. The degree $d(\sigma)$ of a subset σ , where $|\sigma| \leq r$, is the number of edges of G that contain σ . We make frequent use of the definition $d^{(j)}(\sigma) = \max\{d(\sigma') : \sigma \subset \sigma' \in [n]^{(j)}\},\$ though usually we write $d^{(j)}(v)$ instead of $d^{(j)}(\{v\})$.

A parameter τ appears in all the theorems and in the algorithm. Roughly speaking, τ is the measure of the sets T, and the smaller τ is, the smaller is C. In Theorem 1.1, how small τ can be is determined by the co-degree function $\delta(G, \tau)$, defined by

$$\delta(G,\tau) = 2^{\binom{r}{2}-1} \sum_{j=2}^{r} 2^{-\binom{j-1}{2}} \delta_j \quad \text{where} \quad \delta_j \tau^{j-1} n d = \sum_{v} d^{(j)}(v) \,, \quad 2 \le j \le r \,.$$

This function is identical to the one in [40]. Note that $\delta(G,\tau)$ is decreasing in τ , and hence the condition $\delta(G,\tau) \leq \zeta$, which appears in Theorem 1.1, is really a lower bound on τ . The parameter ζ can be chosen to suit, a typical value being $\zeta = 1/12r!$. The function $\delta(G,\tau)$ depends on the quantities $d^{(j)}(v)$; the larger the subset degrees are in G then the larger $d^{(j)}(v)$ is likely to be, and hence τ must be larger to achieve the bound $\delta(G, \tau) \leq \zeta$. The relationship between the subset degrees and τ is thus implicit in the function $\delta(G, \tau)$.

We now state the main theorem.

Theorem 1.1. Let G be an r-graph with vertex set [n]. Let $\tau, \zeta > 0$ satisfy $\delta(G,\tau) \leq \zeta$. Then there is a function $C: \mathcal{P}[n] \to \mathcal{P}[n]$, such that, for every independent set $I \subset [n]$ there exists $T \subset I$ with

- (a) $I \subset C(T)$,

(b) $\mu(T) \leq 2r\tau/\zeta$, (c) $|T| \leq 2r\tau n/\zeta^2$, and (d) $\mu(C(T)) \leq 1 - 1/r! + 4\zeta + 2r\tau/\zeta$.

Moreover $C(T) \cap [w] = C(T \cap [w]) \cap [w]$ for all $T \in \mathcal{P}[n]$ and $w \in [n]$.

Indeed, the above holds for all sets $I \subset [n]$ such that either G[I] is $\lfloor \tau^{r-1} \zeta e(G)/n \rfloor$ degenerate or $e(G[I]) \leq 2r\tau^r e(G)/\zeta$.

As stated previously, this theorem is nearly the same as [40, Theorem 3.4]. The numerical expressions that appear are exactly the same. The two differences are that a tuple (T_{r-1},\ldots,T_0) has been replaced by a single set T (which, though not a strengthening, does make the theorem easier on the eye; see Remark 2.2), and that the online property now holds for all r-graphs rather than just for simple ones.

The online property is the statement that $C(T) \cap [w] = C(T \cap [w]) \cap [w]$ for all $w \in [n]$. One way to think of it is like this. Suppose the labelling of the vertices was hidden initially, but was then revealed one vertex at a time. If the algorithm which has to build a container C(T) from T has the online property, then it will decide which members of [w] will lie in C(T) just from knowing the set $T \cap [w]$. To this extent the algorithm is behaving like an online algorithm, though it needs to be remembered that the whole graph is known before the vertex labelling is revealed.

The online property is needed when the number of vertices |C| in a container is what matters. The main theorem gives a bound on $\mu(C)$, and this readily supplies a bound on the number of edges e(G[C]) in the container. If G is regular, then this in turn leads to a bound on |C|, but there is no useful bound of this kind in general. What can be inferred, however, is that each container C can name some $v \in [n]$ for which $|C \cap [v]|$ is bounded, and the number of containers naming any given v is small relative to v. This arcane statement is expressed precisely in [40, Theorem 3.7]; we don't restate the theorem here but point out only that, as a consequence of the algorithm here, the theorem holds for all, not just simple, graphs (and with the tuple replaced by a single set).

We now state a somewhat weaker theorem than Theorem 1.1, but one which is just as good if the exact dependence of constants on the parameter r is not an issue. The theorem has the twin advantages of being easier to comprehend and being easier to prove.

As mentioned before, the algorithm makes use of threshold functions θ_s . The form of θ_s used to prove Theorem 1.1 (given by Definition 2.4) is carefully tuned to yield Theorem 1.1 (d); this form of θ_s in turn leads to the constraint $\delta(G, \tau) \leq \zeta$ needed to make the theorem hold. For the weaker theorem we use more straightforward functions θ_s (given by Definition 2.5). Likewise we need not be so careful about the constraints on G, resulting in a more transparent necessary condition. Here is the weaker theorem.

Theorem 1.2. Let $r \in \mathbb{N}$. Then there is a constant c = c(r) > 0 such that the following holds. Let G be an r-graph with average degree d and vertex set [n]. Let $0 < \tau \leq 1$ be chosen so that

$$d(\sigma) \le c d\tau^{|\sigma|-1} \quad holds \text{ for all } \sigma, \ |\sigma| \ge 2.$$
^(†)

Then there is a function $C : \mathcal{P}[n] \to \mathcal{P}[n]$, such that, for every independent set $I \subset [n]$ there exists $T \subset I$ with

- (a) $I \subset C(T)$,
- (b) $\mu(T) \leq \tau$,
- (c) $|T| \leq \tau n$, and
- (d) $\mu(C(T)) \le 1 c.$

Moreover $C(T) \cap [w] = C(T \cap [w]) \cap [w]$ for all $T \in \mathcal{P}[n]$ and $w \in [n]$.

Indeed, the above holds for all sets $I \subset [n]$ such that either G[I] is $\lfloor c\tau^{r-1}d \rfloor$ degenerate or $e(G[I]) \leq c\tau^r e(G)$.

The necessary condition in Theorem 1.2 is stronger than that in Theorem 1.1, because it involves a bound on every $d(\sigma)$, whereas the bound implicit in the function $\delta(G, \tau)$ involves some kind of averaging. This makes no difference, though, for the applications presented here.

Most applications do not use the main theorem directly, but an iterated form of it, resulting in much smaller containers. Given an independent set I, the main theorem applied to G supplies an initial container C_1 for I. A further application to $G[C_1]$ supplies a smaller container $C_2 \subset C_1$, yet another application to $G[C_2]$ supplies $C_3 \subset C_2$, and so on, successive applications resulting in a container C that is very sparse. This is how [40, Corollary 3.6] was obtained, and we can derive the same corollary from Theorem 1.1, but with tuples replaced by single sets. If the precise dependence of the constants on r is not important, though, Theorem 1.2 can be used multiple times instead, which produces the following corollary.

Corollary 1.3. Let $r \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $\epsilon > 0$. Then there is a constant $c = c(r, \epsilon)$ for which the following holds. Let G be an r-graph of average degree d on vertex set [n]. Let $0 < \tau \leq 1$ be chosen so that

$$d(\sigma) \le c d\tau^{|\sigma|-1}$$
 holds for all $\sigma, |\sigma| \ge 2$.

Then there is a function $C : \mathcal{P}[n] \to \mathcal{P}[n]$, such that, for every independent set $I \subset [n]$ there exists $T \subset I$ with

- (a) $I \subset C(T)$,
- (b) $|T| \leq \tau n$, and
- (c) $e(G[C]) \leq \epsilon e(G)$.

Indeed, the above holds for all sets $I \subset [n]$ such that either G[I] is $\lfloor c\tau^{r-1}d \rfloor$ degenerate or $e(G[I]) \leq c\tau^r e(G)$.

We include a full proof of this corollary. It will be applied later to prove Theorem 4.2, from which nearly all our results on linear equations will be derived. The only exception to this is a theorem about the number of Sidon sets, for which we need a more technical version of the corollary, Theorem 5.1. This version is very close to [40, Theorem 6.3] and so we shall not prove it.

1.2. List colouring. Given an assignment $L : V(G) \to \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ of a list L(v) of colours to each vertex v, we say G is L-chooseable if each vertex v can choose a colour $f(v) \in L(v)$, such that there is no edge in which all the vertices choose the same colour. The minimum number k such that G is L-choosable whenever $|L(v)| \geq k$ for every v is called the *list-chromatic* number of G, denoted by $\chi_l(G)$. This notion was introduced for graphs by Vizing [48] and by Erdős, Rubin and Taylor [13]. It was studied for Steiner systems by Haxell and Pei [20], for simple regular 3-graphs by Haxell and Verstraëte [21] and for certain r-graphs by Alon and Kostochka [3, 4]. The case of the next theorem for simple graphs was stated as [40, Theorem 2.1]; it strengthens and extends a theorem of Alon [2] for 2-graphs. It is possible to obtain a lower bound on $\chi_l(G)$ for a non-simple hypergraph by applying [40, Theorem 2.1] to a randomly chosen simple subgraph, but the theorem here gives a better bound.

Theorem 1.4. Let $r \in \mathbb{N}$ be fixed. Let G be an r-graph with average degree d. Suppose that $d^{(j)}(v) \leq d^{(r-j)/(r-1)+o(1)}$ for every $v \in V(G)$ and for $2 \leq j \leq r$, where $o(1) \to 0$ as $d \to \infty$. Then

$$\chi_l(G) \ge (1+o(1)) \frac{1}{(r-1)^2} \log_r d.$$

Moreover, if G is regular then

$$\chi_l(G) \ge (1+o(1)) \frac{1}{r-1} \log_r d.$$

The proof of [40, Theorem 2.1] illustrates how to prove theorems of this kind and so we do not prove Theorem 1.4 here. We remark only that it uses [40, Theorem 3.7], which can now be applied to all *r*-graphs and not just simple ones, due to the online property mentioned above in §1.1. For readers keen to check the details, we note that, given the choice of ζ , τ and k in the proof, the condition $d^{(j)}(v) \leq d^{(r-j)/(r-1)}\zeta^{-1}$ implies that $\delta(G,\tau) \leq \zeta$ as needed, and that $d^{(2)}(v) \leq d^{(r-2)/(r-1)}\zeta^{-1}$ implies $d(v) \leq nd^{(r-2)/(r-1)}\zeta^{-1}$ from which $\mu([k]) \leq$ $(1/nd)knd^{(r-2)/(r-1)}\zeta^{-1} \leq \zeta^5 \leq \zeta/2r!$ follows. The rest of the proof is identical. 1.3. Linear equations. A subset $S \subset [n]$ is said to be *sum-free* if there is no solution to x + y = z with $x, y, z \in [n]$. Cameron and Erdős conjectured that the number of sum-free sets is $O(2^{n/2})$, and this conjecture is prominent in the history of the container method. Alon [1], Calkin [9], and Erdős and Granville (unpublished) each proved there are at most $2^{n/2+o(n)}$ sum-free sets. Green [17] and Sapozhenko [38] proved the conjecture. Sapozhenko's proof makes use of containers for 2-graphs. Green's argument is of interest here because he highlighted what was, in effect, the usefulness of containers for 3-uniform hypergraphs. The argument in [17] is explicitly split into two parts. In the first part, a collection \mathcal{C} of sets is found such that each sum-free set is a subset of a member of \mathcal{C} , each $C \in \mathcal{C}$ has very few solutions x + y = z with $x, y, z \in C$, and \mathcal{C} is small, specifically, $|\mathcal{C}| = 2^{o(n)}$. In the present terminology \mathcal{C} is simply a set of containers for the 3uniform hypergraph whose edges are the triples $\{x, y, z\}$ with x + y = z. (Indeed we have changed Green's notation \mathcal{F} to our \mathcal{C} for consistency.) In the second part of the argument, a detailed inspection of the containers leads to a proof of the conjecture.

Green produced his containers by the granularization technique developed by Green and Ruzsa [19]. The containers are small perturbations of unions of arithmetic progressions, and a container is found for each sum-free set by means of Fourier techniques. The method perhaps gives more containers than what is given by the method of [41] or the present method, but that is irrelevant in the context.

Here we are interested in more general systems of linear equations, of the form Ax = b, where A is a $k \times r$ matrix with entries in F, $x \in F^r$ and $b \in F^k$; F itself might be either a finite field or the set of integers [N]. We include also the possibility that F is an abelian group: in this case, A should have integer entries, where integer-group multiplication ax, $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $x \in F$, is a copies of x, $x + \cdots + x$; or -a copies of -x if a is negative. We call a triple (F, A, b) of this kind a $k \times r$ linear system.

Definition 1.5. For a $k \times r$ linear system (F, A, b), a subset $I \subset F$ is solution-free if there is no $x \in I^r$ with Ax = b.

It takes little imagination to think that a container theorem for solution-free sets might come in handy. Such a theorem can be obtained if we write down some r-graph G whose edges represent solutions and whose independent sets represent sum-free sets. Then Corollary 1.3 will supply containers; all we need do is to compute the subset degrees $d(\sigma)$. These degrees, and hence the number of containers, depend on a parameter $m_F(A)$ discussed by Rödl and Ruciński [31]; we defer the details (Definition 4.1). The definition requires A to satisfy a mild condition, but a necessary one (see §4).

Definition 1.6. We say that A has *full rank* if given any $b \in F^k$ there exists $x \in F^r$ with Ax = b. We then say that A is *abundant* if it has full rank and every $k \times (r-2)$ submatrix obtained by removing a pair of columns from A still has full rank.

(This definition of full rank might be non-standard.) The resultant container theorem, for systems with abundant matrices, is Theorem 4.2. We illustrate it with two applications, one to the number of solution-free subsets and the other to the size of solution-free subsets in sparse randomly chosen sets. The first requires only that the number of containers be $2^{o(n)}$, but the second needs a much smaller collection.

The containers produced by Theorem 4.2 are not solution-free but are nearly so. For the applications, it is necessary that this property implies the containers C are not much larger than maximum solution free sets. Roughly speaking, we

would like to say if C^r contains $o(|F|^{r-k})$ solutions to the system (F, A, b) then $|C| \leq ex(F, A, b) + o(|F|)$, where ex(F, A, b) is the maximum size of a solution-free subset for the linear system (F, A, b). To make this precise we use the following definition. A null function $f : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is one such that $f(x) \to 0$ as $x \to 0$.

Definition 1.7. Let $f : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ be null. The $k \times r$ linear system (F, A, b) is said to be *f*-supersaturated if, whenever $X \subset F$ contains at most $\eta |F|^{r-k}$ solutions to Ax = b, then $|X| \leq \exp(F, A, b) + f(\eta)|F|$, where $\exp(F, A, b)$ is the maximum size of a solution-free subset for (F, A, b).

Obviously every system, being finite, is f-supersaturated for some null f, so the definition has content only when f does not depend on (F, A, b) directly. Systems of interest are often supersaturated but the verification generally requires a removal lemma. More is said about this in §4.1. Our first application of containers to linear systems is to estimate the number of solution-free sets, in a similar way to the weak versions of the Cameron-Erdős conjecture; if (F, A, b) is supersaturated and A is abundant, then there are $2^{\exp(F, A, b) + o(|F|)}$ solution-free sets. There are several results of this nature in the literature: we mention only that Sapozhenko [36] obtained one by a container argument applied with a theorem of Lev, Luczak and Schoen [28] (see [37]).

Theorem 1.8. Let $k, r \in \mathbb{N}$, let $f : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ be null and let $\epsilon > 0$. Then there exists $c = c(k, r, f, \epsilon)$ (or $c = c(A, f, \epsilon)$ in the case F = [N]) such that, if (F, A, b) is a $k \times r$ f-supersaturated linear system with |F| > c, and A is abundant, then the number of solution-free subsets of F is $2^{\exp(F,A,b)+\lambda|F|}$, where $0 \le \lambda < \epsilon$.

Our second application is to the size of solution-free subsets within randomly chosen subsets $X \subset F$. Let the elements of X be chosen independently at random with probability p. Clearly one might expect to find a solution-free subset of size at least $p \exp(F, A, b)$ within X, and it turns out that if p is not too small then this is the largest that a solution-free subset of X can be. In a proof of this by the container method, the size of C is the factor that determines how small a p the proof holds for. The full statement appears in Theorem 4.8, and it requires that (F, A, b) has the supersaturation property. Nevertheless we state a special case here, because in this case supersaturation is easily verified by a simple density argument (no removal lemma is needed). For $\ell = 3$ the theorem was proved by Kohayakawa, Luczak and Rödl [24].

Theorem 1.9 (Conlon and Gowers [12], Schacht [42]). Let $\ell \geq 3$ and $\epsilon > 0$. There exists a constant c > 0 such that for $p \geq cN^{-1/(\ell-1)}$, if $X \subset [N]$ is a random subset chosen with probability p, then with probability tending to 1 as $N \to \infty$, any subset of X of size $\epsilon |X|$ contains an arithmetic progression of length ℓ .

Note that the bound on p here is best possible (up to the value of c), as indicated by the fact that if $p = o(N^{-1/(\ell-1)})$ then X contains (in expectation) many fewer than |X| arithmetic progressions and hence contains a large subset free of them.

As well as these two applications of Theorem 4.2, we prove a bound on the number of Sidon sets, which are sets $S \subset [n]$ for which every sum of two elements is distinct, i.e., there are no solutions to w + x = y + z with $\{w, x\} \neq \{y, z\}$. Erdős and Turán [15] proved that $|S| \leq (1 + o(1))\sqrt{n}$, and Cameron and Erdős [10] raised the question of how many Sidon sets there are.

Theorem 1.10. There are between $2^{(1.16+o(1))\sqrt{n}}$ and $2^{(55+o(1))\sqrt{n}}$ Sidon subsets of [n].

In particular there are more than $2^{(1+o(1))\sqrt{n}}$ Sidon sets. The upper bound comes from a direct application of a standard container argument: Kohayakawa, Lee, Rödl and Samotij [23] have a finer argument (with a better constant).

2. The Algorithm

We remark at the outset that the construction nowhere makes use of the fact that I is independent. Indeed we shall take advantage of this fact to build containers for sparse sets. The independence, or sparsity, comes into play only later, in the calculation of the number of containers required and of their sizes.

As in [40, Section 4], the process for constructing containers can be described in terms of an algorithm with two slightly different modes, "prune" mode and "build" mode. In prune mode, the algorithm takes as input a set I and outputs a subset $T \subset I$. In build mode, the algorithm takes as input some set T and outputs a set C. The set C is thus a function of T and we can emphasise this by writing C = C(T). The two modes of the algorithm should co-operate in the following sense, that if the set T input to build mode is the one output by prune mode with input I, then $I \subset C(T)$ must hold.

Both modes of the algorithm have available the hypergraph G together with an enumeration, or labelling, of the vertex set, which we take to be [n]. As far as the algorithm is concerned, there is nothing special about the enumeration; changing the enumeration might change which sets actually become containers, but the properties of them, as described in Theorem 1.1, remain the same. This comment covers the online property also. (Note, however, that the only application to date of the online property is [40, Theorem 3.7], described in §1.1; this application uses the containers produced when the enumeration is by order of decreasing degree.)

2.1. General properties of the algorithm. Prune mode initialises $T = \emptyset$ and build mode initialises C = [n]. Both modes of the algorithm then run through the vertices one by one in order, and check, for each vertex v, whether v satisfies a membership rule; the same rule must be used in each mode of the algorithm. If the rule is not satisfied, neither mode takes any action and the algorithm moves on to the next vertex. If, however, the rule is satisfied then prune mode adds v to T if $v \in I$, whereas build mode removes v from C if $v \notin T$.

It can be seen that, whatever rule is used, prune mode outputs the set T of members of I that satisfy the rule, and build mode outputs the set C comprising T together with all vertices not satisfying the rule. So plainly, if T is the set output by prune mode with input I, then $I \subset C(T)$, as required.

Notice that, at the point when the vertex v is inspected, both modes of the algorithm know the set $T \cap [v-1]$, this being the members of T that lie in the range $1, \ldots, v-1$ of vertices that have been examined so far. It is permissible, therefore, for the membership rule to depend on this set, because both modes of the algorithm will be able to evaluate the rule in the same way. We shall express this dependence as follows. There will be some data structure \mathcal{D} (say, a collection of sets or hypergraphs), that is initialised at the start of the algorithm and which is updated whenever a vertex v is added to T. The rule can then depend on \mathcal{D} . To be more precise, when v is inspected, \mathcal{D} is a function of $T \cap [v-1]$, and the membership rule is a function of \mathcal{D} and of v. We remind the reader here that complete knowledge of the hypergraph G is available throughout the procedure.

The general form of such an algorithm is set out in Table 1. Note that \mathcal{D} is updated with v only if the rule is passed and $v \in T$; in the case of prune mode, this is after v has been added to T.

2.2. Comments on the general form. Before describing the particular membership rule which will be used in the actual container algorithm, we make one or two observations that apply generally.

Remark 2.1. *The online property.* It is immediate that an algorithm of the kind described will produce containers with the online property: that is, given any initial

```
INPUT
     r-graph G on vertex set [n]
     in prune mode a subset I \subset [n]
     in build mode a subset T \subset [n]
OUTPUT
     in prune mode a subset T \subset [n]
     in build mode a subset C \subset [n]
INITIALISATION
     initialise data structure \mathcal{D}
     in prune mode put T = \emptyset
     in build mode put C = [n]
for v = 1, 2, ..., n do:
  let \operatorname{Rule}(v) be some condition on v depending on \mathcal{D}
  if \operatorname{Rule}(v) is satisfied
     in prune mode if v \in I, add v to T
     in build mode if v \notin T, remove v from C
     if v \in T
       update \mathcal{D} using v
```

TABLE 1. The general form of the online algorithm

ordering of the vertices, then for all $w \in [n]$, $C(T) \cap [w] = C(T \cap [w]) \cap [w]$ holds. This is simply because the algorithm has already determined $C(T) \cap [w]$ by the time it has inspected $v = 1, 2, \ldots, w$, and for this range of v the decisions made depend only on which elements of [w] are contained in the input, that is, on $T \cap [w]$.

Remark 2.2. Over-specifying the input to build mode. It will be helpful, in order to make the presentation cleaner, to observe that if I is a set for which prune mode outputs T, then C(S) = C(T) for any set S such that $T \subset S \subset I$. This is because T is the subset of I for which the rule is satisfied: hence for any $v \in S \setminus T$ the rule is not satisfied, and both forms of the algorithm pass over v without further action. (In particular, \mathcal{D} is not updated when $v \in S \setminus T$.) This observation was made by Balogh, Morris and Samotij [6] in their algorithm.

The advantage of over-specifying comes when the container theorem is iterated, as mentioned regarding the proof of Corollary 1.3. Each of the containers C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots is determined by some subset T_1, T_2, T_3, \ldots of *I*. We could instead give as input to build mode the set $T = T_1 \cup T_2 \cup T_3 \cup \cdots$ at every iteration of the algorithm, and the sets C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots would be output correctly. Hence the final container *C* is determined by *T*.

Remark 2.3. Changing the vertex order. Rather than process the vertices one by one in the order supplied, that is, rather than test the rule in the order v = 1, 2, ..., n, the algorithm could be changed so that it decides for itself in which order to process the vertices. For example, having processed vertices $v = v_1, v_2, ..., v_{k-1}$, it could inspect each of the remaining vertices and choose as v_k the one which maximises some potential function that depends on \mathcal{D} . A feature like this is used in [6]. Note that the algorithm here will still work under this dynamic re-ordering, which is to say the fact that $I \subset C(T)$ is preserved. However it will break the online property, because $C \cap [w]$ no longer depends just on $T \cap [w]$. For this reason, and because the rest of our analysis appears to gain no advantage from it, we do not use this feature.

2.3. The actual container algorithm. The main features of the algorithm are described in [40, Section 4], so we do not dwell on them here. We make use of auxiliary multisets of edges $P_r, P_{r-1}, \ldots, P_1$. Here P_s is a multiset of s-sets in [n]; in [40] P_s was an s-uniform multi-hypergraph but here it is more convenient to use the same symbol for the edge set of such a hypergraph, the difference being purely one of notation. We take $P_r = E(G)$, but for s < r the multisets P_s will grow during the course of the algorithm, being initialised to the empty set. Any set added to P_s comes from a set in P_{s+1} after removing its first (in the ordering of [n] vertex v; if this happens, it does so when it is v's turn to be processed by the algorithm, and then only if $v \in T$. It follows that each set $f \in P_s$ comes from some set $t \subset T$, |t| = r - s, such that $t \cup f \in E(G)$, and f comprises the last s vertices of the edge $t \cup f$. For each set $\sigma \in [n]^{(\leq s)}$, we denote by $d_s(\sigma)$ the degree of σ in P_s , that is, $d_s(\sigma)$ is the number of edges in P_s that contain σ . Thus the value of $d_s(\sigma)$ is initially zero, and it grows during the run of the algorithm as P_s grows. Finally, Γ_s is the set of elements $\sigma \in [n]^{(\leq s)}$ whose degree $d_s(\sigma)$ has reached some predetermined threshold. The data structure \mathcal{D} , on which the membership rule is based, comprises $P_r, P_{r-1}, \ldots, P_1$ together with $\Gamma_{r-1}, \Gamma_{r-2}, \ldots, \Gamma_1$.

The algorithm of [40] involves two parameters, τ and ζ , and these are used here in the same way; roughly speaking, τ is the measure of T and ζ is a smallish constant. In particular, if d is the average degree of G then we denote by B the set of vertices of low degree, that is, $B = \{v \in [n] : d(v) < \zeta d\}$.

The final thing needed for the algorithm is the threshold function used to determine entry into Γ_s . As has been said before, we make use of two different threshold functions; we call these a *strong* function for the proof of Theorem 1.1 and a *weak* function for the proof of Theorem 1.2. Both functions depend on the input parameter τ and on the graph G itself. But it is important to note that their values can be computed at the start of the algorithm and they do not change during running.

Definition 2.4. For s = 2, ..., r and $\sigma \in [n]^{(\leq s)}$, the *strong* threshold functions θ_s are given as follows.

$$\theta_s(\sigma) = \tau^{r-s} d(v) \qquad \text{for } \sigma = \{v\}, \text{ i.e. } |\sigma| = 1$$

$$\theta_s(\sigma) = 2^{\binom{r}{2}} \tau^{r-s} \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-s} 2^{-\binom{s+\ell}{2}} \tau^{-\ell} d^{(|\sigma|+\ell)}(\sigma) \qquad \text{for } |\sigma| \ge 2$$

The definition of the weak threshold function makes use of a real number δ . This is not the co-degree function $\delta(G, \tau)$, which plays no part in Theorem 1.2, but it is a kind of weak echo of this function, and so we use the same letter.

Definition 2.5. For s = 2, ..., r and $\sigma \in [n]^{(\leq s)}$, the *weak* threshold functions θ_s are given as follows, where δ is the minimum real number such that $d(\sigma) \leq \delta d\tau^{|\sigma|-1}$ holds for all σ , $|\sigma| \geq 2$.

$\theta_s(\sigma) = \tau^{r-s} d(v)$	for $\sigma = \{v\}$, i.e. $ \sigma = 1$
$\theta_s(\sigma) = \delta d\tau^{r-s+ \sigma -1}$	for $ \sigma \ge 2$

The way the threshold functions are used in the algorithm means that the degrees $d_s(v)$ are bounded, as shown in Lemma 3.3 for the strong functions and in Lemma 3.5 for the weak versions. These lemmas form the foundation of the proofs of the container theorems. The strong versions have an extra consequence

an r-graph G on vertex set [n], with average degree d parameters $\tau, \zeta > 0$ in prune mode a subset $I \subset [n]$ in build mode a subset $T \subset [n]$ OUTPUT in prune mode a subset $T \subset [n]$ in build mode a subset $C \subset [n]$ INITIALISATION put $B = \{v \in [n] : d(v) < \zeta d\}$ evaluate the thresholds $\theta_s(\sigma), \sigma \in [n]^{(\leq s)}, 1 \leq i \leq r$ put $P_r = E(G), P_s = \emptyset, \Gamma_s = \emptyset, s = 1, 2, \dots, r-1$ in prune mode put $T = \emptyset$ in build mode put C = [n]for v = 1, 2, ..., n do: for $s = 1, 2, \dots, r - 1$ do: let $F_{v,s} = \{ f \in [v+1,n]^{(s)} : \{v\} \cup f \in P_{s+1}, \text{ and } \not\exists \sigma \in \Gamma_s, \sigma \subset f \}$ [here $F_{v,s}$ is a multiset with multiplicities inherited from P_{s+1}] if $v \notin B$, and either $|F_{v,s}| \ge \zeta \tau^{r-s-1} d(v)$ for some s or $v \in \Gamma_1$ in prune mode if $v \in I$, add v to T in build mode if $v \notin T$, remove v from C if $v \in T$ then for $s = 1, 2, \ldots, r - 1$ do: add $F_{v,s}$ to P_s for each $\sigma \in [v+1, n]^{(\leq s)}$, if $d_s(\sigma) \geq \theta_s(\sigma)$, add σ to Γ_s



for $d_{s-1}(\sigma)$, stated in Lemma 3.1, which is needed to establish the bound on $\mu(C)$ in Theorem 1.1 (d).

The container algorithm is set out in Table 2. The membership rule test is the line that begins "if $v \notin B$...". The two lines before that are merely to define the multisets $F_{v,1}, \ldots, F_{v,r-1}$ that are used in the test.

As in [40], the aim is to build up the multisets P_s as quickly as possible, whilst keeping the degrees in P_s of each set σ below its target value $\theta_s(\sigma)$. The set Γ_s comprises those σ that have reached their target degree in P_s . Hence the multiset $F_{v,s}$ is the potential contribution of v to P_s ; it is the edges of P_{s+1} that contain v(with v then removed), but which don't contain anything from Γ_s . If $F_{v,s}$ is large for some s then v makes a substantial contribution to that P_s , and we place v in T, updating all P_s and Γ_s accordingly.

If every vertex that enters T does so because one of the sets $F_{v,s}$ is substantial, then T will be small, because the size of each P_s is bounded (this is why we cap its degrees) and so it cannot be increased often. Observe, though, that there is another reason for placing v in T, other than that one of the $F_{v,s}$ is large, namely, that $v \in \Gamma_1$. This will never happen if I is an independent set, since it means that $\{v\}$ is an edge of P_1 , which, as mentioned earlier, means $t \cup \{v\}$ is an edge of Ifor some $t \in T^{(r-1)} \subset I^{(r-1)}$. If, however, I is not independent then some vertices might enter T for this reason, but provided I is sparse this will be a rare occurrence and T will still be small, as required. 2.4. Differences from previous algorithm. The container algorithm used in [40] was similar to the one here, except that the sets P_{r-1}, \ldots, P_1 were built consecutively by r-1 passes of the algorithm, rather than in parallel during one pass as here. In other words, P_s was constructed after P_{s+1} had been fully built. The construction of P_s produced a set T_s (in prune mode) and so the whole algorithm produced a tuple $(T_{r-1}, \ldots, T_1, T_0)$ rather than a single set T. However this is not the essential difference between the algorithms, since for the reason given in Remark 2.2 the tuple could have been replaced by the set $T_{r-1} \cup \cdots \cup T_1 \cup T_0$. (The set T_0 was defined to be $I \cap \Gamma_1$, which is incorporated into the set T in the present algorithm by means of the membership rule.)

The main difference between this and the previous algorithm is the condition for entry into Γ_s . In [40] the condition depended on knowledge of the whole of P_s . Here, it depends on $\theta_s(\sigma)$, which is available from the start of the algorithm. It is this that allows the sets P_s to be computed in parallel. These sets will not be exactly the same as those in [40] due to the difference in detail, but they will be similar.

3. Analysis of the algorithm

We now analyse the behaviour of the algorithm when using the strong threshold functions and when using the weak threshold functions, and so establish the bounds on $\mu(T)$ and $\mu(C)$ claimed in Theorems 1.1 and 1.2. In both cases, we need to obtain bounds on the degrees $d_s(u)$ of vertices. In the case of the strong form, which we begin with, the bounds obtained are the same as those in [40]. Fortunately this means we can then make direct use of the arguments used in [40] to bound $\mu(T)$ and $\mu(C)$, without repeating the details. In the case of the weak form, we derive corresponding bounds on the degrees $d_s(u)$, and then give proofs of bounds on $\mu(T)$ and $\mu(C)$ which follow from these. Note that, in the statements of the lemmas, $d_s(u)$ and $d_s(\sigma)$ refers to the final degrees in P_s , after the algorithm has completed.

The lemmas in this section all make claims about the output of the algorithm, given certain inputs. It is worth emphasising that the values of τ and ζ that appear in the lemmas are the values of the parameters which are input to the algorithm. In particular, we re-iterate the remark made just prior to Definition 2.4, that the threshold functions are evaluated during the initialisation phase of the algorithm, and the definitions of these functions is in terms of the parameter τ that is input to the algorithm. Consequently, the value of $\delta(G, \tau)$, mentioned in Lemma 3.3 where the strong threshold functions are being used, and the value of δ , appearing in the lemmas of §3.2 where the weak threshold functions are in use, are determined by the value of τ input to the algorithm. (The value of $\delta(G, \tau)$ is defined prior to Theorem 1.1, and the value of δ is defined by Definition 2.5.)

3.1. Strong thresholds and the proof of Theorem 1.1. The following fundamental lemma gives bounds on subset degrees in P_s .

Lemma 3.1. Let the algorithm be run using the strong threshold functions. Then for s = 2, ..., r and $2 \le |\sigma| \le s$, we have

$$d_s(\sigma) \le 2^{\binom{r}{2}} \tau^{r-s} \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-s} 2^{-\binom{s+\ell}{2}+\ell} \tau^{-\ell} d^{(|\sigma|+\ell)}(\sigma)$$

and for $2 \leq |\sigma| \leq s-1$ with $\sigma \in \Gamma_{s-1}$, we have

$$d_{s-1}(\sigma) \ge 2^{s-1} \tau d_s(\sigma) \,.$$

Remark 3.2. During the algorithm, σ is placed into Γ_s as soon as $d_s(\sigma)$ is at least $\theta_s(\sigma)$, and the degree will not thereafter increase. The degree can be greater than

 $\theta_s(\sigma)$ but the first inequality of the lemma shows that the excess over $\theta_s(\sigma)$ is not large. The second inequality, on the other hand, is one which was built into the original algorithm. The lemma shows that the inequality is valid in the present setup too, enabling us to copy over earlier proofs without change. The definition of $\theta_s(\sigma)$ was made with this in mind.

Proof. We prove the first inequality for $s = r, r - 1, \ldots, 2$ in order. For s = r the inequality asserts that $d_r(\sigma) \leq d^{(|\sigma|)}(\sigma)$, which is true. Suppose then that the corresponding inequality for $d_{s+1}()$ holds. If $\sigma \in \Gamma_s$ then σ entered Γ_s after some vertex v was inspected and the set $F_{v,s}$ was added to P_s . Before this addition, $d_s(\sigma) \leq \theta_s(\sigma)$ was true. The increase in $d_s(\sigma)$ resulting from the addition is the number of s-sets in $F_{v,s}$ that contain σ . By definition of $F_{v,s}$, these come from edges of P_{s+1} that contain both v and σ ; the number of these is at most $d_{s+1}(\{v\} \cup \sigma)$. The value of $d_s(\sigma)$ remains unchanged after the addition, and so at the end we have $d_s(\sigma) \leq \theta_s(\sigma) + d_{s+1}(\{v\} \cup \sigma)$ (for some v depending on σ). This inequality trivially holds if $\sigma \notin \Gamma_s$, and so it holds for all $\sigma \in [n]^{(\leq s)}$. The induction hypothesis supplies an upper bound for $d_{s+1}()$, and so, bearing in mind that $d^{(j)}(\{v\} \cup \sigma) \leq d^{(j)}(\sigma)$ for all j by definition, we obtain

$$\begin{split} d_{s}(\sigma) &\leq \theta_{s}(\sigma) + d_{s+1}(\{v\} \cup \sigma) \\ &\leq \theta_{s}(\sigma) + 2^{\binom{r}{2}} \tau^{r-s-1} \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-s-1} 2^{-\binom{s+1+\ell}{2} + \ell} \tau^{-\ell} d^{(|\sigma|+1+\ell)}(\{v\} \cup \sigma) \\ &\leq \theta_{s}(\sigma) + 2^{\binom{r}{2}} \tau^{r-s-1} \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-s-1} 2^{-\binom{s+1+\ell}{2} + \ell} \tau^{-\ell} d^{(|\sigma|+1+\ell)}(\sigma) \\ &= \theta_{s}(\sigma) + 2^{\binom{r}{2}} \tau^{r-s} \sum_{\ell=1}^{r-s} 2^{-\binom{s+\ell}{2} + \ell-1} \tau^{-\ell} d^{(|\sigma|+\ell)}(\sigma) \\ &= 2^{\binom{r}{2}} \tau^{r-s} \left(2^{-\binom{s}{2}} d(\sigma) + \sum_{\ell=1}^{r-s} 2^{-\binom{s+\ell}{2}} \left[1 + 2^{\ell-1} \right] \tau^{-\ell} d^{(|\sigma|+\ell)}(\sigma) \right) \\ &\leq 2^{\binom{r}{2}} \tau^{r-s} \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-s} 2^{-\binom{s+\ell}{2} + \ell} \tau^{-\ell} d^{(|\sigma|+\ell)}(\sigma) \,, \end{split}$$

since $1 + 2^{\ell-1} \leq 2^{\ell}$ for $\ell \geq 1$. This finishes the verification of the first inequality of the lemma.

To prove the second inequality, note that if $\sigma \in \Gamma_{s-1}$ then $d_{s-1}(\sigma) \ge \theta_{s-1}(\sigma)$, and so, using the first inequality, it is enough to show that

$$\theta_{s-1}(\sigma) \ge 2^{s-1}\tau 2^{\binom{r}{2}}\tau^{r-s} \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-s} 2^{-\binom{s+\ell}{2}+\ell}\tau^{-\ell} d^{(|\sigma|+\ell)}(\sigma)$$

holds, i.e., that

r

$$\sum_{\ell=0}^{r-s+1} 2^{-\binom{s-1+\ell}{2}} \tau^{-\ell} d^{(|\sigma|+\ell)}(\sigma) \ge 2^{s-1} \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-s} 2^{-\binom{s+\ell}{2}+\ell} \tau^{-\ell} d^{(|\sigma|+\ell)}(\sigma)$$

holds. For this, it suffices that $-\binom{s-1+\ell}{2} \ge s-1-\binom{s+\ell}{2}+\ell$ for $0 \le \ell \le r-s$. But this inequality holds identically, and the proof of the lemma is complete. \Box

Using Lemma 3.1 we can immediately prove the next lemma, which is identical to [40, Lemma 5.2] (apart from trivial changes of wording due to the different algorithm here).

Lemma 3.3. Let G be an r-graph on vertex set [n] with average degree d. Let $P_r = E(G)$ and let P_{r-1}, \ldots, P_1 be the multisets constructed during the algorithm using the strong threshold functions, either in build mode or in prune mode. Then

$$\sum_{u \in U} d_s(u) \le \left(\mu(U) + 4^{1-s}\delta(G,\tau)\right)\tau^{r-s} \, nd$$

holds for all subsets $U \subset [n]$ and for $1 \leq s \leq r$.

Proof. Let $u \in U$. Just as in the proof of Lemma 3.1, we have $d_s(u) \leq \theta_s(u) + d_{s+1}(\{v, u\})$ for some v. By the definition of $\theta_s(u)$, and by Lemma 3.1 applied to $\sigma = \{v, u\}$, we have

$$d_s(u) \le \tau^{r-s} d(u) + 2^{\binom{r}{2}} \tau^{r-s-1} \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-s-1} 2^{-\binom{s+1+\ell}{2}+\ell} \tau^{-\ell} d^{(2+\ell)}(\{v,u\}).$$

By definition we have $d^{(2+\ell)}(\{v,u\}) \leq d^{(2+\ell)}(u)$, and so

$$\sum_{u \in U} d_s(u) \leq \sum_{u \in U} \tau^{r-s} d(u) + 2^{\binom{r}{2}} \tau^{r-s-1} \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-s-1} 2^{-\binom{s+1+\ell}{2}+\ell} \tau^{-\ell} \sum_{u \in U} d^{(2+\ell)}(u)$$
$$= \tau^{r-s} \mu(U) nd + 2^{\binom{r}{2}-1} \tau^{r-s} \sum_{j=2}^{r-s+1} 2^{-\binom{s+j-2}{2}-s+1} \tau^{1-j} \sum_{u \in U} d^{(j)}(u)$$

Now $\tau^{1-j} \sum_{u \in U} d^{(j)}(u) \le \tau^{1-j} \sum_{u \in [n]} d^{(j)}(u) = \delta_j n d$. Therefore

$$\sum_{u \in U} d_s(u) \leq \tau^{r-s} \mu(U) nd + \tau^{r-s} nd \, 2^{\binom{r}{2}-1} \sum_{j=2}^{r-s+1} 2^{-\binom{s+j-2}{2}-s+1} \delta_j$$

= $\tau^{r-s} \mu(U) nd + \tau^{r-s} nd \, 2^{\binom{r}{2}-1} \sum_{j=2}^{r-s+1} 2^{-\binom{s-1}{2}-(s-1)j-\binom{j-1}{2}} \delta_j$
 $\leq \tau^{r-s} \mu(U) nd + 4^{1-s} \tau^{r-s} nd \, \delta(G, \tau)$

because $\binom{s-1}{2} + (s-1)j \ge 2(s-1)$, and this establishes the lemma.

We can now move quickly to complete the proof of Theorem 1.1. Consider a run of the algorithm in prune mode, for some set I. For $1 \leq s \leq r-1$, let T_s be the set of vertices $v \in I$ that satisfy $v \notin B$ and $|F_{v,s}| \ge \zeta \tau^{r-s-1} \overline{d(v)}$, and let T_0 comprise those $v \in I$ that satisfy $v \notin B$ and $v \in \Gamma_1$. Then $T = T_{r-1} \cup \cdots \cup T_1 \cup T_0$. The sets $T_{r-1}, \ldots, T_1, T_0$, which need not be disjoint, are almost identical to the ones so named in [40]; the properties of them that we need are identical, and they hold for identical reasons. So [40, Lemma 5.3] shows how the inequality $\mu(T_s) < 2\tau/\zeta$ for $s \ge 1$ is easily obtained; it is because each $v \in T_s$ contributes at least $\zeta \tau^{r-s-1} d(v)$ to $|P_s|$, whereas $|P_s| = (1/s) \sum_{u \in [n]} d_s(u)$, which is bounded by Lemma 3.1. (When applying the lemma, note that the conditions of Theorem 1.1 imply $\delta(G,\tau) < \zeta$, and we may assume that $\zeta < 1$, indeed that $\zeta < 1/4r!$, else the theorem is trivial.) Almost as direct is [40, Lemma 5.4], which shows $\mu(T_0) < 2\tau/\zeta$ under either of the sparsity constraints on G[I] stated at the end of Theorem 1.1 (recall that if I is independent then $T_0 = \emptyset$). The properties used are that if $v \in T_0$ then $d_1(v) \ge \tau^{r-1} d(v)$, because $v \in \Gamma_1$, and for each $\{v\} \in P_1$ there is some (r-1)-set $t \subset T$ with $t \cup \{v\} \in E(G[I])$. As already noted, the same properties hold here. Thus we have $\mu(T_s) \leq 2\tau/\zeta$ for all s, and so $\mu(T) < 2r\tau/\zeta$. This in turn implies $|T| < 2r\tau n/\zeta^2$, because $d(v) \geq \zeta d$ for every $v \in T$ as $v \notin B$. Consequently we obtain properties (b) and (c) of the theorem.

To obtain property (d), we refer to [40, Lemma 5.5], which bounds the degree measure of the containers produced by the algorithm there. Exactly the same bound

holds here, as we now explain. The argument there is a little intricate because of the desire to obtain a good bound on $\mu(C)$, but the whole of it is valid here. We need only point out some slight differences of notation. The sets $T_{r-1}, \ldots, T_1, T_0$ have already been mentioned. The container built from T, which here we have denoted C(T), is there denoted $C(G, T, \tau, \zeta)$. In [40], the set C_s is defined, for $1 \leq s \leq r-1$, to comprise B together with those vertices $v \notin B$ for which $|F_{v,s}| < \zeta \tau^{r-s-1} d(v)$ when the algorithm is run in build mode. We can define C_s in the same way here. Likewise C_0 is there defined to be $[n] - (\Gamma_1 \setminus B)$, and we do so here. Bearing in mind that $T = T_{r-1} \cup \cdots \cup T_1 \cup T_0$, we see that the container produced by the present algorithm is $C(T) = (C_{r-1} \cap \cdots \cap C_1 \cap C_0) \cup T_{r-1} \cup \cdots \cup T_1 \cup T_0$. The container $C(G, T, \tau, \zeta)$ in [40] is defined in precisely this way. The proof of [40, Lemma 5.5], which gives a bound on $\mu(C(G,T,\tau,\zeta))$, uses properties of C_{r-1},\ldots,C_1,C_0 and of $\Gamma_{r-1}, \ldots, \Gamma_1$, together with Lemma 3.3 (it makes no use of $T_{r-1}, \ldots, T_1, T_0$). The properties of $C_{r-1}, \ldots, C_1, C_0$ are precisely those just stated, so they hold too in the present context, as does Lemma 3.3. Finally, regarding $\Gamma_{r-1}, \ldots, \Gamma_1$, the properties used are that $d_s(v) \ge \tau^{r-s} d(v)$ if $v \in \Gamma_s$, which holds here by definition of $\theta_s(\{v\})$, and that $d_{s-1}(\sigma) \geq 2^{s-1}\tau d_s(\sigma)$ if $|\sigma| \geq 2$ and $\sigma \in \Gamma_{s-1}$, which holds here by Lemma 3.1. We conclude that the proof of [40, Lemma 5.5] carries over *verbatim* to give a bound on $\mu(C(T))$.

The main theorem of [40] is really just a summary of the bounds $\mu(C(G, T, \tau, \zeta))$ and on $\mu(T_{r-1}), \ldots, \mu(T_0)$, as pointed out at the end of [40, §5], and Theorem 1.1 follows in exactly the same way.

3.2. Weak thresholds and the proof of Theorem 1.2. We begin with analogues of Lemmas 3.1 and 3.3.

Lemma 3.4. Let the algorithm be run using the weak threshold functions. Then, for $1 \le s \le r$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} d_s(u) &\leq \tau^{r-s}(d(u) + r\delta d) & \text{for all } u \in [n], \text{ and} \\ d_s(\sigma) &\leq r\delta d\tau^{r-s+|\sigma|-1} & \text{for all } \sigma \subset [n], \ 2 &\leq |\sigma| \leq r. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. We prove the bounds by induction on r-s; in fact we show $d_s(\sigma) \leq (r-s+1)\delta d\tau^{r-s+|\sigma|-1}$ for $|\sigma| \geq 2$. For s = r the bounds hold by the definition of δ in Definition 2.5. Exactly as in the proof of Lemma 3.1, we have $d_s(\sigma) \leq \theta_s(\sigma) + d_{s+1}(\{v\} \cup \sigma)$ for some $v \notin \sigma$. So for $|\sigma| \geq 2$ we have, by applying the induction hypothesis to $\{v\} \cup \sigma$,

$$d_s(\sigma) \le \delta d\tau^{r-s+|\sigma|-1} + (r-s)\delta d\tau^{r-s-1+|\sigma|} = (r-s+1)\delta d\tau^{r-s+|\sigma|-1}$$

as claimed. For $\sigma = \{u\}$ we apply the induction hypothesis to $\sigma = \{v, u\}$ to obtain

$$d_s(u) \le \tau^{r-s} d(u) + (r-s)\delta d\tau^{r-s-1+2-1} \le \tau^{r-s} (d(u) + r\delta d)$$

again as claimed. This completes the proof.

Lemma 3.5. Let G be an r-graph on vertex set [n] with average degree d. Let $P_r = E(G)$ and let P_{r-1}, \ldots, P_1 be the multisets constructed during the algorithm using the weak threshold functions, either in build mode or in prune mode. Then

$$\sum_{u \in U} d_s(u) \le (\mu(U) + r\delta) \tau^{r-s} nd$$

holds for all subsets $U \subset [n]$ and for $1 \leq s \leq r$.

Proof. The inequalities

$$\sum_{u \in U} d_s(u) \le \sum_{u \in U} \tau^{r-s} (d(u) + r\delta d) \le (\mu(U) + r\delta) \tau^{r-s} nd$$

follow immediately from Lemma 3.4 and the definition of μ .

We now turn to bounds on T. The argument is essentially identical to the one in §3.1, which in turn is that in [40], but we give details for completeness.

Lemma 3.6. Let T be produced by the algorithm in prune mode, using weak threshold functions. Then $\mu(T \setminus \Gamma_1) \leq (r-1)(\tau/\zeta)(1+r\delta)$.

Proof. For $1 \leq s \leq r-1$, let $T_s = \{v \in T : |F_{v,s}| \geq \zeta \tau^{r-s-1} d(v)\}$. From the operation of the algorithm we see that $(T \setminus \Gamma_1) \subset T_1 \cup \cdots \cup T_{r-1}$ (the sets here need not be disjoint). For each s, the sets $F_{v,s}$ for $v \in T_s$ are added to P_s and, because P_s is a multiset, we obtain

$$\zeta \tau^{r-s-1} n d\mu(T_s) = \zeta \tau^{r-s-1} \sum_{v \in T_s} d(v) \le |P_s| = \frac{1}{s} \sum_{u \in [n]} d_s(u) \le \frac{1}{s} \tau^{r-s} n d(1+r\delta)$$

by Lemma 3.5 with U = [n]. Thus $\mu(T_s) \leq (\tau/\zeta)(1+r\delta)$, and $\mu(T \setminus \Gamma_1) \leq \mu(T_1) + \cdots + \mu(T_{r-1}) \leq (r-1)(\tau/\zeta)(1+r\delta)$.

Lemma 3.7. Let T be produced by the algorithm in prune mode, with input I and using weak threshold functions. If G[I] is $\lfloor (\zeta/r)\tau^{r-1}d \rfloor$ -degenerate, or if $e(G[I]) \leq (r/\zeta)\tau^r e(G)$, then $\mu(T \cap \Gamma_1) \leq (\tau/\zeta)(1 + r\delta)$.

Proof. Write $T_0 = T \cap \Gamma_1$. For each $v \in T_0$, $d_1(v) \ge \theta_1(v) = \tau^{r-1}d(v)$ holds because $v \in \Gamma_1$. We noted earlier, in §2.3, that each set $f \in P_s$ comes from some set $t \subset T$, |t| = r - s, such that $t \cup f \in E(G)$, and f comprises the last s vertices of the edge $t \cup f$. In particular, each set $\{v\}$ in the multiset P_1 comes from an edge $t \cup \{v\}$ where $t \subset T$ and v is the last vertex of $t \cup \{v\}$. So if $v \in T_0$ then the edge $t \cup \{v\}$ lies inside T. Moreover there are $d_1(v)$ such edges with last vertex v. Hence

$$\tau^{r-1} n d\mu(T_0) = \tau^{r-1} \sum_{v \in T_0} d(v) \le \sum_{v \in T_0} d_1(v) \le e(G[T]).$$

Consider first the case that G[I] is b-degenerate, where $b \leq (\zeta/r)\tau^{r-1}d$. Then $e(G[T]) \leq b|T|$, and thus $\tau^{r-1}nd\mu(T_0) \leq e(G[T]) \leq b|T| \leq (\zeta/r)\tau^{r-1}d|T|$, meaning $rnd\mu(T_0) \leq \zeta d|T|$. Now if $v \in T$ then v passes the membership rule and so $v \notin B$; consequently $d(v) \geq \eta d$, and hence $|T|\zeta d \leq \sum_{v \in T} d(v) = nd\mu(T)$. We thus have $rnd\mu(T_0) \leq \zeta d|T| \leq nd\mu(T)$, that is, $r\mu(T_0) \leq \mu(T)$. But $\mu(T) = \mu(T \cap \Gamma_1) + \mu(T \setminus \Gamma_1) = \mu(T_0) + \mu(T \setminus \Gamma_1)$. and so $(r-1)\mu(T_0) \leq \mu(T \setminus \Gamma_1)$. The bound $\mu(T_0) \leq (\tau/\zeta)(1+r\delta)$ now follows from Lemma 3.6.

Now consider the case that $e(G[I]) \leq (r/\zeta)\tau^r e(G) = \tau^r nd/\zeta$. Then we have directly that $\tau^{r-1}nd\mu(T_0) \leq e(G[T]) \leq e(G[I]) \leq \tau^r nd/\zeta$, so $\mu(T_0) \leq \tau/\zeta \leq (\tau/\zeta)(1+r\delta)$.

We come now to the bound on the measure $\mu(C)$ of the containers; this bound comes from the following lemma.

Lemma 3.8. Let C be the set produced by the algorithm in build mode, using weak thresholds. Let $D = ([n] - C) \cup T \cup B$. Define e_s by the equation $|P_s| = e_s \tau^{r-s} nd$ for $1 \leq s \leq r$. Then

$$e_{s+1} \le r2^s e_s + \mu(D) + \zeta + 2r\delta \qquad for \ r-1 \ge s \ge 2$$
$$e_{s+1} \le 2\mu(D) + \zeta + 3r\delta \qquad for \ s = 1.$$

Remark 3.9. Bounding $\mu(C)$ above is equivalent to bounding $\mu(D)$ from below. The lemma captures the spirit behind the algorithm, as discussed in [40], that either all P_s are large, in which case Γ_1 is substantial and so D is also (this is what lies behind the second inequality), or, for some s, P_{s+1} is large but P_s is small, which makes D substantial by the first inequality.

16

Proof. The way the algorithm builds C means that $T \cup B \subset C$. Let $C' = C - (T \cup B)$, so D = [n] - C'. Again, by the operation of the algorithm, if $v \in \Gamma_1 \setminus (T \cup B)$ then $v \notin C$, which means that $\Gamma_1 \subset D$.

For $v \in [n]$ let $f_{s+1}(v)$ be the number of sets in P_{s+1} for which v is the first vertex in the vertex ordering. Then

$$|P_{s+1}| = \sum_{v \in [n]} f_{s+1}(v) = \sum_{v \in C'} f_{s+1}(v) + \sum_{v \in D} f_{s+1}(v) \quad \text{for } 1 \le s < r.$$
(1)

By definition of $|F_{v,s}|$, of the $f_{s+1}(v)$ sets in P_{s+1} beginning with v, $f_{s+1}(v) - |F_{v,s}|$ of them contain some $\sigma \in \Gamma_s$. If $v \in C'$ then $v \notin \Gamma_1$, $v \notin B$ and $v \notin T$ and so, since $v \in C$, we have $|F_{v,s}| < \zeta \tau^{r-s-1} d(v)$. Therefore, writing $P\Gamma$ for the multiset of edges in P_{s+1} that contain some $\sigma \in \Gamma_s$, we have

$$\sum_{v \in C'} f_{s+1}(v) - \zeta \tau^{r-s-1} d(v) < |P\Gamma| \le \sum_{\sigma \in \Gamma_s} d_{s+1}(\sigma) \,. \tag{2}$$

By definition, if $\sigma \in \Gamma_s$ and $|\sigma| \geq 2$, then $d_s(\sigma) \geq \theta_s(\sigma) = \delta d\tau^{r-s+|\sigma|-1}$. Using Lemma 3.4, we then see that $d_{s+1}(\sigma) \leq r\delta d\tau^{r-s+|\sigma|-2} \leq (r/\tau)d_s(\sigma)$. Similarly, if $\sigma = \{u\} \in \Gamma_s$ then $d_s(\sigma) \geq \tau^{r-s}d(u)$ and $d_{s+1}(\sigma) \leq \tau^{r-s-1}(d(u) + r\delta d) \leq (1/\tau)d_s(\sigma) + r\delta d\tau^{r-s-1}$. Therefore, for $s \geq 2$, we obtain

$$\sum_{\sigma \in \Gamma_s} d_{s+1}(\sigma) \le \frac{r}{\tau} \sum_{\sigma \in \Gamma_s} d_s(\sigma) + \sum_{\{u\} \in \Gamma_s} r\delta d\tau^{r-s-1} \le \frac{r}{\tau} 2^s |P_s| + r\delta n d\tau^{r-s-1} \,. \tag{3}$$

For s = 1 the possibility $|\sigma| \ge 2$ does not arise, and we obtain

$$\sum_{\sigma \in \Gamma_s} d_{s+1}(\sigma) \leq \sum_{\{u\} \in \Gamma_1} \left(\frac{1}{\tau} d_1(u) + r\delta d\tau^{r-2} \right)$$

$$\leq \tau^{r-2} n d(\mu(\Gamma_1) + r\delta) + r\delta n d\tau^{r-2} \qquad \text{by Lemma 3.5}$$

$$< \tau^{r-2} n d\mu(D) + 2r\delta n d\tau^{r-2} \qquad \text{since } \Gamma_1 \subset D. \quad (4)$$

Finally, making use of (1) and (2) together with Lemma 3.5, we have

$$\begin{split} e_{s+1}\tau^{r-s-1}nd &= |P_{s+1}| = \sum_{v \in C'} f_{s+1}(v) + \sum_{v \in D} f_{s+1}(v) \\ &\leq \sum_{v \in C'} \zeta \tau^{r-s-1} d(v) + \sum_{\sigma \in \Gamma_s} d_{s+1}(\sigma) + \sum_{v \in D} d_{s+1}(v) \\ &\leq \zeta \tau^{r-s-1} nd + \sum_{\sigma \in \Gamma_s} d_{s+1}(\sigma) + \tau^{r-s-1} nd(\mu(D) + r\delta) \,, \end{split}$$

The bounds (3) and (4) for $\sum_{\sigma \in \Gamma_s} d_{s+1}(\sigma)$ now give the result claimed.

Proof of Theorem 1.2. We begin by choosing the constant c = c(r). Let $\gamma = (1/25)r^{-2r}2^{-r^2}$ and $c = \gamma^r$. Let G be as in the theorem and let τ be chosen so that (†) is satisfied. Let $\zeta = \sqrt{2r\gamma}$. For later use, we note $c \leq \gamma \leq \zeta/2r \leq 2r\zeta \leq 1$.

As might be expected, we prove the theorem by using the containers C and the sets T supplied by the algorithm, using the weak threshold functions. However, the input parameters we supply to the algorithm are not τ and ζ as just defined, but instead $\tau_* = \gamma \tau$ and ζ .

The reason for using slightly different parameters is to obtain as clean a statement of Theorem 1.2 as possible, subject to not worrying about the best value of c. For example, assertion (b) of the theorem states $\mu(T) \leq \tau$, whereas the corresponding assertion of Theorem 1.1 states $\mu(T) \leq 2r\tau/\zeta$. What, in effect, we achieve by using τ^* instead of τ is that we shall obtain $\mu(T) \leq 2r\tau^*/\zeta$, which (as we shall check) implies $\mu(T) \leq \tau$. In a similar manner, all the other constants that might otherwise appear in the statement of the theorem are absorbed into the small constant c. We therefore remind the reader that the values of τ and ζ appearing in the lemmas above are those values input to the algorithm. This was highlighted at the start of §3. Hence in the present case, where we are using inputs τ^* and ζ , the conclusions of the lemmas hold with τ^* in place of τ . Again, as highlighted earlier, the value of δ in the lemmas is that supplied by Definition 2.5 with τ^* in place of τ . Explicitly, δ is (by definition) minimal such that $d(\sigma) \leq \delta d\tau^{*(|\sigma|-1)}$ for all σ . Now τ was chosen to satisfy (†), so we know that $d(\sigma) \leq c d\tau^{(|\sigma|-1)}$. Since $c = \gamma^r$ this implies we know, for all σ , that $d(\sigma) \leq \gamma^r d\tau^{(|\sigma|-1)} \leq \gamma d\tau^{*(|\sigma|-1)}$, because $\gamma \leq 1$ and $|\sigma| \leq r$. Consequently, by the minimality of δ , we have $\delta \leq \gamma$.

What remains is to verify the claims of the theorem. Condition (a) follows from the general properties of the algorithm, as discussed in §2.1, and the online property follows too, as explained in Remark 2.1.

We know that either G[I] is $\lfloor c\tau^{r-1}d \rfloor$ -degenerate or $e(G[I]) \leq c\tau^r e(G)$. Now $c\tau^{r-1} = \gamma \tau_*^{r-1} \leq (\zeta/r)\tau_*^{r-1}$, and $c\tau^r = \tau_*^r \leq (r/\zeta)\tau_*^r$. Hence the conditions of Lemma 3.7 are satisfied. So, by Lemmas 3.6 and 3.7, $\mu(T) = \mu(T \setminus \Gamma_1) + \mu(T \cap \Gamma_1) \leq (r\tau_*/\zeta)(1+r\delta) \leq 2r\tau_*/\zeta = 2r\gamma\tau/\zeta = \zeta\tau$, easily establishing condition (b). Moreover $T \cap B = \emptyset$, so $|T|\zeta d \leq \sum_{v \in T} d(v) = nd\mu(T) \leq nd\zeta\tau$, giving condition (c). To show that condition (d) holds, note that $2r\delta \leq 2r\gamma \leq \zeta$, and so by Lemma 3.8

To show that condition (d) holds, note that $2r\delta \leq 2r\gamma \leq \zeta$, and so by Lemma 3.8 we comfortably have

$$e_{s+1} \le r2^s e_s + \mu(D) + 2\zeta \qquad \text{for } r-1 \ge s \ge 2$$
$$e_{s+1} \le 2\mu(D) + 4\zeta \qquad \text{for } s = 1.$$

Dividing the bound for e_{s+1} by $r^{s+1}2^{\binom{s+1}{2}}$ and adding over $s = 1, \ldots, r-1$, we obtain

$$\frac{e_r}{r^r 2^{\binom{r}{2}}} \le (\mu(D) + 2\zeta) \left\{ \frac{1}{r^2} + \frac{1}{r^3} \frac{1}{2^3} + \frac{1}{r^4} \frac{1}{2^6} + \cdots \right\} \le (\mu(D) + 2\zeta) \frac{2}{r^2} \,.$$

Recall that $e_r nd = |P_r| = e(G) = nd/r$ so $e_r = 1/r$. Hence $\mu(D) + 2\zeta \ge r^{-r}2^{-\binom{r}{2}} = 5\gamma^{1/2}2^{r/2} \ge 5\zeta$. So $\mu(D) \ge 3\zeta$. By definition, $D = [n] - (C - (T \cup B))$. Thus $\mu(C) \le 1 - \mu(D) + \mu(T) + \mu(B)$. We showed previously that $\mu(T) \le \zeta\tau$, so $\mu(T) \le \zeta$ because $\tau \le 1$. Moreover $\mu(B) \le \zeta$ by definition of B. Therefore $\mu(C) \le 1 - 3\zeta + \zeta + \zeta = 1 - \zeta \le 1 - c$, completing the proof. \Box

We finish with a proof of Corollary 1.3.

Proof of Corollary 1.3. Write c_* for the constant c(r) from Theorem 1.2. We prove the corollary with $c = \epsilon \ell^{-r} c_*$, where $\ell = \lceil (\log \epsilon) / \log(1 - c_*) \rceil$. Let G, I and τ be as stated in the corollary. We shall apply Theorem 1.2 several times. Each time we apply the theorem, we do so with with $\tau_* = \tau/\ell$ in place of τ , with the same I, but with different graphs G, as follows (we leave it till later to check that the necessary conditions always hold). Given I, apply the theorem to find $T_1 \subset I$ and $I \subset C_1 = C(T_1)$, where $|T_1| \leq \tau_* n$ and $\mu(C_1) \leq 1 - c_*$. It is easily shown that $e(G[C_1]) \leq \mu(C_1)e(G) \leq (1 - c_*)e(G)$ (this is [40, inequality (1)]). Now I is sparse in the graph $G[C_1]$ so apply the theorem again, to the r-graph $G[C_1]$, to find $T_2 \subset I$ and a container $I \subset C_2$. We have $|T_2| \leq \tau_* |C_1|$, and $e(G[C_2]) \leq (1 - c_*)e(G[C_1]) \leq (1 - c_*)^2 e(G)$. By Remark 2.2, we note that, in the first application, the algorithm in build mode would have constructed C_1 from input $T_1 \cup T_2$, and would likewise have constructed C_2 from input $T_1 \cup T_2$ in the second application. Thus C_2 is a function of $T_1 \cup T_2$. We repeat this process k times until we obtain the desired container $C = C_k$ with $e(G[C]) \leq \epsilon e(G)$. Since $e(G[C]) \leq (1-c_*)^k e(G)$ this occurs with $k \leq \ell$. Put $T = T_1 \cup \cdots \cup T_k$. Then C is a function of $T \subset I$.

We must check that the requirements of Theorem 1.2 are fulfilled at each application. Observe that, if d_j is the average degree of $G[C_j]$ for j < k, then $|C_j|d_j = re(G[C_j]) > ree(G) = end$, and since $|C_j| \leq n$ we have $d_j \geq ed$. The conditions of Corollary 1.3 mean that $d(\sigma) \leq cd\tau^{|\sigma|-1} = e\ell^{-r}c_*d\tau^{|\sigma|-1} < c_*d_j\tau_*^{|\sigma|-1}$; since the degree of σ in $G[C_j]$ is at most $d(\sigma)$, this means that (\dagger) is satisfied every time Theorem 1.2 is applied.

Observe that, because $d_j \geq \epsilon d$, $e(G[C_j]) > \epsilon e(G)$ and $c = \epsilon \ell^{-r} c_*$, then G[I] is $\lfloor c_* \tau_*^{r-1} d_j \rfloor$ -degenerate if it is $\lfloor c \tau^{r-1} d \rfloor$ -degenerate, and $e(G[I]) \leq c_* \tau_*^r e(G[C_j])$ if $e(G[I]) \leq c \tau^r e(G)$. Therefore the theorem is being applied correctly each time.

Finally condition (c) of the theorem implies $|T_j| \leq \tau_* |C_j| \leq \tau_* n = \tau n/\ell$, and so $|T| \leq k\tau n/\ell \leq \tau n$, giving condition (b) of the corollary and completing the proof.

4. Linear equations

Recall from §1.3 the definitions of a linear system (F, A, b), of ex(F, A, b), of full rank and of abundant.

Often one wishes to discount solutions to an equation Ax = b where the vector x contains repeated values. For example, in forbidding a 3-term arithmetic progression, we take A = (1, 1, -2) and b = (0) and discount solutions of the form x + x - 2x = 0. To accommodate this setup, we let $Z \subset F^r$ be a set of discounted solutions. We then call (F, A, b, Z) a $k \times r$ linear system. A solution to this system is a vector $x \in F^r - Z$ such that Ax = b, and a set $I \subset F$ is solution-free if there is no $x \in I^r - Z$ such that Ax = b.

In order to state the main theorem about linear systems, we need to define the following parameter, following Rödl and Ruciński [31].

Definition 4.1. If F is a finite field or [N], and A is an abundant $k \times r$ matrix over F, then we define

$$m_F(A) = \max_{J \subset [r], |J| \ge 2} \frac{|J| - 1}{|J| - 1 + \operatorname{rank}(A_J) - k}$$

where the matrix A_J is the $k \times (r-|J|)$ submatrix of A obtained by deleting columns indexed by J. If F is an abelian group, and A is an abundant $k \times r$ integer matrix, then let t be the maximum value of j for which A_J has full rank whenever |J| = j, and define

$$m_F(A) = \frac{k+t-1}{t-1}.$$

It can readily be checked that if A is abundant then the denominators appearing in the definition of $m_F(A)$ are strictly positive. The separate definition of $m_F(A)$ when F is an abelian group is necessary since the rank of an integer matrix over an abelian group is not well-defined; in general, when the pair (F, A) could either be considered a finite field or an abelian group with A integer valued, the value of the second definition is at least as big as the value of the first definition. This is since rank $(A_J) = k$ when $|J| \leq t$, and is otherwise at least max $\{0, k + t - |J|\}$.

From our point of view, the parameter $m_F(A)$ plays a role for solution-free sets very similar to the role that the parameter m(H) plays for H-free graphs. Our main theorem here about linear systems, Theorem 4.2, gives containers for solution-free subsets, and the number of containers depends on $m_F(A)$; in like manner, our main theorem about H-free graphs, [40, Theorem 2.3], gives containers for H-free graphs and the number of them depends on m(H). All our further results about linear systems, for example Theorem 4.8 about sparse systems, are applications of Theorem 4.2, in the same way that all the results in [40] about H-free graphs, such as [40, Theorem 2.12] for sparse graphs, are applications of [40, Theorem 2.3]. To understand why the parameter m(H) takes the form it does, it is easiest to look at the application to sparse graphs, where a simple argument shows that [40, Theorem 2.12] is best possible, and so, by implication, the number of containers in [40, Theorem 2.3] must depend on m(H). To illuminate the form of the parameter $m_F(A)$, a similar argument can be put forward for sparse linear systems, showing that Theorem 4.8 is best possible. However, it does not apply in every case, because sometimes extra conditions are needed (discussed by Rödl and Ruciński [31]). Fortunately, these extra conditions play no part in Theorem 4.2.

The argument is as follows. Assume, for simplicity, that the system is Ax = 0and that F is a finite field. We show that, when a random subset $X \subset F$ is selected by choosing elements each with probability p, and p is substantially smaller than $|F|^{-1/m_F(A)}$, then there is (almost surely) a solution-free subset $X^* \subset X$ which is nearly as large as X. In this sense Theorem 4.8 is best possible. Let A_J be a maximizing submatrix in the definition of $m_F(A)$ and let B_J be the $k \times |J|$ submatrix deleted from A to form A_J . Write $\langle A_J \rangle$, $\langle B_J \rangle$ for the spaces spanned by the columns of A_J , B_i respectively, and let their dimensions be $\alpha = \operatorname{rank}(A_J)$ and $\beta = \operatorname{rank}(B_J)$. Let $W = \langle A_J \rangle \cap \langle B_J \rangle$. Since the sum $\langle A_J \rangle + \langle B_J \rangle$ is the space spanned by the columns of the full rank matrix A, it has dimension k, and so $\dim(W) = \alpha + \beta - k$. For each $x \in F^r$, let x' be its projection onto the coordinates indexed by J. If Ax = 0 then $B_J x' \in \langle A_J \rangle$, and so $B_J x' \in W$. For each vector $w \in W$ there are at most $|F|^{|J|-\beta}$ solutions x' to $B_J x' = w$ (see Fact 4.4), so if $V = \{x' : Ax = 0\}$ then $|V| \leq |F|^{|J|-\beta}|W| = |F|^{|J|-\beta+\dim(W)} = |F|^{|J|+\alpha-k}$. Let X be chosen randomly as just described, with p much smaller than $|F|^{-1/m_F(A)}$. Then |X| will likely be near p|F|, and the number of vectors $x' \in V$ lying within X^k is unlikely to be much larger than $p^{|J|}|F^{|J|+\alpha-k}$. Since $m_F(A) = (|J|-1)/(|J|-1+\alpha-k)$, this number is much smaller than $|X| \approx p|F|$, and by removing from X an element of each such x', we obtain a subset $X^* \subset X$, with $|X^*|$ close to |X|, such that X^* contains no solution x' with $B_J x' \in W$ and so X^* is solution-free for the system Ax = 0.

After all these preliminaries, we now state the main theorem on linear systems.

Theorem 4.2. Let (F, A, b, Z) be a $k \times r$ linear system with A abundant and $|Z| \leq |F|^{r-k}/2$. Given $\epsilon > 0$ there is a constant c, depending on A, ϵ in the case F = [N], and depending only on k, r, ϵ otherwise, such that if $|F| \geq c$ then there exists $C \subset \mathcal{P}F$ satisfying

- (a) for every solution-free subset $I \subset F$ there exists $T \subset I$ such that $I \subset C = C(T) \in \mathcal{C}$, and $|T| \leq c|F|^{1-1/m_F(A)}$,
- (b) for every $C \in C$, the number of solutions to Ax = b with $x \in C^r Z$ is at most $\epsilon |F|^{r-k}$,
- (c) $\log |\mathcal{C}| \leq c|F|^{1-1/m_F(A)} \log |F|.$

The theorem is just a straightforward consequence of Corollary 1.3. It is necessary only to construct a suitable hypergraph that encodes solutions to the linear system, and then to check its parameters so that the corollary can be applied. The hypergraph in question is the following.

Definition 4.3. Let (F, A, b, Z) be a $k \times r$ linear system. The *r*-partite *r*-graph G = G(F, A, b, Z) has vertex set $V(G) = X_1 \cup \cdots \cup X_r$, where the X_i s are disjoint copies of F, and edge set $E(G) = \{x = (x_1, \ldots, x_r) \in X_1 \times \cdots \times X_r - Z : Ax = b\}$.

In order to apply Corollary 1.3 to G(F, A, b, Z) we need to estimate the quantities $d(\sigma)$, which we now proceed to do.

Fact 4.4. Let F be a finite field or abelian group, let A be a $k \times \ell$ matrix and let $b \in F^k$. If A has full rank then there are $|F|^{\ell-k}$ solutions to Ax = b. More generally if F is a finite field, there are at most $|F|^{\ell-\operatorname{rank}(A)}$ solutions to Ax = b.

Proof. If A has full rank, then for every $b_1, b_2 \in F^k$ there exists $x \in F^\ell$ with $Ax = b_2 - b_1$. Thus if x_1 is a solution to $Ax_1 = b_1$ then $A(x_1 + x) = b_2$, so by symmetry every $b \in F^k$ has $|F|^\ell / |F|^k$ solutions to Ax = b. The case when F is a finite field is standard.

Lemma 4.5. Let (F, A, b, Z) be a $k \times r$ linear system where F is a finite field or an abelian group, A is an abundant matrix and $|Z| \leq |F|^{r-k}/2$. Let G = G(F, A, b, Z), $\gamma \leq 1$ and $\tau = |F|^{-1/m_F(A)}/\gamma$. Then $d(\sigma) \leq 2\gamma d\tau^{|\sigma|-1}$ holds for every $\sigma \subset V(G)$ with $2 \leq |\sigma| \leq r$, where d is the average degree of G.

Proof. The number of edges in G is the number of solutions to Ax = b not in Z. The matrix A has full rank, so by Fact 4.4 the number of edges of G is $|F|^{r-k} - |Z| \ge |F|^{r-k}/2$. Since G has r|F| vertices, its average degree d satisfies $d \ge |F|^{r-k-1}/2$.

Let $\sigma \subset V(G)$ where $2 \leq |\sigma| \leq r$. Put $j = |\sigma|$. If σ contains two vertices in the same part X_i then there are no edges containing σ . Otherwise, we may suppose that $\sigma = \{y_1, \ldots, y_j\}$, where $y_{\ell} \in X_{i_{\ell}}$ for $\ell = 1, \ldots, j$. Let $J = \{i_1, \ldots, i_j\}$. Then $d(\sigma)$ is at most the number of solutions to Ax = b with $x_{i_{\ell}} = y_{\ell}$ for $\ell = 1, \ldots, j$, and there is some $b^* \in F^k$ for which this is the number of solutions $x^* \in F^{r-j}$ to $A_J x^* = b^*$. We now split the proof into two cases depending on whether F is a finite field or an abelian group.

When F is an abelian group: Recall Definition 4.1, and in particular that $m_F(A) = (k + t - 1)/(t - 1)$. Write $f = |F|^{-1/m_F(A)}$, so $\tau = f/\gamma$. Note that $|F|f \ge 1$. If $j \le t$ then A_J has full rank by assumption, and so Fact 4.4 implies the number of solutions is at most $|F|^{r-j-k}$. Hence for $2 \le j \le t$ we have

$$\frac{d(\sigma)}{d\tau^{|\sigma|-1}} \le 2|F|^{r-j-k-(r-k-1)}\tau^{1-j} = 2|F|^{1-j}\tau^{1-j} = 2\gamma^{j-1}(|F|f)^{1-j} \le 2\gamma,$$

since $\gamma \leq 1$ and $|F|f \geq 1$. When $t+1 \leq j \leq t+k$, we can say $d(\sigma) \leq d(\sigma')$ for some $\sigma' \subset \sigma$ with $|\sigma'| = t$, so

$$\frac{d(\sigma)}{d\tau^{|\sigma|-1}} \le \frac{d(\sigma')}{d\tau^{j-1}} \le 2|F|^{1-t}\tau^{1-j} \le 2\gamma|F|^{1-t}f^{1-j} \le 2\gamma|F|^{1-t}f^{1-t-k} = 2\gamma,$$

here using $\gamma \leq 1$ and the definition of f. When $t + k < j \leq r$, the crude bound $d(\sigma) \leq |F|^{r-j}$ (recall we are counting solutions $x^* \in F^{r-j}$) is enough. Using $\gamma \leq 1$ and $|F|f \geq 1$ we have

$$\frac{d(\sigma)}{d\tau^{|\sigma|-1}} \le 2|F|^{r-j-(r-k-1)}\tau^{1-j} \le 2\gamma|F|^k(|F|f)^{1-j} < 2\gamma|F|^k(|F|f)^{1-t-k} = 2\gamma.$$

Therefore $d(\sigma)/d\tau^{|\sigma|-1} \leq 2\gamma$ for all j, as claimed.

When F is a finite field: By Fact 4.4 the number of solutions to $A_J x^* = b^*$ is at most $|F|^{r-j-\operatorname{rank}(A_J)}$. Hence

$$d(\sigma) \le \max_{J \subset [r], |J|=j} |F|^{r-j-\operatorname{rank}(A_J)}.$$

Using $\tau = \gamma^{-1} |F|^{-1/m_F(A)}$ and $\gamma \leq 1$, this implies that

$$\frac{d(\sigma)}{d\tau^{|\sigma|-1}} \le 2\gamma \max_{J \subset [r], |J|=j} |F|^{1-j+k-\operatorname{rank}(A_J)+(j-1)/m_F(A)}.$$

The exponent is at most 0 by definition of $m_F(A)$, so $d(\sigma)/d\tau^{|\sigma|-1} \leq 2\gamma$.

Proof of Theorem 4.2. We may assume that F is a finite field or abelian group. Indeed, [N] can be embedded into the finite field \mathbb{Z}_p for a sufficiently large prime p. Taking p in the range $4k!|A|^kN \leq p \leq 8k!|A|^kN$, where |A| is the sum of the absolute values of the entries of A, guarantees that A is still abundant in \mathbb{Z}_p and that a solution to $Ax = b \pmod{p}$ is also a solution to $Ax = b \pmod{p}$, say, $|b_i| \leq p/2$; but we may assume this since otherwise there are no solutions to Ax = b in [N]). Then the result of this theorem for (\mathbb{Z}_p, A, b, Z) implies the result for ([N], A, b, Z), since p/N is bounded by a constant depending only on A.

Let $c' = c(r, \epsilon)$ be the constant asserted by Corollary 1.3. Choose $\gamma \leq 1$ so that $2\gamma \leq c'$, and put $c = \max\{(1/\gamma)^k, 2r/\gamma\}$. We claim this c works in the theorem.

To see this, apply the corollary to the r-graph G = G(F, A, b, Z), with $\tau = |F|^{-1/m_F(A)}/\gamma$. If $|F| \ge c$ then $|F| \ge (1/\gamma)^{m_F(A)}$ and so $\tau \le 1$. By Lemma 4.5, the requirements of Corollary 1.3 are then satisfied. So we obtain a collection of sets \mathcal{D} covering the independent sets of G. For $D \in \mathcal{D}$, let $\pi_i(D) = D \cap X_i \subset F$ be the part of D in the *i*th copy of F and let

$$\mathcal{C} = \{C_D : D \in \mathcal{D}\} \subset \mathcal{P}F \qquad \text{where } C_D = \pi_1(D) \cap \cdots \cap \pi_r(D).$$

We claim that \mathcal{C} satisfies the conditions of the theorem.

Condition (a): consider a solution-free set $I \,\subset F$. The subset J of V(G) formed by taking a copy of I in each X_i is an independent set in G. In particular, it is contained in some $D \in \mathcal{D}$, hence $I \subset C_D$. Moreover, there exists a set $T' \subset J$, such that D = D(T') and $|T'| \leq \tau |G|$. Let $T = \pi_1(T') \cup \cdots \cup \pi_r(T')$; then $|T| \leq |T'| \leq (r/\gamma)|F|^{1-1/m_F(A)} < c|F|^{1-1/m_F(A)}$. Now let S' be the subset of V(G) formed by taking a copy of T in each X_i ; clearly T determines S'. By definition of J we have $T \subset I$ and $T' \subset S' \subset J$. By Remark 2.2, which describes the iterative process leading from Theorem 1.2 to Corollary 1.3, we know that D(S') = D(T') = D, and therefore T determines C_D . This verifies condition (a).

Condition (b): consider $C \in \mathcal{C}$. Each solution to Ax = b with $x \in C^r - Z$ corresponds to an edge of G[D], of which there are at most $\epsilon e(G) = \epsilon |F|^{r-k}$.

Condition (c): putting $q = (r/\gamma)|F|^{1-1/m_F(A)}$, so $|T| \leq q$, we have $|\mathcal{C}| \leq \sum_{t \leq q} |F|^t \leq (q+1)|F|^q < |F|^{2q}$. Thus $\log |\mathcal{C}| \leq 2q \log |F| \leq c|F|^{1-1/m_F(A)} \log |F|$, completing the proof.

4.1. Supersaturation. Condition (b) of Theorem 4.2 provides containers C that contain few solutions. Our applications require a bound on |C| itself. We obtain such a bound from condition (b) via the notion of supersaturation, as given in Definition 1.7. The name is taken from the supersaturation theorem of Erdős and Simonovits [14], which proves a similar property for hypergraphs and other discrete structures by a simple averaging argument.

For some linear systems (F, A, b) it is possible to prove supersaturation by an averaging argument of this kind. For example, consider arithmetic progressions of length ℓ in F = [N]; these are solutions to Ax = 0 for some $((\ell - 2) \times \ell)$ -matrix A. Szeméredi's theorem [46] shows that ex(F, A, 0) = o(|F|), from which Varnavides [49] derived (for l = 3, but it works in general) that $|X| < \epsilon N$ if $X \subset [N]$ contains fewer than $\delta(\epsilon)N^2$ arithmetic progressions. That is, (F, A, 0) is f-supersaturated for some null f not depending on F.

Such a simple averaging argument does not usually work, and we might then turn to a removal lemma. This is stronger than the supersaturation condition: it says that if $X \subset F$ contains at most $\eta |F|^{r-k}$ solutions to Ax = b then there is a subset $X' \subset X$, $|X'| < \epsilon |F|$, such that X - X' is solution-free. The archetype for such lemmas is the Triangle Removal Lemma of Ruzsa and Szemerédi [33].

Green [18] proved a removal lemma for single linear equations over abelian groups. He conjectured a similar lemma for systems over a finite field, which was proved by Shapira [43] and by Král', Serra and Vena [25]. These proofs use removal lemmas for hypergraphs such as those of Austin and Tao [5], Gowers [16], Nagle, Rödl and Schacht [29] and Tao [47]. In fact, Szegedy [45] pointed out that, subject to certain symmetry conditions, hypergraph removal lemmas can lead directly to algebraic removal lemmas. Král', Serra and Vena [26] also give a version for systems over abelian groups. The statement involves the *determinantal* of a $k \times r$ integer matrix, which is the greatest common divisor of the determinants of its $k \times k$ submatrices; note that if A has determinantal coprime to |F| then in particular A has full rank. We do not quote the removal lemma exactly, but rather its consequence for supersaturation.

Proposition 4.6 (Král', Serra and Vena [25, 26]). Let $k, r \in \mathbb{N}$. Then there is a null function $f : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ such that, if (F, A, b) is a $k \times r$ linear system where F is a finite field or abelian group and A has full rank, and if further A has determinantal coprime to |F| in the case that F is an abelian group, then (F, A, b)is f-supersaturated.

We thus have a wide class of f-supersaturated linear systems where f depends only on k and r.

4.2. A couple of applications. We begin with a strengthened version of Theorem 1.8 which takes into account a set Z of discounted solutions.

Theorem 4.7. Let $k, r \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $f : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ be null. Let (F, A, b, Z) be a $k \times r$ linear system with A abundant and (F, A, b) f-supersaturated. Given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $c = c(k, r, f, \epsilon)$ (or $c = c(A, f, \epsilon)$ in the case F = [N]) and $\eta = \eta(f, \epsilon) > 0$, such that, if |F| > c and $|Z| < \eta |F|^{r-k}$, then the number of solution-free subsets of F is $2^{\exp(F,A,b)+\lambda|F|}$, where $0 \le \lambda < \epsilon$.

Proof. There is a set of size ex(F, A, b) containing no solution to the system (F, A, b) and therefore certainly no solution to the system (F, A, b, Z). Every subset of this set is a solution-free subset for the system (F, A, b, Z), so we obtain $2^{ex(F,A,b)}$ such subsets. This proves $\lambda \geq 0$.

To obtain the upper bound $\lambda < \epsilon$, let $\eta > 0$ be such that $f(2\eta) < \epsilon/2$, which exists because f is null. Let c be the constant supplied by Theorem 4.2 when η is used in place of ϵ . Then (F, A, b, Z) satisfies the conditions of the theorem (we can of course assume $\eta < 1/2$) so we obtain a collection C of containers for the solution-free subsets.

By increasing c if necessary, condition (c) of the theorem implies $\log |\mathcal{C}| \leq (\epsilon/2)|F|\log 2$ (because $1/m_F(A) > 0$). Thus $|\mathcal{C}| \leq 2^{(\epsilon/2)|F|}$.

Let $C \in \mathcal{C}$. By condition (b), the number of solutions in C^r to the system (F, A, b) is at most $\eta |F|^{r-k} + |Z| < 2\eta |F|^{r-k}$. Since (F, A, b) is *f*-supersaturated, the definition of η means that $|C| \leq \exp(F, A, b) + (\epsilon/2)|F|$.

The total number of solution-free subsets is at most $|\mathcal{C}|2^{\max_{C \in \mathcal{C}} |C|}$. The inequalities just proved mean this is at most $2^{\exp(F,A,b)+\epsilon|F|}$, as claimed.

If A is not abundant, then the conclusion of Theorem 1.8 need not hold. For example, let A = (1, 1), b = (0), and consider the cyclic group C_n for n odd. Observe that the pairs (x, y) such that x + y = 0 and $x \neq y$ partition $C_n \setminus \{0\}$. Therefore $\exp(C_n, A, b) = (n + 1)/2$. However, one can construct a solution-free set by including either x or y or neither for each pair (x, y), so there are at least $3^{(n-1)/2}$ solution-free sets. There are similar examples with larger values of k and r > k + 2.

Additionally, when F = [N], the condition that A is fixed as $|F| = N \to \infty$ is necessary. For example, for the equation w + x + (10N)y - (10N)z = N, the maximum size of a solution-free subset of [N] is N/2 (since for every pair $w, x \in [N]$ with w + x = N, a solution-free set can include at most one of w or x), but there are at least $3^{(N-1)/2}$ solution free sets, since for every $w, x \in [N]$ with w + x = Nand $w \neq x$, we can include either w or x or neither to form a solution-free set.

We now turn to solution-free subsets within randomly chosen subsets $X \subset F$, as mentioned in §1.3. Here is the main result.

Theorem 4.8. Let $k, r \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $f : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ be null. Let (F, A, b, Z) be a $k \times r$ linear system with A abundant and (F, A, b) f-supersaturated. Given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $c = c(k, r, f, \epsilon)$ (or $c = c(A, f, \epsilon)$ in the case F = [N]) and $\eta = \eta(f, \epsilon) > 0$, such that, if |F| > c and $|Z| < \eta |F|^{r-k}$, $p \ge c|F|^{-1/m_F(A)}$, and $X \subset F$ is a random subset with each element included independently with probability p, then the following event holds with probability greater than $1 - \exp\{-\epsilon^3 p|F|/512\}$:

every solution-free subset has at most $p(ex(F, A, b) + \epsilon |F|)$ elements.

As sketched earlier, when F is a finite field the condition $p \ge c|F|^{-1/m_F(A)}$ in Theorem 4.8 is tight up to the value of the constant c appearing, at least under some mild restrictions on (F, A, b, Z). See Rödl and Ruciński [31] for more detail.

To prove Theorem 4.8 we use the following probabilistic lemma from [40]. A very straightforward expectation argument applied to Theorem 4.2 will give Theorem 4.8 with just a slightly worse bound on p, namely $p \ge c|F|^{-1/m_F(A)} \log |F|$; the point of the next lemma is that it allows us to take advantage of condition (a) of Theorem 4.2, namely that $T \subset I$, to remove the extra log factor and obtain a best possible result. The lemma is stated in a generality that is not needed for the present application, but we quote it as it appears in [40], apart from replacing a tuple $(T_1, \ldots, T_{s'})$ by a single set T. The proof of the lemma is just a combination of a Chernoff bound and the union bound.

Lemma 4.9 ([40, Lemma 10.3]). Given $0 < \nu < 1$ there is a constant $\phi = \phi(\nu)$ such that the following holds. Let L be a set, |L| = n, and let $\mathcal{I} \subset \mathcal{P}L$. Let $t \ge 1$, let $\phi t/n \le p \le 1$ and let $\nu n/2 \le d \le n$. Suppose for each $I \in \mathcal{I}$ there exists both $T_I \subset I$ and $D = D(T_I) \subset L$, such that $|T_I| \le t$ and $|D(T_I)| \le d$. Let $X \subset L$ be a random subset where each element is chosen independently with probability p. Then

 $\mathbb{P}(|D(T_I) \cap X| > (1+\nu)pd \text{ for some } I \subset X, I \in \mathcal{I}) \le \exp\{-\nu^2 pd/32\}.$

Proof of Theorem 4.8. Let L = F and let \mathcal{I} be the set of solution-free sets for the system (F, A, b, Z). Let $\eta > 0$ be such that $f(2\eta) < \epsilon/4$, which exists because f is null. Let c' be the constant supplied by Theorem 4.2 when η is used in place of ϵ . Then (F, A, b, Z) satisfies the the conditions of the theorem (assuming as ever that $\eta < 1/2$) so we obtain a collection \mathcal{C} of containers for \mathcal{I} . For $I \in \mathcal{I}$, let $T = T_I, C = C(T)$ be as given by the theorem. Our aim is to apply Lemma 4.9 with D(T) = C(T) and

$$\nu = \epsilon/2, \quad d = \exp(F, A, b) + \epsilon |F|/4, \quad t = c'|F|^{1-1/m_F(A)}.$$

Note that, by condition (b) of Theorem 4.2, for each C = C(T), $C^r - Z$ has at most $\eta |F|^{r-k}$ solutions to Ax = b, and so C^r has at most $2\eta |F|^{r-k}$ solutions, and hence $|C(T)| \leq d$ holds by the supersaturation property. Condition (a) implies $|T_I| \leq t$. The conditions of Lemma 4.9 then hold with n = |F|, noting that $d \geq \nu n/2$ and that $p \geq c|F|^{-1/m_F(A)} \geq \phi t/n$ if c is large enough. Finally, note that each solution-free set $I \in \mathcal{I}$ is contained in $C(T_I)$ and $(1 + \nu)pd \leq p(\operatorname{ex}(F, A, b) + \epsilon|F|)$, so the concluding inequality of the lemma means that the property of the theorem fails with probability bounded by

$$\exp\{-\nu^2 p d/32\} \le \exp\{-\epsilon^3 p |F|/512\},\$$

completing the proof.

Proof of Theorem 1.9. Let ([N], A, b, Z) be the $(\ell - 2) \times \ell$ linear system corresponding to forbidding an ℓ -term arithmetic progression in [N]. For example if $\ell = 3$ then A = (1, 1, -2), b = (0) and Z is the set of solutions of the form x + x - 2x = 0that are discounted, so |Z| = N. As mentioned in §4.1, Varnavides' theorem shows this system is f-supersaturated for some f not depending on N. It can readily be

checked that $m_{[N]}(A) = \ell - 1$. Since ex(F, A, b) = o(N), the result immediately follows by applying Theorem 4.8.

5. Sidon sets

In this section we prove Theorem 1.10. We begin with the simple construction giving the lower bound.

Proof of Theorem 1.10, lower bound. Suppose that n = 4p(p-1) for some prime p. Ruzsa [32] shows that there is a set $S \subset [p(p-1)]$ of size p-1 such that every sum of two elements of S is distinct modulo p(p-1). Thus for any $U_1, U_2, U_3, U_4 \subset S$ satisfying $U_i \cap U_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$, the set

$$U_1 \cup (U_2 + p(p-1)) \cup (U_3 + 2p(p-1)) \cup (U_4 + 3p(p-1))$$

is a Sidon subset of [4p(p-1)], where $V + x := \{v + x : v \in V\}$. This gives $5^{p-1} = \sqrt{5}^{(1+o(1))\sqrt{n}} > 2^{(1.16+o(1))\sqrt{n}}$ Sidon subsets of [n] = [4p(p-1)]. The general case follows by embedding [4p(p-1)] into [n], where p is the largest prime such that 4p(p-1) < n, and using the fact that the ratio of successive primes tends to 1. (We note that any construction for large modular Sidon sets could have been used here; this includes the classical constructions of Singer [44] and of Bose [8].)

To prove the upper bound we construct, in the natural way, the hypergraph representing the solutions to w + x = y + z in a subset $S \subset [n]$. We then apply an iterated version of Theorem 1.1 to this hypergraph in an entirely mechanical way; all that is needed is to set appropriate values and to check the conditions.

Corollary 1.3 is an iterated version of Theorem 1.2 but it is a bit too crude for use here. Only a constant number of iterations are involved (of the order $\log(1/\epsilon)$) whereas here the number of iterations is a function of n, as the containers shrink from size n to order \sqrt{n} . Moreover we need to take account of a change in behaviour of the codegree function when the size of the container drops below $n^{2/3}$, as the dominant contribution then comes from δ_2 rather than δ_4 (see equation (5) below); Kohayakawa, Lee, Rödl and Samotij [23] noticed an interesting behavioural change at the same point, for a closely related problem.

The version we need is the following. It is identical to [40, Theorem 6.3], but with a tuple (T_1, \ldots, T_s) replaced by a single set T.

Theorem 5.1. Let G be an r-graph on vertex set [n]. Let $e_0 \leq e(G)$. Suppose that, for each $U \subset [n]$ with $e(G[U]) \geq e_0$, the function $\tau(U)$ satisfies $\tau(U) < 1/2$ and $\delta(G[U], \tau(U)) \leq 1/12r!$. For $e_0 \leq m \leq e(G)$ define

$$f(m) = \max\{-|U|\tau(U)\log\tau(U): U \subset [n], e(G[U]) \ge m\}$$

$$\tau^* = \max\{\tau(U): U \subset [n], e(G[U]) \ge e_0\}$$

Let $k = \log(e_0/e(G))/\log(1-1/2r!)$. Then there is a collection $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{P}[n]$ such that

(a) for every independent set I there exists $T \subset I$ with $I \subset C(T) \in \mathcal{C}$ and $|T| \le 288(k+1)r!^2 r\tau^* n,$

- (b) $e(G[C]) \le e_0 \text{ for all } C \in \mathcal{C},$ (c) $\log |\mathcal{C}| \le 288r!^2r \sum_{0 \le i \le k} f(e_0/(1-1/2r!)^i).$

Proof of Theorem 1.10, upper bound. Let G be the 4-graph on vertex set [n], where $\{w, x, y, z\} \in [n]^{(4)}$ is an edge whenever w + x = y + z. Sidon sets correspond to independent sets in G (although the converse is not always true, since solutions to w + x = y + z where w = x or y = z do not correspond to edges of G).

Let $U \subset [n]$ and u = |U|. For $i \in [n-1]$, let $t_i = |\{\{x, y\} \in U^{(2)} : x < y, y - x = U^{(2)} : x < y, y - x = U^{(2)} \}$ i}. Note that $\sum_i t_i = {\binom{u}{2}}$. Each pair of sets $\{w, z\} \neq \{y, x\}$ with w - z = y - x corresponds to an edge with w + x = y + z, and each such edge corresponds to the two pairs $\{w, z\} \neq \{y, x\}$ and $\{w, y\} \neq \{x, z\}$. Hence, for large u, the number of edges in G[U] satisfies

$$m = e(G[U]) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} {t_i \choose 2} \ge \frac{n-1}{2} {\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i t_i \choose 2} \ge u^4/20n.$$

We shall apply Theorem 5.1 to the graph G. To this end, let $\beta = 3 \times 10^{14}$, let $e_0 = \beta^4 n/20$, and consider $U \subset [n]$ where $e(G[U]) \geq e_0$. Since the bound we are proving is an asymptotic one, we may assume that n is large: this in turn means that e_0 is large, so m is large and (since $m \leq {\binom{u}{4}} u$) u is also large; in particular the inequality $u \leq (20nm)^{1/4}$ always holds.

Let k = 12r! = 288. Now put

$$\tau = \tau(U) = \max\{24ku^2/m, (4ku/m)^{1/3}\}\$$

To apply Theorem 5.1 we must check that $\tau \leq 1/2$ and that $\delta \leq 1/12r!$. For convenience we shall verify $\tau \leq 1/12$ (in fact τ is far smaller).

Recall the definition of $d^{(j)}(w)$. In G[U], observe that $d^{(2)}(w) \leq u/2 + u = 3u/2$, since for $x \in U$, the number of solutions of the form w + x = y + z is at most u/2 and the number of solutions of the form w + y = x + z is at most u; similarly $d^{(3)}(w) \leq 3$ and $d^{(4)}(w) \leq 1$.

Hence

$$\delta_2 \le \frac{3u^2}{8\tau m} \qquad \delta_3 \le \frac{3u}{4\tau^2 m} \qquad \delta_4 \le \frac{u}{4\tau^3 m},$$

and (since $\tau < 1/12$, as we shall check shortly)

$$\delta = 32\delta_2 + 16\delta_3 + 4\delta_4 \le \frac{12u^2}{\tau m} + \frac{2u}{\tau^3 m}.$$
 (5)

Then both terms on the right hand side of (5) are less than 1/2k, so $\delta \leq 1/12r!$ is satisfied.

If $\tau \leq 24ku^2/m$, then the constraint $\tau \leq 1/12$ holds comfortably (since $u \leq (20nm)^{1/4}$ and $m \geq e_0$), and furthermore

$$\begin{aligned} u\tau \log(1/\tau) &\leq (24ku^3/m) \log(m/(24ku^2)) \\ &\leq 20^{3/4} 48k \sqrt{n} \left(\frac{n}{m}\right)^{1/4} \log \frac{(m/n)^{1/4}}{(24k)^{1/2}(20)^{1/4}} \\ &=: f_1(m). \end{aligned}$$

where the first inequality holds since $\tau \log(1/\tau)$ is an increasing function of τ when $\tau < 1/e$, and the second inequality holds since $u^3 \log(m/(24ku^2))$ is an increasing function of u when $u \leq e^{-1/3}\sqrt{m/24k}$, and $u \leq (20nm)^{1/4}$ which is less than $e^{-1/3}\sqrt{m/24k}$ because $m \geq e_0$.

Alternatively, if $\tau \leq (4ku/m)^{1/3}$ then the constraint $\tau \leq 1/12$ is easily satisfied, and also

$$\begin{aligned} u\tau \log(1/\tau) &\leq (4ku^4/27m)^{1/3} \log(m/4ku) \\ &\leq 6k^{1/3}n^{1/3} \log n \\ &=: f_2(m) \quad \text{when } m \leq e(G), \end{aligned}$$

where the second inequality holds because $u^{4/3} \log(m/4ku)$ is an increasing function of u for $u \leq e^{-3/4}m/4k$ (which is larger than $(20nm)^{1/4}$), together with the bound $m \leq n^4$. Let $f_2(m) = 0$ for m > e(G).

Therefore the conditions of Theorem 5.1 are satisfied. Moreover, since f_1 and f_2 are non-increasing functions of m, we have $f(m) \leq \max\{f_1(m), f_2(m)\}$ for $m \geq e_0$.

So let \mathcal{C} be the collection of containers given by Theorem 5.1 for the graph G, where each $C \in \mathcal{C}$ satisfies $e(G[C]) \leq e_0$. Writing $\alpha = 1 - 1/2r!$ and $m_i = e_0/\alpha^i = \beta^4 n/20\alpha^i$, we have $\log |\mathcal{C}| \leq 288rr!^2 \sum_{i\geq 0} f(m_i)$.

Note that $\sum_{i\geq 0} \gamma^i = 1/(1-\gamma)$ and $\sum_{i\geq 0} i\gamma^i = \gamma/(1-\gamma)^2$, so

$$288rr!^{2} \sum_{i\geq 0} f_{1}(m_{i}) = 288rr!^{2} 20^{3/4} 48k\sqrt{n} \sum_{i\geq 0} \frac{(20\alpha^{i})^{1/4}}{\beta} \log \frac{\beta}{\alpha^{i/4}\sqrt{480k}}$$
$$= 288rr!^{2} \frac{960k\sqrt{n}}{\beta} \left(\frac{\alpha^{1/4}\log(1/\alpha)}{4(1-\alpha^{1/4})^{2}} + \frac{\log(\beta/\sqrt{480k})}{1-\alpha^{1/4}}\right)$$
$$< \frac{7\sqrt{n}}{2}.$$

Observe that $m_i \ge n^4 > e(G)$ when $i \ge 3 \log n / \log(1/\alpha)$ (and hence $f_2(m_i) = 0$), so

$$\sum_{k\geq 0} f_2(m_i) = o(\sqrt{n}).$$

Each Sidon set in [n] is a subset of size at most $(1+o(1))\sqrt{n}$ of some $C \in C$, where $|C| \leq u_0 = \beta\sqrt{n}$ (because if $|C| > u_0$ then $e(G[C]) \geq 20u^4/n > e_0$). The number of such subsets is at most $\binom{\beta\sqrt{n}}{(1+o(1))\sqrt{n}}$. Using the standard inequality $\binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$, the number of these subsets is at most $\exp\{(1+\log\beta+o(1))\sqrt{n}\}$. Letting S be the collection of Sidon subsets of [n],

$$\frac{\log |\mathcal{S}|}{\sqrt{n}} \le 1 + \log \beta + o(1) + \frac{288rr!^2}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i \ge 0} f_1(m_i) + \frac{288rr!^2}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i \ge 0} f_2(m_i)$$

< 1 + \log \beta + 7/2 + o(1) < 55 \log 2 + o(1),

which completes the verification.

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28

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