# SZEMERÉDI'S REGULARITY LEMMA 

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#### Abstract

Szemerédi's regularity lemma is an important tool in discrete mathematics, specially in graph theory and additive combinatorics. It says that, in some sense, all graphs can be approximated by random-looking graphs. The lemma helps in proving theorems for arbitrary graphs whenever the corresponding result is easy for random graphs. One of its applications is the triangle removal lemma which, as observed by Ruzsa and Szemerédi in [12], gives a proof of Roth's theorem on the existence of arithmetic progressions of length 3 in subsets of the integers with positive density. It also implies the corner's theorem - which indeed is a strengthening of Roth's theorem. Our last application is the graph removal lemma.


## 1. Additive combinatorics

Additive combinatorics is the theory of counting additive structures in sets.
T. Tao and V. Vu.

This theory has seen exciting developments and dramatic changes in direction in recent years, thanks to its connections with areas such as number theory, ergodic theory and graph theory. This section gives a brief historic introduction on the main results.

Van der Waerden's theorem, one of Kintchine's "Three Pearls of Number Theory", states that whenever the natural numbers are finitely partitioned (or, as it is customary to say, finitely colored), one of the cells of the partition contains arbitrarily long arithmetic progressions. In other words, the structure of the natural numbers can not be destroyed by partitions: arbitrarily large parts of $\mathbb{N}$ persist inside some component of the partition. This result was first proved in 1927 and represents the first great result on additive combinatorics. Afterwards, in the midthirties, Erdös and Turán [5] conjectured a density version of van der Waerden's theorem. To present it, let us define what is the notion of density in the natural numbers.
Definition 1.1. Given a set $A \subset \mathbb{N}$, the upper density of $A$ is

$$
\overline{\mathrm{d}}(A) \doteq \limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|A \cap\{1,2, \ldots, n\}|}{n} .
$$

If the limit exists, we say that $A$ has density, and denote it by $\mathrm{d}(A)$. As pointed out by Erdös and Turán, having positive upper density is a notion of largeness and it is natural to ask if sets with this property have arbitrarily long arithmetic progressions. This quite recalcitrant question was only settled in 1975 by Szemerédi [15]. Meanwhile, the first partial result was obtained by Roth [11] in 1953.

[^0]Theorem 1.2 (Roth). If $A \subset \mathbb{N}$ has positive upper density, then it contains an arithmetic progression of length 3 .

His proof relied on a Fourier-analytic argument of energy increment for functions: one decomposes a function $f$ as $g+b$, where $g$ is good and $b$ is bad in a specific sense ${ }^{1}$. If the effect of $b$ is large, it is possible to break it into good and bad parts again and so on. In each step, the "energy" of $b$ increases a fixed amount. Being bounded, it must stop after a finite number of steps. At the end, $g$ controls the behavior of $f$ and for it the result is straightforward. See [10] for further details.

After this, in 1969, Szemerédi [14] extended Roth's theorem to
Theorem 1.3 (Szemerédi). If $A \subset \mathbb{N}$ has positive upper density, then it contains an arithmetic progression of length 4.

Finally, six years later, Szemerédi settled the conjecture in its full generality.
Theorem 1.4 (Szemerédi). If $A \subset \mathbb{N}$ has positive upper density, then it contains arbitrarily long arithmetic progression.

His proof required a complicated combinatorial argument and relied on a graphtheoretical result, known as Szemerédi's regularity lemma, which turned out to be an important result in graph theory. It asserts, roughly speaking, that any graph can be decomposed into a relatively small number of disjoint subgraphs, most of which behave pseudo-randomly. This is the main topic of these notes.

It is worth to mention Erdös and Turán also conjectured that if $A \subset \mathbb{N}$ satisfies

$$
\sum_{n \in A} \frac{1}{n}=\infty
$$

then it contains arbitrarily long arithmetic progressions. This question is wide open: nobody knows even if $A$ contains arithmetic progressions of length 3. On the other hand, a remarkable result of Green and Tao states the conjecture for the particular case ${ }^{2}$ of the prime numbers.

Theorem 1.5 (Green and Tao). The prime numbers contain arbitrarily long arithmetic progressions.

## 2. Setting notation

$G=(V, E)$ is a graph, where $V$ is a finite set of vertices and $E$ is the set of edges, each of them joining two distinct elements of $V$. For disjoint $A, B \subset V, e(A, B)$ is the number of edges between $A$ and $B$ and

$$
d(A, B)=\frac{e(A, B)}{|A| \cdot|B|}
$$

is the density of the pair $(A, B)$.
Definition 2.1. For $\varepsilon>0$ and disjoint subsets $A, B \subset V$, the pair $(A, B)$ is $\varepsilon$-regular if, for every $X \subset A$ and $Y \subset B$ satisfying

$$
|X| \geq \varepsilon \cdot|A| \text { and }|Y| \geq \varepsilon \cdot|B|
$$

we have

$$
|d(X, Y)-d(A, B)|<\varepsilon
$$

[^1]A partition $\mathcal{U}=\left\{V_{0}, V_{1}, \ldots, V_{k}\right\}$ of $V$ into pairwise disjoint sets in which $V_{0}$ is called the exceptional set is an equipartition if $\left|V_{1}\right|=\cdots=\left|V_{k}\right|$. We view the exceptional set as $\left|V_{0}\right|$ distinct parts, each consisting of a single vertex, and its role is purely technical: to make all other classes have exactly the same cardinality.

Definition 2.2. An equipartition $V=V_{0} \cup V_{1} \cup \cdots \cup V_{k}$ is $\varepsilon$-regular if
(a) $\left|V_{0}\right| \leq \varepsilon \cdot|V|$,
(b) all but at most $\varepsilon k^{2}$ of the pairs $\left(V_{i}, V_{j}\right)$ are $\varepsilon$-regular.

The classes $V_{i}$ are called clusters or groups. Given two partitions $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W}$ of $V$, we say $\mathcal{U}$ refines $\mathcal{W}$ if every cluster of $\mathcal{W}$ is equal to the union of some clusters of $\mathcal{U}$.

## 3. Szemerédi's Regularity lemma

Szemerédi's regularity lemma says that every graph with many vertices can be partitioned into a small number of clusters with the same cardinality, most of the pairs being $\varepsilon$-regular, and a few leftover edges. In my point of view, this result allows the decomposition of every graph with a sufficiently large number of vertices into many components uniformly (every component has the same number of vertices) in such a way the relation of the clusters is at the same time
uniform: the densities do not vary too much, and
randomic: even controlling the density, nothing can be said about the distribution of the edges.

As a toy model, let $0 \leq p \leq 1$ and consider the complete random graph $G=$ $(V, E)$ with $n$ vertices in which every edge belongs to $E$ with probability $p$. If $A, B$ are disjoint subsets of $V$, the expected value of $d(A, B)$ is $p$, and the same happens for subsets $X \subset A, Y \subset B$. Szemerédi's regularity lemma says that, approximately, this is indeed the universal behavior.

Theorem 3.1 (Szemerédi's regularity lemma). For every $\varepsilon>0$ and every integer $t$, there exist integers $T(\varepsilon, t)$ and $N(\varepsilon, t)$ for which every graph with at least $N(\varepsilon, t)$ vertices has an $\varepsilon$-regular equipartition $\left(V_{0}, V_{1}, \ldots, V_{k}\right)$, where $t \leq k \leq T(\varepsilon, t)$.

Note the importance of having an upper bound for the number of clusters. Otherwise, we could just take each of them to be a singleton.

The idea in the proof is similar to Roth's approach. Start with an arbitrary partition of $V$ into $t$ disjoint classes $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{t}$ of equal sizes. Proceed by showing that, as long as the partition is not $\varepsilon$-regular, it can be refined in a way to distribute the density deviation. This is done by introducing a bounded energy function that increases a fixed amount every time the refinement is made. After a finite number of steps, the resulting partition is $\varepsilon$-regular.

We now discuss what should be the energy function. The natural way of looking for it is to identify the obstruction for a pair $(U, W)$ to be $\varepsilon$-regular. This means there are subsets $U_{1} \subset U$ and $W_{1} \subset W$ such that $\left|U_{1}\right| \geq \varepsilon \cdot|U|,\left|W_{1}\right| \geq \varepsilon \cdot|W|$ and

$$
\left|d\left(U_{1}, W_{1}\right)-d(U, W)\right|>\varepsilon
$$

Consider the partitions $\mathcal{U}=\left\{U_{1}, U \backslash U_{1}\right\}$ and $\mathcal{W}=\left\{W_{1}, U \backslash W_{1}\right\}$. The above inequality has the following probabilistic interpretation. Consider the random variable $Z$ defined on the product $U \times W$ by: let $u$ be a uniformly random element of $U$ and $w$ a uniformly random element of $W$, let $A \in \mathcal{U}$ and $B \in \mathcal{W}$ be those members of the respective partitions for which $u \in A$ and $w \in B$, and take

$$
Z(u, w) \doteq d(A, B)
$$

The expectation of $Z$ is equal to

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[Z] & =\sum_{\substack{A \in \mathcal{U} \\
B \in \mathcal{W}}} \frac{|A|}{|U|} \cdot \frac{|B|}{|W|} \cdot d(A, B) \\
& =\frac{1}{|U| \cdot|W|} \sum_{\substack{A \in \mathcal{U} \\
B \in \mathcal{W}}} e(A, B) \\
& =d(U, W)
\end{aligned}
$$

By assumption, $Z$ deviates from $\mathbb{E}[Z]$ at least $\varepsilon$ whenever $u \in U_{1}, w \in W_{1}$ and this event has probability

$$
\frac{\left|U_{1}\right|}{|U|} \cdot \frac{\left|W_{1}\right|}{|W|} \geq \varepsilon^{2} .
$$

Then $\operatorname{Var}[Z] \geq \varepsilon^{4}$. Noting that the expectation of $Z^{2}$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}\left[Z^{2}\right] & =\sum_{\substack{A \in \mathcal{U} \\
B \in \mathcal{W}}} \frac{|A|}{|U|} \cdot \frac{|B|}{|W|} \cdot d^{2}(A, B) \\
& =\frac{1}{|U| \cdot|W|} \sum_{\substack{A \in \mathcal{U} \\
B \in \mathcal{W}}} \frac{e^{2}(A, B)}{|A| \cdot|B|},
\end{aligned}
$$

we conclude that

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E}\left[Z^{2}\right] & \geq \mathbb{E}[Z]^{2}+\varepsilon^{4} \\
\frac{1}{|U| \cdot|W|} \sum_{\substack{\mathbf{A} \in \mathcal{U} \\
\mathbf{B} \in \mathcal{W}}} \frac{\mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{2}}(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B})}{|\mathbf{A}| \cdot|\mathbf{B}|} & \geq \frac{1}{|U| \cdot|W|} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{2}}(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{W})}{|\mathbf{U}| \cdot|\mathbf{W}|}+\varepsilon^{4} \tag{3.1}
\end{align*}
$$

The boldface terms above represent the energy function we are looking for: given two disjoint subsets $A, B \subset V$, define

$$
q(A, B)=\frac{1}{n^{2}} \cdot \frac{e^{2}(A, B)}{|A| \cdot|B|}=\frac{|A| \cdot|B|}{n^{2}} \cdot d^{2}(A, B)
$$

For partitions $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W}$, let

$$
q(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W})=\sum_{\substack{A \in \mathcal{U} \\ B \in \mathcal{W}}} q(A, B)
$$

Definition 3.2. Given a partition $\mathcal{U}$ of $V$ with exceptional set $V_{0}$, the index of $\mathcal{U}$ is

$$
q(\mathcal{U})=\sum_{A, B \in \mathcal{U}} q(A, B)
$$

where the sum ranges over all unordered pairs of distinct parts $A, B$ of $\mathcal{U}$, with each vertex of $V_{0}$ forming a singleton part in its own.

Note that $q(\mathcal{U})$ is a sum of $\binom{k+\left|V_{0}\right|}{2}$ terms of the form $q(A, B)$. The first good property it must have is boundedness.

Property 1. $q(\mathcal{U}) \leq 1 / 2$.
In fact, as $d(A, B) \leq 1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
q(\mathcal{U}) & \leq \frac{1}{n^{2}} \sum_{\substack{A, B \in \mathcal{U} \\
A \neq B}}|A| \cdot|B| \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2 n^{2}} \cdot\left(\sum_{A \in \mathcal{U}}|A|\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{B \in \mathcal{U}}|B|\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

It is also monotone increasing with respect to refinements. This is the content of the next two properties.

Property 2. If $U, W$ are subsets of $V$ and $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W}$ are partitions of $U, V$, respectively, then

$$
q(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W}) \geq q(U, W)
$$

This property follows easily from Cauchy-Schwarz inequality ${ }^{3}$, but this analytical argument is not so clear. A soft way of proving it is to consider the probabilistic point of view, with the aid of the random variable $Z$. According to the above calculations,

$$
\mathbb{E}[Z]^{2}=\frac{n^{2}}{|U| \cdot|W|} \cdot q(U, W) \quad \text { and } \quad \mathbb{E}\left[Z^{2}\right]=\frac{n^{2}}{|U| \cdot|W|} \cdot q(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W})
$$

and so, by Jensen's inequality,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}\left[Z^{2}\right] & \geq \mathbb{E}[Z]^{2} \\
\Longrightarrow \quad q(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W}) & \geq q(U, W) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Property 3. If $\mathcal{U}^{\prime}$ refines $\mathcal{U}$, then

$$
q\left(\mathcal{U}^{\prime}\right) \geq q(\mathcal{U})
$$

[^2]This is a direct consequence of Property 2 by breaking $q\left(\mathcal{U}^{\prime}\right)$ according to $\mathcal{U}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
q\left(\mathcal{U}^{\prime}\right) & =\sum_{A^{\prime}, B^{\prime} \in \mathcal{U}^{\prime}} q\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\sum_{A, B \in \mathcal{U}} \sum_{\substack{A^{\prime} \subset A \\
B^{\prime} \subset B}} q\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\sum_{A, B \in \mathcal{U}} q\left(\mathcal{U}^{\prime} \cap A, \mathcal{U}^{\prime} \cap B\right) \\
& \geq \sum_{A, B \in \mathcal{U}} q(A, B) \\
& =q(\mathcal{U})
\end{aligned}
$$

The next property grows the index of non $\varepsilon$-regular partitions and reflects the right choice of the energy function. In a few words, it says that
"The lack of uniformity implies energy increment"
and this idea permeates many results in recent developments in combinatorics, harmonic analysis, ergodic theory and others areas. Actually, all known proofs of Szemerédi's theorem use this principle at some stage. To mention some of them:

1. the original proof of Roth considers good and bad parts of functions.
2. Furstenberg's approach [7]: every non-compact system has a weak mixing factor.
3. the Fourier-analytic proof of Gowers [7] identifies arithmetic progressions via the nowadays called Gowers norms.
4. the construction of characteristic factors for multiple ergodic averages uses the Gowers-Host-Kra seminorms.
These two last results are still being developed to generate what is being called higher-order Fourier analysis. Going back to what matters, let's prove the

Proposition 3.3 (Lack of uniformity implies energy increment 1). Suppose $\varepsilon>0$ and $U, W$ are disjoint nonempty subsets of $V$ and the pair $(U, W)$ is not $\varepsilon$-regular. Then there are partitions $\mathcal{U}=\left\{U_{1}, U_{2}\right\}$ of $U$ and $\mathcal{W}=\left\{W_{1}, W_{2}\right\}$ of $W$ such that

$$
q(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W})>q(U, W)+\varepsilon^{4} \cdot \frac{|U| \cdot|W|}{n^{2}}
$$

Proof. The reader must convince himself that this is exactly relation (3.1). For those still not convinced, let's do it again. Assume $U_{1} \subset U$ and $W_{1} \subset W$ are such that $\left|U_{1}\right| \geq \varepsilon \cdot|U|,\left|W_{1}\right| \geq \varepsilon \cdot|W|$ and

$$
\left|d\left(U_{1}, W_{1}\right)-d(U, W)\right|>\varepsilon .
$$

Consider $\mathcal{U}=\left\{U_{1}, U \backslash U_{1}\right\}$ and $\mathcal{W}=\left\{W_{1}, U \backslash W_{1}\right\}$. The evaluation of the variation $\operatorname{Var}[Z]$ will prove the proposition. On one hand, by the calculations in Property 2,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Var}[Z]=\frac{n^{2}}{|U| \cdot|W|} \cdot(q(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W})-q(U, W)) \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other, $Z$ deviates from $\mathbb{E}[Z]$ at least $\varepsilon$ whenever $u \in U_{1}, w \in W_{1}$ and this event has probability

$$
\frac{\left|U_{1}\right|}{|U|} \cdot \frac{\left|W_{1}\right|}{|W|} \geq \varepsilon^{2}
$$

Then $\operatorname{Var}[Z] \geq \varepsilon^{4}$ which, together with (3.2), gives that

$$
\begin{aligned}
q(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W})-q(U, W) & \geq \varepsilon^{4} \cdot \frac{|U| \cdot|W|}{n^{2}} \\
\Longrightarrow \quad q(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W}) & \geq q(U, W)+\varepsilon^{4} \cdot \frac{|U| \cdot|W|}{n^{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proposition 3.4 (Lack of uniformity implies energy increment 2). Suppose $0<$ $\varepsilon<1 / 4$ and let $\mathcal{U}=\left\{V_{0}, V_{1}, \ldots, V_{k}\right\}$ be a non $\varepsilon$-regular equipartition of $V$, where $V_{0}$ is the exceptional set. Then there exists a refinement $\mathcal{U}^{\prime}=\left\{V_{0}^{\prime}, V_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, V_{l}^{\prime}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{U}$ with the following properties:
(i) $\mathcal{U}^{\prime}$ is an equipartition of $V$,
(ii) $k<l<k \cdot 8^{k}$,
(iii) $\left|V_{0}^{\prime}\right| \leq\left|V_{0}\right|+n / 2^{k}$ and
(iv) $q\left(\mathcal{U}^{\prime}\right) \geq q(\mathcal{U})+\varepsilon^{5} / 2$.

Proof. The idea is to apply the previous proposition to every non-regular pair. As there are at least $\varepsilon k^{2}$ of them, the index will increase the fixed amount. Let $c$ be the cardinality of every $V_{i}, i=1, \ldots, k$. Saying that $\mathcal{U}$ is not $\varepsilon$-regular means that, for at least $\varepsilon k^{2}$ pairs $(i, j), 1 \leq i<j \leq k,\left(V_{i}, V_{j}\right)$ is not $\varepsilon$-regular. For each of these, let $\mathcal{U}_{i j}, \mathcal{U}_{j i}$ be the partitions of $V_{i}, V_{j}$, respectively, given by Proposition 3.3 and consider $\mathcal{W}$ the smallest partition that refines $\mathcal{U}$ and all $\mathcal{U}_{i j}, \mathcal{U}_{j i}$. By Proposition 3.3,

$$
\begin{aligned}
q(\mathcal{W}) & \geq q(\mathcal{U})+\varepsilon k^{2} \cdot\left(\varepsilon^{4} \cdot \frac{c^{2}}{n^{2}}\right) \\
& =q(\mathcal{U})+\varepsilon^{5} \cdot\left(\frac{k c}{n}\right)^{2} \\
& \geq q(\mathcal{U})+\frac{\varepsilon^{5}}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

as $k c=n-\left|V_{0}\right| \geq n / 2$. This proves that $\mathcal{W}$ (and any of its refinements) satisfies (iv). The problem is that $\mathcal{W}$ is not necessarily an equipartition. We adjust this by defining $b=\left\lfloor c / 4^{k}\right\rfloor$, splitting every part of $\mathcal{W}$ arbitrarily into disjoint sets of size $b$ and throwing the remaining vertices of each part, if any, to the exceptional set. This new partition $\mathcal{U}^{\prime}$ satisfies (i), (ii) and (iii), as we'll verify below.
(i) $\mathcal{U}^{\prime}$ is an equipartition by definition.
(ii) To get $\mathcal{W}$, every cluster of $\mathcal{U}$ is divided in at most $2^{k-1}$ parts. After, every element of $\mathcal{W}$ is divided in at most $4^{k}$ non-exceptional parts. This implies that

$$
l \leq k \cdot 2^{k-1} \cdot 4^{k}<k \cdot 8^{k}
$$

(iii) Each cluster of $\mathcal{W}$ contributes with at most $b$ vertices to $V_{0}^{\prime}$ and so

$$
\left|V_{0}^{\prime}\right| \leq\left|V_{0}\right|+b \cdot\left(k \cdot 2^{k-1}\right) \leq\left|V_{0}\right|+k c \cdot \frac{2^{k-1}}{4^{k}}<\left|V_{0}\right|+\frac{n}{2^{k}}
$$

Finally, we are able to prove the regularity lemma.

Proof of Theorem 3.1. First, note that if the result is true for $(\varepsilon, t)$ and $\varepsilon^{\prime}>\varepsilon$, $t^{\prime}<t$, then the result is also true for the pair $\left(\varepsilon^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right)$. This allows us to assume that $\varepsilon<1 / 4$ and $t / \varepsilon$ is arbitrarily large.

Begin with an arbitrary partition $\mathcal{U}=\left\{V_{0}, V_{1}, \ldots, V_{t}\right\}$ of $V$ such that $\left|V_{0}\right| \leq$ $\lfloor n / t\rfloor$ and $\left|V_{1}\right|=\cdots=\left|V_{t}\right|=\lfloor n / t\rfloor$. Apply Proposition 3.4 at most $\varepsilon^{-5}$ times to obtain an equipartition $\mathcal{U}^{\prime}$. Let $T(\varepsilon, t)$ be the largest number obtained by iterating the map $x \mapsto x \cdot 6^{x}$ at most $\varepsilon^{-5}$ times, starting from $t$. Then $\mathcal{U}^{\prime}$ has at most $T(\varepsilon, t)$ clusters. In addition, the cardinality of its exceptional set $V_{0}^{\prime}$ is bounded by

$$
\left|V_{0}^{\prime}\right| \leq\left|V_{0}\right|+\frac{1}{\varepsilon^{5}} \cdot \frac{n}{2^{t}} \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{t}\right\rfloor+\frac{n}{2^{t} \varepsilon^{5}}
$$

which is smaller than $\varepsilon n$ if $t$ is large. This concludes the proof.

## 4. Triangle removal lemma

Most applications of Szemerédi's regularity lemma deal with monotone problems, when throwing in more edges can only help. In these applications, one starts applying the original form of the regularity lemma to create a regular partition, then gets rid of all edges within the clusters of the partition, also the edges of non-regular pairs as well as those of regular pairs with small density. The leftover "pure" graph is much easier to handle and still contains most of the original edges. This is what happens in proving the triangle removal lemma.

The triangle removal lemma is the (intuitive, yet nontrivial) fact that if one has to delete at least $\varepsilon n^{2}$ edges of a graph with $n$ vertices to destroy all triangles in it, then the graph must contain at least $\delta n^{3}$ triangles, where $\delta=\delta(\varepsilon)>0$. If one only thinks naively, the conclusion is that the graph contains at least $\varepsilon n^{2}$ triangles, and the strength of the triangle removal lemma is that, instead of quadratic, the number of triangles is cubic. It was first proved by Ruzsa and Szemerédi [12], who also observed it implies Roth's theorem, as we shall see in the next section.
Definition 4.1. Given $\varepsilon>0$, a graph $G=(V, E)$ is $\varepsilon$-far from being triangle free if one has to delete at least $\varepsilon \cdot|V|^{2}$ edges of $G$ to destroy all triangles in it.

In particular, every graph that is $\varepsilon$-far from being triangle-free has at least one triangle (indeed, at least $\varepsilon \cdot|V|^{2}$ of them).

Theorem 4.2 (Triangle removal lemma). For any $0<\varepsilon<1$, there is $\delta=\delta(\varepsilon)>0$ such that, whenever $G=(V, E)$ is $\varepsilon$-far from being triangle-free, then it contains at least $\delta \cdot|V|^{3}$ triangles.

Proof. Let $G=(V, E)$ be an $\varepsilon$-far from being triangle-free graph and $|V|=n$. We can assume $n>N(\varepsilon / 4,\lfloor 4 / \varepsilon\rfloor)$ by just taking $\delta$ sufficiently small so that

$$
\delta \cdot N(\varepsilon / 4,\lfloor 4 / \varepsilon\rfloor)^{3}<1
$$

Consider the $\varepsilon / 4$-regular partition $\mathcal{U}=\left\{V_{0}, V_{1}, \ldots, V_{k}\right\}$ given by Theorem 3.1. Let $c=\left|V_{1}\right|=\cdots=\left|V_{k}\right|$ and $G^{\prime}$ the graph obtained from $G$ by deleting the following edges:

- All edges incident in $V_{0}$ : there are at most $\varepsilon n^{2} / 4$ edges.
- All edges inside the clusters $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{k}$ : the number of edges is at most

$$
c^{2} \cdot k<\frac{n^{2}}{k}<\frac{\varepsilon \cdot n^{2}}{4}
$$

- All edges that lie in irregular pairs: there are less than

$$
\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot k^{2}\right) \cdot c^{2}<\frac{\varepsilon \cdot n^{2}}{4}
$$

edges.

- All edges lying in a pair of clusters whose density is less than $\varepsilon / 2$ : their cardinality is at most

$$
\binom{k}{2} \cdot \frac{\varepsilon \cdot c^{2}}{2}<\frac{\varepsilon \cdot n^{2}}{4}
$$

The number of deleted edges is less than $\varepsilon \cdot n^{2}$ and so $G^{\prime}$ contains a triangle. The three vertices of such triangle belong to three remaining distinct clusters ${ }^{4}$, let us say $V_{1}, V_{2}, V_{3}$. We'll show that in fact these clusters support many triangles.

Call a vertex $v_{1} \in V_{1}$ typical if it has at least $\varepsilon c / 4$ adjacent vertices in $V_{2}$ and at least $\varepsilon c / 4$ adjacent vertices in $V_{3}$. As, by hypothesis,

$$
\begin{equation*}
d\left(V_{i}^{\prime}, V_{j}^{\prime}\right) \geq \frac{\varepsilon}{4} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

whenever $V_{i}^{\prime} \subset V_{i}, V_{j}^{\prime} \subset V_{j}$ have cardinality at least $\varepsilon c / 4$, there are more than $c / 2$ typical vertices in $V_{1}$. In fact, the number of vertices in $V_{1}$ with at least $\varepsilon c / 4$ adjacent vertices in $V_{2}$ is greater than $(1-\varepsilon / 4) \cdot c$. If this were not the case, the subset $V_{1}^{\prime} \subset V_{1}$ of non-typical vertices would have more than $\varepsilon c / 4$ elements and would satisfy

$$
d\left(V_{1}^{\prime}, V_{2}\right)<\frac{\left|V_{1}^{\prime}\right| \cdot \frac{\varepsilon c}{4}}{\left|V_{1}^{\prime}\right| \cdot\left|V_{2}\right|}=\frac{\varepsilon}{4}
$$

contradicting (4.1). As the same argument holds to $V_{3}$, the number of typical vertices in $V_{1}$ is at least

$$
\left(1-2 \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{4}\right) \cdot c>\frac{c}{2} .
$$

Let $v_{1} \in V_{1}$ be one of them and consider $V_{2}^{\prime} \subset V_{2}, V_{3}^{\prime} \subset V_{3}$ the vertices adjacent to $v_{1}$.

[^3]

Every edge between $V_{2}^{\prime}$ and $V_{3}^{\prime}$ generates a triangle. Observe that this number is at least

$$
e\left(V_{2}^{\prime}, V_{3}^{\prime}\right) \geq \frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot\left|V_{2}^{\prime}\right| \cdot\left|V_{3}^{\prime}\right| \geq \frac{\varepsilon^{3} \cdot c^{2}}{4^{3}}
$$

Summing this up in $v_{1} \in V_{1}$ typical, $G^{\prime}$ has at least $(\varepsilon c / 4)^{3}$ triangles. Because $c>n / 2 T(\varepsilon / 4,\lfloor 4 / \varepsilon\rfloor)$, this quantity is greater or equal to

$$
\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{4} \cdot \frac{n}{2 \cdot T(\varepsilon / 4,\lfloor 4 / \varepsilon\rfloor)}\right)^{3}=\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{8 \cdot T(\varepsilon / 4,\lfloor 4 / \varepsilon\rfloor)}\right)^{3} \cdot n^{3}=\delta(\varepsilon) \cdot n^{3}
$$

4.1. Roth's theorem. As an application of the triangle removal lemma, we prove Theorem 1.2.

Proof of Theorem 1.2. Assume that

$$
|A \cap\{1, \ldots, n\}|>\varepsilon n, \forall n \geq n_{0}
$$

Consider a graph $G=(V, E)$ in the following way:

- $V=V_{1} \cup V_{2} \cup V_{3}$, where $V_{1}, V_{2}, V_{3}$ have $3 n$ vertices labeled from 1 to $3 n$ each.
- There is an edge from $i \in V_{1}$ to $j \in V_{2}$ iff $j-i \in A$.
- There is an edge from $j \in V_{2}$ to $k \in V_{3}$ iff $k-j \in A$.
- There is an edge from $i \in V_{1}$ to $k \in V_{3}$ iff $(k-i) / 2 \in A$.


Then $i, j, k$ form a triangle iff
that is, the triangles identify arithmetic progressions of length 3 in $A$, including the trivial ones $(a, a, a), a \in A$. There are more than $\varepsilon n \cdot n=\varepsilon n^{2}$ of these trivial triangles $i, i+a, i+2 a$ and they are all disjoint. This mere disjointness implies $G$ is $\varepsilon$-far from being triangle-free and so, by Theorem $4.2, G$ has at least $\delta n^{3}$ triangles of which at least $\delta n^{3}-81 n^{2}$ are non-trivial. The proof is complete by taking $n>81 \delta^{-1}$.
4.2. Corner's theorem. This result was first proved by Ajtai and Szemerédi [1]. The simpler proof we present here, using the triangle removal lemma, was obtained by Solymosi [13]. We point out, and leave the proof to the reader, that the corner's theorem is a strengthening of Roth's theorem.
Definition 4.3. A corner is an axis-aligned isosceles triangle of $\mathbb{Z}^{2}$, that is, it is a set of three different elements of $\mathbb{Z}^{2}$ of the form

$$
(x, y),(x+h, y) \text { and }(x, y+h)
$$

The corner's theorem states that every set of positive density has a corner.
Theorem 4.4 (Corner's theorem). For every $\varepsilon>0$, there exists $n>0$ such that any subset of $\{1, \ldots, n\} \times\{1, \ldots, n\}$ with at least $\varepsilon n^{2}$ points has a corner.

Proof. We proceed similarly to the proof of Roth's theorem. Let $A$ be a subset of $\{1, \ldots, n\} \times\{1, \ldots, n\}$ with at least $\varepsilon n^{2}$ points and consider the tripartite graph $G=(V, E)$ defined by:

- $V=V_{1} \cup V_{2} \cup V_{3}$, where $V_{1}, V_{2}$ and $V_{3}$ represent the horizontal, vertical and diagonal lines of $\{1, \ldots, n\} \times\{1, \ldots, n\}$ respectively.
- There is an edge from a line of $V_{i}$ to a line of $V_{j}$ iff the intersection of the two lines belongs to $A$.
$G$ has $\left|V_{1}\right|+\left|V_{2}\right|+\left|V_{3}\right|=n+n+2 n=4 n$ vertices. The triangles of $G$ correspond to the corners of $A$, including the trivial ones $(x, y),(x, y),(x, y)$. $G$ has more than $|A| \geq \varepsilon n^{2}$ of these trivial triangles and they are all disjoint, so that $G$ is $\varepsilon / 16$ far from being triangle-free. By the triangle removal lemma, $G$ has at least $\delta n^{3}$ triangles of which at least $\delta n^{3}-n^{2}$ are non-trivial and give the required corner.


## 5. Graph removal lemma

The triangle removal lemma asserts that every graph for which it is necessary to throw a positive fraction of edges in order to destroy all triangles indeed has a positive fraction of triangles. The fact is that, as proved by Erdös, Frankl and Rödl [4], instead of fixing the triangle configuration, the result is also true for any fixed configuration. More formally, let $H$ be a finite graph with $h$ vertices and, analogously, consider the following

Definition 5.1. Given $\varepsilon>0$, a graph $G=(V, E)$ is $\varepsilon$-far from being $H$-free if one has to delete at least $\varepsilon \cdot|V|^{2}$ edges of $G$ to destroy all copies of $H$ in it.

We then have the
Theorem 5.2 (Graph removal lemma). For any $0<\varepsilon<1$, there is $\delta=\delta(\varepsilon)>0$ such that, whenever $G=(V, E)$ is $\varepsilon$-far from being $H$-free, then it contains at least $\delta \cdot|V|^{h}$ copies of $H$.

The proof of this theorem is more intricate than that of the triangle removal lemma. Actually, it depends on the structure of the graph $H$. If, for example, $H$ is a four-cycle, then the argument applied in the proof of the triangle removal lemma does not work, mainly because, once the "impure" edges are discarded, the copy of $H$ that remains may have two vertices in a same cluster. In other words, the connectivity properties of $H$ influence the distribution of the vertices along the clusters in a potential candidate for copy of $H$ in $G$. As in the triangle removal lemma, this problem does not occur if $H$ is the complete graph $K_{r}$ in $r$ vertices. For this reason, the proof of the graph removal lemma will be accomplished in three parts:

Part 1. The establishment of the graph removal lemma for $K_{r}$.

Part 2. We observe that, for a general $H$, the application of the same idea in Part 1 only guarantees the existence of $r$ clusters, where $r$ is the chromatic number of $H$.

Part 3. If we apply the same idea as in Part 1, allowing the choice of more than one vertex in a same cluster, we obtain the result for any $H$.

As remarked above, Part 1 follows the same lines of the proof of the triangle removal lemma: we clean out the graph and the remaining copy of $K_{r}$ is supported in $r$ different clusters, which indeed contain many copies of $K_{r}$. The construction of many copies is again accomplished by the typicality of most of the vertices, and is given by the following

Lemma 5.3. If $(A, B)$ is $\varepsilon^{\prime}$-regular and $d(A, B)>\varepsilon$, then at least $\left(1-\varepsilon^{\prime}\right)|A|$ vertices of $A$ are adjacent to at least $\left(\varepsilon-\varepsilon^{\prime}\right)|B|$ vertices of $B$.

Proof. Let $A^{\prime}=\left\{v \in A ; v\right.$ is adjacent to less than $\left(\varepsilon-\varepsilon^{\prime}\right)|B|$ vertices of $\left.B\right\}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
d\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)<\frac{\left|A^{\prime}\right| \cdot\left(\varepsilon-\varepsilon^{\prime}\right)|B|}{\left|A^{\prime}\right| \cdot|B|}=\varepsilon-\varepsilon^{\prime} . \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\left|A^{\prime}\right| \geq \varepsilon^{\prime}|A|$, the $\varepsilon^{\prime}$-regularity guarantees that

$$
d\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)>d(A, B)-\varepsilon^{\prime}>\varepsilon-\varepsilon^{\prime}
$$

thus contradicting (5.1).
Proof of the graph removal lemma for $K_{r}$. Let $G=(V, E)$ be $\varepsilon$-far from being $K_{r^{-}}$ free graph with $|V|=n>N\left((\varepsilon / 6)^{r},(\varepsilon / 6)^{-r}\right)$, and consider the $(\varepsilon / 6)^{r}$-regular partition $\mathcal{U}=\left\{V_{0}, V_{1}, \ldots, V_{k}\right\}$ given by Szemerédi's regularity lemma. Let $c=$ $\left|V_{1}\right|=\cdots=\left|V_{k}\right|$ and $G^{\prime}$ the graph obtained from $G$ by deleting the following edges:

- All edges incident in $V_{0}$ : there are at most $(\varepsilon / 6)^{r} \cdot n^{2}$ edges.
- All edges inside the clusters $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{k}$ : the number of edges is at most

$$
c^{2} \cdot k<\frac{n^{2}}{k}<(\varepsilon / 6)^{r} \cdot n^{2} .
$$

- All edges that lie in irregular pairs: there are less than

$$
\left((\varepsilon / 6)^{r} \cdot k^{2}\right) \cdot c^{2}<(\varepsilon / 6)^{r} \cdot n^{2}
$$

edges.

- All edges lying in a pair of clusters whose density is less than $\varepsilon / 3$ : their cardinality is at most

$$
\binom{k}{2} \cdot \frac{\varepsilon \cdot c^{2}}{3}<\frac{\varepsilon \cdot n^{2}}{3}
$$

The number of deleted edges is less than $\varepsilon \cdot n^{2}$ and so $G^{\prime}$ contains $K_{r}$. The vertices of such $K_{r}$ belong to $r$ distinct remaining clusters, say $V_{1}, V_{2}, \ldots, V_{r}$. We'll show that these clusters support many copies of $K_{r}$. This is done in $r$ steps, the step $i$ consisting of choosing a vertex $v_{i}$ from $V_{i}$ in such a way that $v_{i}$ is adjacent to each of the previously chosen vertices $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{i-1}$. If there are $\delta_{i} c$ ways of choosing $v_{i}$, where $\delta_{i}$ is independent of $n$, then $G$ contains at least

$$
\left(\delta_{1} c\right) \cdots\left(\delta_{r} c\right)>\left(\frac{\delta_{1} \cdots \delta_{r}}{2^{r} \cdot T\left((\varepsilon / 6)^{r},(\varepsilon / 6)^{-r}\right)^{r}}\right) \cdot n^{r}=: \delta \cdot n^{r}
$$

copies of $K_{r}$ and we're done.
By Lemma 5.3, at least $\left(1-r \cdot(\varepsilon / 6)^{r}\right)\left|V_{1}\right|$ points in $V_{1}$ are joined to at least $\left(\varepsilon / 3-(\varepsilon / 6)^{r}\right)\left|V_{j}\right|$ points of $V_{j}$ for each $j=2, \ldots, r$. Take one such point $v_{1}$ and denote by $V_{j}^{1}$ the subset of $V_{j}$ of all the adjacent vertices to $v_{1}$, for each $j=2, \ldots, r$. We have

$$
\left|V_{j}^{1}\right| \geq\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{3}-\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{6}\right)^{r}\right)\left|V_{j}\right|>\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{6}\right)\left|V_{j}\right|
$$

and hence any two of the clusters $V_{2}^{1}, \ldots, V_{r}^{1}$ are $(\varepsilon / 6)^{r-1}$-regular and have density at least $\varepsilon / 3-(\varepsilon / 6)^{r}$. This concludes the first step.

We now proceed to step 2: again by Lemma 5.3, at least $\left(1-r \cdot(\varepsilon / 6)^{r-1}\right)\left|V_{2}^{1}\right|$ points in $V_{2}^{1}$ are joined to at least $\left(\varepsilon / 3-(\varepsilon / 6)^{r}-(\varepsilon / 6)^{r-1}\right)\left|V_{j}^{1}\right|$ points of $V_{j}^{1}$ for each $j=3, \ldots, r$. Take one such point $v_{2} \in V_{2}^{1}$ and denote by $V_{j}^{2}$ the subset of $V_{j}^{1}$ of all the adjacent vertices to $v_{2}$, for each $j=3, \ldots, r$. We have

$$
\left|V_{j}^{2}\right| \geq\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{3}-\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{6}\right)^{r}-\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{6}\right)^{r-1}\right)\left|V_{j}^{1}\right|>\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{6}\right)\left|V_{j}^{1}\right|
$$

and hence any two of the clusters $V_{3}^{2}, \ldots, V_{r}^{2}$ are $(\varepsilon / 6)^{r-2}$-regular and have density at least $\varepsilon / 3-(\varepsilon / 6)^{r}-(\varepsilon / 6)^{r-1}$.

Assuming, without loss of generality, that $r \varepsilon<1$ and $\varepsilon / 6+\cdots+(\varepsilon / 6)^{r}<\varepsilon / 3$, the above procedure can be repeated $r$ times. This concludes the proof.

Now let $H$ be an arbitrary graph. The chromatic number of $H$ is the smallest number of colors needed to paint the vertices of $H$ in such a way that no two adjacent vertices have the same color. Equivalently, it is the smallest $r$ for which $H$ is $r$-partite, that is, for which one can divide the vertices of $H$ into $r$ disjoint subsets such that no two vertices on the same subset are adjacent. Let these subsets have cardinality $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{r}$. Let $K_{h_{1}, \ldots, h_{r}}$ be the complete $r$-partite graph whose subsets have cardinality $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{r}$. Obviously, $K_{h_{1}, \ldots, h_{r}}$ contains $H$ and so the number of copies of $H$ in a given graph is at least the number of copies of $K_{h_{1}, \ldots, h_{r}}$.

Observe that if we apply the same idea as in Part 1 to a $\varepsilon$-far from being $H$-free graph, the remaining copy of $H$ has vertices in at least $r$ clusters $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{r}$, and not necessarily in $h$ different clusters. This is not a problem: instead of choosing one vertex in each $V_{i}$, we choose $h_{i}$ of them. If the same procedure works, each of these choices generates a copy of $K_{h_{1}, \ldots, h_{r}}$ and thus of $H$. This is how we proceed below.

Proof of the graph removal lemma. Apply the same argument as in Part 1 to obtain clusters $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{r}$ such that any pair is $(\varepsilon / 6)^{h}$-regular and has density at least $\varepsilon / 3$. We can thus find $\left(1-r \cdot(\varepsilon / 6)^{h}\right)\left|V_{1}\right|$ points of $V_{1}$ which are joined to at least $\left(\varepsilon / 3-(\varepsilon / 6)^{h}\right)\left|V_{i}\right|$ points of $V_{i}$ for each $i=2, \ldots, r$. Take one such point $v_{1} \in V_{1}$ and denote by $V_{i}^{1}$ the set of all vertices of $V_{i}$ which are joined to $v_{1}$, for each $i=2, \ldots, r$. Also, set $V_{1}^{1}=V_{1} \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}$ (here is the difference: we don't discard $V_{1}$ ). We have

$$
\left|V_{i}^{1}\right| \geq\left(\varepsilon / 3-(\varepsilon / 6)^{h}\right)\left|V_{i}\right|>(\varepsilon / 6)\left|V_{i}\right|
$$

for every $i=1, \ldots, r$ and hence each pair among $V_{1}^{1}, \ldots, V_{r}^{1}$ is $(\varepsilon / 6)^{h-1}$-regular and has density at least $\varepsilon / 3-(\varepsilon / 6)^{h}$.

Repeating this argument successively $h_{1}$ times in the first cluster, $h_{2}$ times in the second cluster, $\ldots, r$ times in the $r$-th cluster, we construct vertices $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{h}$ forming a copy of $K_{h_{1}, \ldots, h_{r}}$. This completes the proof.

We point out a recent proof of the graph removal lemma avoiding the use of Szemerédi's regularity lemma has been obtained by Fox [6]. Although it does not use the regularity lemma, its idea is similar. Instead of using the mean square density given by the index

$$
q(\mathcal{U})=\sum_{A, B \in \mathcal{U}} q(A, B)=\sum_{A, B \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{|A|}{n} \cdot \frac{|B|}{n} \cdot d^{2}(A, B)
$$

it uses a mean entropy density

$$
\sum_{A, B \in \mathcal{U}} \frac{|A|}{n} \cdot \frac{|B|}{n} \cdot f(d(A, B)),
$$

where $f(x)=x \log x$ for $0<x \leq 1$ and $f(0)=0$. Like in the regularity lemma, whenever a partition does not supports many copies of $H$, Fox shows, using a Jensen defect inequality, that there is a refinement of the partition that increases the mean square entropy a fixed amount.

We finish this post mentioning another version of the graph removal lemma that counts the number of induced graphs. A subgraph $H$ of a graph $G$ is said to be induced if any pair of vertices of $H$ are adjacent if and only if they are adjacent in $G$. For example, $K_{5}$ has an induced $K_{4}$ but does not have an induced four-cycle. This shows that induced graphs are harder to find, and actually that the excess
of edges might prevent them to exist. In this setting, we have to consider a new definition of $\varepsilon$-far from being $H$-free, in which one can remove or include edges.
Definition 5.4. Given $\varepsilon>0$, a graph $G=(V, E)$ is $\varepsilon$-unavoidable for $H$ if any graph that differs from $G$ in no more that $\varepsilon \cdot|V|^{2}$ edges has an induced copy of $H$.

We thus have the graph removal lemma, proved by Alon, Fischer, Krivelevich and Szegedy [2].

Theorem 5.5 (Graph removal lemma for induced graphs). For any $0<\varepsilon<1$, there is $\delta=\delta(\varepsilon)>0$ such that, whenever $G=(V, E)$ is $\varepsilon$-unavoidable for $H$, then it contains at least $\delta \cdot|V|^{h}$ induced copies of $H$.

We won't prove the theorem. Instead, we refer the reader to the original paper.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ This follows the same philosophy of Calderón-Zygmund's theory on harmonic analysis.
    ${ }^{2}$ The sum of the inverse of the primes diverges.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ The interested reader may check it in [9].

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ The existence of the triangle is merely used to guarantee the existence of $V_{1}, V_{2}$ and $V_{3}$.

