

Incidences with Curves in \mathbb{R}^d

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Abstract. We prove that the number of incidences between m points and n bounded-degree curves with k degrees of freedom in \mathbb{R}^d is $I(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}) = O\left(m^{\frac{k}{d-k-d+1}+\varepsilon} n^{\frac{dk-d}{dk-d+1}} + \sum_{j=2}^{d-1} m^{\frac{k}{jk-j+1}+\varepsilon} n^{\frac{d(j-1)(k-1)}{(d-1)(j-k-j+1)}} q_j^{\frac{(d-j)(k-1)}{(d-1)(j-k-j+1)}}\right) + m + n$, where the constant of proportionality depends on k, ε and d , for any $\varepsilon > 0$, provided that no j -dimensional surface of degree $c_j(k, d, \varepsilon)$, a constant parameter depending on k, d, j , and ε , contains more than q_j input curves, and that the q_j 's satisfy certain mild conditions.

This bound generalizes a recent result of Sharir and Solomon [20] concerning point-line incidences in four dimensions (where $d = 4$ and $k = 2$), and partly generalizes a recent result of Guth [8] (as well as the earlier bound of Guth and Katz [10]) in three dimensions (Guth's three-dimensional bound has a better dependency on q). It also improves a recent d -dimensional general incidence bound by Fox, Pach, Sheffer, Suk, and Zahl [7], in the special case of incidences with algebraic curves. Our results are also related to recent works by Dvir and Gopi [4] and by Hableček and Scherr [11] concerning rich lines in high-dimensional spaces.

1 Introduction

Let \mathcal{C} be a set of curves in \mathbb{R}^d . We say that \mathcal{C} has k *degrees of freedom* with *multiplicity* s if (i) for every k points in \mathbb{R}^d there are at most s curves of \mathcal{C} that are incident to all k points, and (ii) every pair of curves of \mathcal{C} intersect in at most s points. The bounds that we derive depend more significantly on k than on s —see below.

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In this paper we derive sharp upper bounds on the number of incidences between a set \mathcal{P} of m points and a set \mathcal{C} of n bounded-degree algebraic curves that have k degrees of freedom (with some multiplicity s). We denote the number of these incidences by $I(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C})$.

Before stating our results, let us put them in context. The basic and most studied case involves incidences between points and lines. In two dimensions, writing L for the given set of n lines, the classical Szemerédi–Trotter theorem [27] yields the worst-case tight bound

$$I(\mathcal{P}, L) = O\left(m^{2/3}n^{2/3} + m + n\right). \tag{1}$$

In three dimensions, in the 2010 groundbreaking paper of Guth and Katz [10], an improved bound has been derived for $I(\mathcal{P}, L)$, for a set \mathcal{P} of m points and a set L of n lines in \mathbb{R}^3 , provided that not too many lines of L lie in a common plane. Specifically, they showed:

Theorem 1 (Guth and Katz [10]). *Let \mathcal{P} be a set of m distinct points and L a set of n distinct lines in \mathbb{R}^3 , and let $q_2 \leq n$ be a parameter, such that no plane contains more than q_2 lines of L . Then*

$$I(\mathcal{P}, L) = O\left(m^{1/2}n^{3/4} + m^{2/3}n^{1/3}q_2^{1/3} + m + n\right).$$

This bound was a major step in the derivation of the main result of [10], an almost-linear lower bound on the number of distinct distances determined by any set of n points in the plane, a classical problem posed by Erdős in 1946 [6]. Their proof uses several nontrivial tools from algebraic and differential geometry, most notably the Cayley–Salmon theorem on osculating lines to algebraic surfaces in \mathbb{R}^3 , and additional properties of ruled surfaces. All this machinery comes on top of the main innovation of Guth and Katz, the introduction of the *polynomial partitioning technique*; see below.

In four dimensions, Sharir and Solomon [21] have obtained a still sharper bound:

Theorem 2 (Sharir and Solomon [21]). *Let \mathcal{P} be a set of m distinct points and L a set of n distinct lines in \mathbb{R}^4 , and let $q_2, q_3 \leq n$ be parameters, such that (i) each hyperplane or quadric contains at most q_3 lines of L , and (ii) each 2-flat contains at most q_2 lines of L . Then*

$$I(\mathcal{P}, L) \leq 2^{c\sqrt{\log m}}\left(m^{2/5}n^{4/5} + m\right) + A\left(m^{1/2}n^{1/2}q_3^{1/4} + m^{2/3}n^{1/3}q_2^{1/3} + n\right), \tag{2}$$

where A and c are suitable absolute constants. When $m \leq n^{6/7}$ or $m \geq n^{5/3}$, we get the sharper bound

$$I(\mathcal{P}, L) \leq A\left(m^{2/5}n^{4/5} + m + m^{1/2}n^{1/2}q_3^{1/4} + m^{2/3}n^{1/3}q_2^{1/3} + n\right). \tag{3}$$

In general, except for the factor $2^{c\sqrt{\log m}}$, the bound is tight in the worst case, for any values of m, n , with corresponding suitable ranges of q_2 and q_3 .

This improves, in several aspects, an earlier treatment of this problem in Sharir and Solomon [20].

Another way to extend the Szemerédi–Trotter bound is for curves in the plane with k degrees of freedom (for lines, $k = 2$). This has been done by Pach and Sharir, who showed:¹

Theorem 3 (Pach and Sharir [17]). *Let \mathcal{P} be a set of m points in \mathbb{R}^2 and let \mathcal{C} be a set of bounded-degree algebraic curves in \mathbb{R}^2 with k degrees of freedom and with multiplicity s . Then*

$$I(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}) = O\left(m^{\frac{k}{2k-1}} n^{\frac{2k-2}{2k-1}} + m + n\right),$$

where the constant of proportionality depends on k and s .

Several special cases of this result, such as the cases of unit circles and of arbitrary circles, have been considered separately [3,25].

Here too one can consider the extension of these bounds to higher dimensions. The literature here is rather scarce, and we only mention here the work of Sharir, Sheffer and Zahl [19] on incidences between points and circles in three dimensions; an earlier study of this problem by Aronov et al. [1] gives a different, dimension-independent bound.

The bounds given above include a “leading term” that depends only on m and n (like the term $m^{1/2}n^{3/4}$ in Theorem 1), and, except for the two-dimensional case, a series of “lower-dimensional” terms (like the term $m^{2/3}n^{1/3}q_2^{1/3}$ in Theorem 1 and the terms $m^{1/2}n^{1/2}q_3^{1/4}$ and $m^{2/3}n^{1/3}q_2^{1/3}$ in Theorem 2). The leading terms, in the case of lines, become smaller as d increases. Informally, by placing the lines in a higher-dimensional space, it should become harder to create many incidences on them.

Nevertheless, this is true only if the setup is “truly d -dimensional”. This means that not too many lines or curves can lie in a common lower-dimensional space. The lower-dimensional terms handle incidences within such lower-dimensional spaces. There is such a term for every dimension $j = 2, \dots, d - 1$, and the “ j -dimensional” term handles incidences within j -dimensional subspaces (which, as the quadrics in the case of lines in four dimensions in Theorem 2, are not necessarily linear and might be algebraic of low constant degree). Comparing the bounds for lines in two, three, and four dimensions, we see that the j -dimensional term in d dimensions, for $j < d$, is a sharper variant of the leading term in j dimensions. More concretely, if that leading term is $m^a n^b$ then its counterpart in the d -dimensional bound is of the form $m^a n^t q_j^{b-t}$, where q_j is the maximum number of lines that can lie in a common j -dimensional flat or low-degree variety, and t depends on j and d .

Our Results. In this paper we consider a grand generalization of these results, to the case where \mathcal{C} is a family of bounded-degree algebraic curves with k degrees of freedom (and some multiplicity s) in \mathbb{R}^d . This is a very ambitious and difficult

¹ Their result holds for more general families of curves, not necessarily algebraic, but, since algebraicity will be needed in higher dimensions, we assume it also in the plane.

project, and the challenges that it faces seem to be enormous. Here we make the first, and fairly significant, step in this direction, and obtain the following bounds. As the exponents in the bounds are rather cumbersome expressions in $d, k,$ and $j,$ we first state the special case of $d = 3$ (and prove it separately), and then give the general bound in d dimensions.

Theorem 4 (Curves in \mathbb{R}^3). *Let $k \geq 2$ be an integer, and let $\varepsilon > 0$. Then there exists a constant $c(k, \varepsilon)$ that depends on k and $\varepsilon,$ such that the following holds. Let \mathcal{P} be a set of m points and \mathcal{C} a set of n irreducible algebraic curves of constant degree with k degrees of freedom (and some multiplicity s) in $\mathbb{R}^3,$ such that every algebraic surface of degree at most $c(k, \varepsilon)$ contains at most q_2 curves of $\mathcal{C},$ for some given $q_2 \leq n.$ Then*

$$I(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}) = O\left(m^{\frac{k}{3k-2} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}} + m^{\frac{k}{2k-1} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} q_2^{\frac{k-1}{4k-2}} + m + n\right),$$

where the constant of proportionality depends on $k, s,$ and ε (and on the degree of the curves).

The corresponding result in d dimensions is as follows.

Theorem 5 (Curves in \mathbb{R}^d). *Let $d \geq 3$ and $k \geq 2$ be integers, and let $\varepsilon > 0$. Then there exist constants $c_j(k, d, \varepsilon),$ for $j = 2, \dots, d - 1,$ that depend on $k, d, j,$ and $\varepsilon,$ such that the following holds. Let \mathcal{P} be a set of m points and \mathcal{C} a set of n irreducible algebraic curves of constant degree with k degrees of freedom (and some multiplicity s) in $\mathbb{R}^d.$ Moreover, assume that, for $j = 2, \dots, d - 1,$ every j -dimensional algebraic variety of degree at most $c_j(k, d, \varepsilon)$ contains at most q_j curves of $\mathcal{C},$ for given parameters $q_2 \leq \dots \leq q_{d-1} \leq n.$*

$$I(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}) = O\left(m^{\frac{k}{dk-d+1} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{dk-d}{dk-d+1}} + \sum_{j=2}^{d-1} m^{\frac{k}{jk-j+1} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{d(j-1)(k-1)}{(d-1)(jk-j+1)}} q_j^{\frac{(d-j)(k-1)}{(d-1)(jk-j+1)}} + m + n\right),$$

where the constant of proportionality depends on $k, s, d,$ and ε (and on the degree of the curves), and provided that, for any $2 \leq j < l \leq d,$ we have (with the convention that $q_d = n$)

$$q_j \geq \left(\frac{q_{l-1}}{q_l}\right)^{l(l-2)} q_{l-1}. \tag{4}$$

Discussion. The advantages of our results are obvious: They provide the first nontrivial bounds for the general case of curves with any number of degrees of freedom in any dimension (with the exception of one previous study of Fox et al. [7], in which weaker bounds are obtained, for arbitrary varieties instead of algebraic curves). Apart for the ε in the exponents, the leading term is “best possible,” in the sense that (i) the polynomial partitioning technique [10] that our analysis employs (and that has been used in essentially all recent works on incidences in higher dimensions) yields a recurrence that solves to this bound,

and, moreover, (ii) it is (nearly) worst-case tight for *lines* in two, three, and four dimensions (as shown in the respective works cited above), and in fact is likely to be tight for lines in higher dimensions too, using a suitable extension of a construction, due to Elekes and used in [10,21].

Nevertheless, our bounds are not perfect, and tightening them further is a major challenge for future research. Specifically:

(i) The bounds involve the factor m^ε . As the existing works indicate, getting rid of this factor is no small feat. Although the factor does not show up in the cases of lines in two and three dimensions, it already shows up (sort of) in four dimensions (Theorem 2), as well as in the case of circles in three dimensions [19]. (A recent study of Guth [8] also pays this factor for the case of lines in three dimensions, in order to simplify the analysis.) See the proofs and comments below for further elaboration of this issue.

(ii) The condition that no surface of degree $c_j(k, d, \varepsilon)$ contains too many curves of \mathcal{C} , for $j = 2, \dots, d - 1$, is very restrictive, especially since the actual values of these constants that arise in the proofs can be quite large. Again, earlier works also “suffer” from this handicap, such as Guth’s work [8] mentioned above, as well as an earlier version of Sharir and Solomon’s four-dimensional bound [20].

(iii) Finally, the lower-dimensional terms that we obtain are not best possible. For example, the bound that we get in Theorem 4 for the case of lines in \mathbb{R}^3 ($k = 2$) is $O(m^{1/2+\varepsilon}n^{3/4} + m^{2/3+\varepsilon}n^{1/2}q_2^{1/6} + m + n)$. When $q_2 \ll n$, the two-dimensional term $m^{2/3+\varepsilon}n^{1/2}q_2^{1/6}$ in that bound is worse than the corresponding term $m^{2/3}n^{1/3}q_2^{1/3}$ in Theorem 1 (even when ignoring the factor m^ε).

Our results are also related to recent works by Dvir and Gopi [4] and by Hablicsek and Scherr [11], that study rich lines in high dimensions. Specifically, let \mathcal{P} be a set of n points in \mathbb{R}^d and let L be a set of r -rich lines (each line of L contains at least r points of \mathcal{P}). If $|L| = \Omega(n^2/r^{d+1})$ then there exists a hyperplane containing $\Omega(n/r^{d-1})$ points of \mathcal{P} . Our bounds might be relevant for extending this result to rich curves. Concretely, for a set \mathcal{P} of n points in \mathbb{R}^d and a collection \mathcal{C} of r -rich constant-degree algebraic curves, if $|\mathcal{C}|$ is too large then the incidence bound becomes larger than our “leading term”, indicating that some lower-dimensional surface must contain many curves of \mathcal{C} , from which it might be possible to also deduce that such a surface has to contain many points of \mathcal{P} . While such an extension is not straightforward, we believe that it is doable, and plan to investigate it in our future work.

As in the classical work of Guth and Katz [10], and in the numerous follow-up studies of related problems, here too we use the polynomial partitioning method, as pioneered in [10]. The reason why our bounds suffer from the aforementioned handicaps is that we use a partitioning polynomial of (large but) constant degree. When using a polynomial of a larger, non-constant degree, we face the difficult task of bounding incidences between points and curves that are fully contained in the zero set of the polynomial, where the number of curves of this kind can be large, because the polynomial partitioning technique has no control over this value. We remark that for lines we have the classical Cayley–Salmon theorem (see, e.g., Guth and Katz [10]), which essentially bounds the number of lines that can be fully

contained in an algebraic surface of a given degree, unless the surface is ruled by lines. However, such a property is not known for more general curves (see Nilov and Skopenkov [16] for an interesting exception involving circles in \mathbb{R}^3). Handling these incidences requires heavy-duty machinery from algebraic geometry, and leads to profound new problems in that domain that need to be tackled.

In contrast, using a polynomial of constant degree makes this part of the analysis much simpler, as can be seen below, but then handling incidences within the cells of the partition becomes non-trivial, and a naive approach yields a bound that is too large. To handle this part, one uses induction within each cell of the partitioning, and it is this induction process that is responsible for the weaker aspects of the resulting bound. Nevertheless, with these “sacrifices” we are able to obtain a “general purpose” bound that holds for a broad spectrum of instances. It is our hope that this study will motivate further research on this problem that would improve our results along the “handicaps” mentioned earlier. Recalling how inaccessible were these kinds of problems prior to Guth and Katz’s breakthroughs seven and five years ago, it is quite gratifying that so much new ground can be gained in this area, including the progress made in this paper.

Background. Incidence problems have been a major topic in combinatorial and computational geometry for the past thirty years, starting with the aforementioned Szemerédi-Trotter bound [27] back in 1983. Several techniques, interesting in their own right, have been developed, or adapted, for the analysis of incidences, including the crossing-lemma technique of Székely [26], and the use of cuttings as a divide-and-conquer mechanism (e.g., see [3]). Connections with range searching and related algorithmic problems in computational geometry have also been noted and exploited, and studies of the Kakeya problem (see, e.g., [28]) indicate the connection between this problem and incidence problems. See Pach and Sharir [18] for a comprehensive (albeit a bit outdated) survey of the topic.

The landscape of incidence geometry has dramatically changed in the past seven years, due to the infusion, in two groundbreaking papers by Guth and Katz [9,10], of new tools and techniques drawn from algebraic geometry. Although their two direct goals have been to obtain a tight upper bound on the number of joints in a set of lines in three dimensions [9], and a near-linear lower bound for the classical distinct distances problem of Erdős [10], the new tools have quickly been recognized as useful for incidence bounds. See [5,13,14,19,24,29,30] for a sample of recent works on incidence problems that use the new algebraic machinery.

The present paper continues this line of research, and aims at extending the collection of instances where nontrivial incidence bounds in higher dimensions can be obtained.

2 The Three-Dimensional Case

Proof of Theorem 4. We prove by induction on $m + n$ that

$$I(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}) \leq \alpha_1 \left(m^{\frac{k}{3k-2} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}} + m^{\frac{k}{2k-1} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} q^{\frac{k-1}{4k-2}} \right) + \alpha_2(m + n), \quad (5)$$

where α_1, α_2 are sufficiently large constants, α_1 depends on ε and k (and s), and α_2 depends on k (and s).

For the induction base, the case where m, n are sufficiently small can be handled by choosing sufficiently large values of α_1, α_2 .

Since the incidence graph, as a subgraph of $\mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{C}$, does not contain $K_{k,s+1}$ as a subgraph, the Kővári-Sós-Turán theorem (e.g., see [15, Section 4.5]) implies that $I(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}) = O(mn^{1-1/k} + n)$, where the constant of proportionality depends on k (and s). When $m = O(n^{1/k})$, this implies the bound $I(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}) = O(n)$, which is subsumed in (5) if we choose α_2 sufficiently large. We may thus assume that $n \leq cm^k$, for some absolute constant c .

Applying the Polynomial Partitioning Technique. We construct an r -partitioning polynomial f for \mathcal{P} , for a sufficiently large constant r . That is, as established in Guth and Katz [10], f is of degree² $O(r^{1/3})$, and the complement of its zero set $Z(f)$ is partitioned into $u = O(r)$ open connected cells, each containing at most m/r points of \mathcal{P} . We impose the asymptotic relations $2^{1/\varepsilon} \ll r \ll \alpha_2 \ll \alpha_1$ between the various constants. Denote the (open) cells of the partition as τ_1, \dots, τ_u . For each $i = 1, \dots, u$, let \mathcal{C}_i denote the set of curves of \mathcal{C} that intersect τ_i and let \mathcal{P}_i denote the set of points that are contained in τ_i . We set $m_i = |\mathcal{P}_i|$ and $n_i = |\mathcal{C}_i|$, for $i = 1, \dots, u$, and $m' = \sum_i m_i$, and notice that $m_i \leq m/r$ for each i (and $m' \leq m$). An obvious property (which is a consequence of Bézout's theorem, see, e.g., [24, Theorem A.2] or [14]) is that every curve of \mathcal{C} intersects $O(r^{1/3})$ cells of $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus Z(f)$. Therefore, $\sum_i n_i \leq bnr^{1/3}$, for a suitable absolute constant $b > 1$ (that depends on the degree of the curves in \mathcal{C}). Using Hölder's inequality, we have

$$\sum_i n_i^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}} \leq \left(\sum_i n_i \right)^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}} \left(\sum_i 1 \right)^{\frac{1}{3k-2}} \leq b' \left(nr^{\frac{1}{3}} \right)^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}} r^{\frac{1}{3k-2}} = b'n^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}} r^{\frac{k}{3k-2}},$$

$$\sum_i n_i^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} \leq \left(\sum_i n_i \right)^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} \left(\sum_i 1 \right)^{\frac{k+1}{4k-2}} \leq b' \left(nr^{\frac{1}{3}} \right)^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} r^{\frac{k+1}{4k-2}} = b'n^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} r^{\frac{k}{2k-1}},$$

for another absolute constant b' . Combining the above with the induction hypothesis, applied within each cell of the partition, implies

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i I(\mathcal{P}_i, \mathcal{C}_i) &\leq \sum_i \left(\alpha_1 \left(m_i^{\frac{k}{3k-2} + \varepsilon} n_i^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}} + m_i^{\frac{k}{2k-1} + \varepsilon} n_i^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} q_2^{\frac{k-1}{4k-2}} \right) + \alpha_2(m_i + n_i) \right) \\ &\leq \alpha_1 \left(\frac{m^{\frac{k}{3k-2} + \varepsilon}}{r^{\frac{k}{3k-2} + \varepsilon}} \sum_i n_i^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}} + \frac{m^{\frac{k}{2k-1} + \varepsilon} q_2^{\frac{k-1}{4k-2}}}{r^{\frac{k}{2k-1} + \varepsilon}} \sum_i n_i^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} \right) + \sum_i \alpha_2(m_i + n_i) \end{aligned}$$

² The implied constants of proportionality in the $O(\cdot)$ notation are *absolute* constants. In contrast, r is a constant that depends on ε and on the other problem parameters.

$$\leq \alpha_1 b' \left(\frac{m^{\frac{k}{3k-2} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}}}{r^\varepsilon} + \frac{m^{\frac{k}{2k-1} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} q_2^{\frac{k-1}{4k-2}}}{r^\varepsilon} \right) + \alpha_2 (m' + bnr^{1/3}).$$

Our assumption that $n = O(m^k)$ implies that $n = O\left(m^{\frac{k}{3k-2}} n^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}}\right)$ (with an absolute constant of proportionality). Thus, when α_1 is sufficiently large with respect to r, k , and α_2 , we have

$$\sum_i I(\mathcal{P}_i, \mathcal{C}_i) \leq 2\alpha_1 b' \left(\frac{m^{\frac{k}{3k-2} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}}}{r^\varepsilon} + \frac{m^{\frac{k}{2k-1} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} q_2^{\frac{k-1}{4k-2}}}{r^\varepsilon} \right) + \alpha_2 m'.$$

When r is sufficiently large, so that $r^\varepsilon \geq 6b'$, we have

$$\sum_i I(\mathcal{P}_i, \mathcal{C}_i) \leq \frac{\alpha_1}{3} \left(m^{\frac{k}{3k-2} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}} + m^{\frac{k}{2k-1} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} q_2^{\frac{k-1}{4k-2}} \right) + \alpha_2 m'. \tag{6}$$

Incidences on the Zero Set $Z(f)$. It remains to bound incidences with points that lie on $Z(f)$. Set $\mathcal{P}_0 := \mathcal{P} \cap Z(f)$ and $m_0 = |\mathcal{P}_0| = m - m'$. Let \mathcal{C}_0 denote the set of curves that are fully contained in $Z(f)$, and set $\mathcal{C}' := \mathcal{C} \setminus \mathcal{C}_0$, $n_0 := |\mathcal{C}_0|$, and $n' := |\mathcal{C}'| = n - n_0$. Since every curve of \mathcal{C}' intersects $Z(f)$ in $O(r^{1/3})$ points, we have, taking α_1 to be sufficiently large, and arguing as above,

$$I(\mathcal{P}_0, \mathcal{C}') = O(nr^{1/3}) \leq \frac{\alpha_1}{3} m^{\frac{k}{3k-2} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}}. \tag{7}$$

Finally, we consider the number of incidences between points of \mathcal{P}_0 and curves of \mathcal{C}_0 . For this, we set $c(k, \varepsilon)$ to be the degree of f , which is $O(r^{1/3})$, and can be taken to be $O((6b')^{1/\varepsilon})$. Then, by the assumption of the theorem, we have $|\mathcal{C}_0| \leq q_2$. We consider a generic plane $\pi \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ and project \mathcal{P}_0 and \mathcal{C}_0 onto two respective sets \mathcal{P}^* and \mathcal{C}^* on π . Since π is chosen generically, we may assume that no two points of \mathcal{P}_0 project to the same point in π , and that no pair of distinct curves in \mathcal{C}_0 have overlapping projections in π . Moreover, the projected curves still have k degrees of freedom, in the sense that, given any k points on the projection γ^* of a curve $\gamma \in \mathcal{C}_0$, there are at most $s - 1$ other projected curves that go through all these points. This is argued by lifting each point p back to the point \bar{p} on γ in \mathbb{R}^3 , and by exploiting the facts that the original curves have k degrees of freedom, and that, for a sufficiently generic projection, any curve that does not pass through \bar{p} does not contain any point that projects to p . The number of intersection points between a pair of projected curves may increase but it must remain a constant since these are intersection points between constant-degree algebraic curves with no common components. By applying Theorem 3, we obtain

$$I(\mathcal{P}_0, \mathcal{C}_0) = I(\mathcal{P}^*, \mathcal{C}^*) = O\left(m_0^{\frac{k}{2k-1}} q_2^{\frac{2k-2}{2k-1}} + m_0 + q_2\right),$$

where the constant of proportionality depends on k (and s). Since $q_2 \leq n$ and $m_0 \leq m$, we have $m_0^{\frac{k}{2k-1}} q_2^{\frac{2k-2}{2k-1}} \leq m^{\frac{k}{2k-1}} n^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} q_2^{\frac{k-1}{4k-2}}$. We thus get that $I(\mathcal{P}_0, \mathcal{C}_0)$ is at most

$$O\left(m^{\frac{k}{2k-1}} n^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} q_2^{\frac{k-1}{4k-2}} + n + m_0\right) \leq \frac{\alpha_1}{3} m^{\frac{k}{2k-1}} n^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} q_2^{\frac{k-1}{4k-2}} + b_2 n + \alpha_2 m_0, \tag{8}$$

for sufficiently large α_1 and α_2 ; the constant b_2 comes from Theorem 3, and is independent of ε and of the choices for α_1, α_2 made so far.

By combining (6), (7), and (8), including the case $m = O(n^{1/k})$, and choosing α_2 sufficiently large, we obtain

$$I(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}) \leq \alpha_1 \left(m^{\frac{k}{3k-2} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{3k-2}} + m^{\frac{k}{2k-1} + \varepsilon} n^{\frac{3k-3}{4k-2}} q_2^{\frac{k-1}{4k-2}} \right) + \alpha_2(m + n).$$

This completes the induction step and thus the proof of the theorem. □

Example 1: The case of lines. Lines in \mathbb{R}^3 have $k = 2$ degrees of freedom, and we almost get the bound of Guth and Katz in Theorem 1. There are three differences that make this derivation somewhat inferior to that in Guth and Katz [10], as detailed in items (i)–(iii) in the discussion in the introduction. We also recall the two follow-up studies of point-line incidences in \mathbb{R}^3 , of Guth [8] and of Sharir and Solomon [22]. Guth’s bound suffers from weaknesses (i) and (ii), but avoids (iii), using a fairly sophisticated inductive argument. Sharir and Solomon’s bound avoids (i) and (iii), and almost avoids (ii), in a sense that we do not make explicit here. In both cases, considerably more sophisticated machinery is needed to achieve these improvements.

Example 2: The case of circles. Circles in \mathbb{R}^3 have $k = 3$ degrees of freedom, and we get the bound

$$I(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}) = O\left(m^{3/7 + \varepsilon} n^{6/7} + m^{3/5 + \varepsilon} n^{3/5} q_2^{1/5} + m + n\right).$$

The leading term is the same as in Sharir et al. [19], but the second term is weaker, because it relies on the general bound of Pach and Sharir (Theorem 3), whereas the bound in [19] exploits an improved bound for point-circle incidences, due to Aronov et al. [1], which holds in any dimension. If we plug that bound into the above scheme, we obtain an exact reconstruction of the bound in [19]. In addition, considering the items (i)–(iii) discussed earlier, we note: (i) The requirements in [19] about the maximum number of circles on a surface are weaker, and are only for planes and spheres. (ii) The m^ε factors are present in both bounds. (iii) Even after the improvement noted above, the bounds still seem to be weak in terms of their dependence on q_2 , and improving this aspect, both here and in [19], is a challenging open problem.

Theorem 4 can easily be restated as bounding the number of *rich points*.

Corollary 1. *For each $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a parameter $c(k, \varepsilon)$ that depends on k and ε , such that the following holds. Let \mathcal{C} be a set of n irreducible algebraic curves of constant degree and with k degrees of freedom (with some multiplicity s) in \mathbb{R}^3 . Moreover, assume that every surface of degree at most $c(k, \varepsilon)$ contains at most q_2 curves of \mathcal{C} . Then, there exists some constant $r_0(k, \varepsilon)$ depending on ε, k (and s), such that for any $r \geq r_0(k, \varepsilon)$, the number of points that are incident to at least r curves of \mathcal{C} (so-called r -rich points), is*

$O\left(\frac{n^{3/2+\varepsilon}}{r^{\frac{3k-2}{2k-2}+\varepsilon}} + \frac{n^{3/2+\varepsilon}q_2^{1/2+\varepsilon}}{r^{\frac{2k-1}{k-1}+\varepsilon}} + \frac{n}{r}\right)$, where the constant of proportionality depends on k, s and ε .

Proof. Denoting by m_r the number of r -rich points, the corollary is obtained by combining the upper bound in Theorem 4 with the lower bound rm_r . \square

3 Incidences in Higher Dimensions

Due to lack of space, we omit the proof of Theorem 5, which is provided in the full version of the paper. It follows the proof of Theorem 4 rather closely, with appropriate modifications, and exploits the special assumption (4) on the values q_j to carry out the induction process successfully.

As a consequence of Theorem 5, we have:

Example: Incidences between Points and Lines in \mathbb{R}^4 . In the earlier version [20] of our study of point-line incidences in four dimensions, we have obtained the following weaker version of Theorem 2.

Theorem 6. *For each $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists an integer c_ε , so that the following holds. Let P be a set of m distinct points and L a set of n distinct lines in \mathbb{R}^4 , and let $q, s \leq n$ be parameters, such that (i) for any polynomial $f \in \mathbb{R}[x, y, z, w]$ of degree $\leq c_\varepsilon$, its zero set $Z(f)$ does not contain more than q lines of L , and (ii) no 2-plane contains more than s lines of L . Then,*

$$I(P, L) \leq A_\varepsilon \left(m^{2/5+\varepsilon} n^{4/5} + m^{1/2+\varepsilon} n^{2/3} q^{1/12} + m^{2/3+\varepsilon} n^{4/9} s^{2/9} \right) + A(m + n),$$

where A_ε depends on ε , and A is an absolute constant.

This result follows from our main Theorem 5, if we impose Equation (4) on $q_2 = s, q_3 = q$, and n , which in this case is equivalent to $s \leq q \leq n$ and $\frac{q}{n^8} < s$. This illustrates how the general theory developed in this paper extends similar results obtained earlier for “isolated” instances. Nevertheless, as already mentioned earlier, the bound for lines in \mathbb{R}^4 has been improved in Theorem 2 of [21], in its lower-dimensional terms.

Discussion. We first notice that similarly to the three-dimensional case, Theorem 5 implies an upper bound on the number of k -rich points in d dimensions (see Corollary 1 in three dimensions), and the proof thereof applies verbatim.

Second, we note that Theorems 4 and 5 have several weaknesses. The obvious ones are the items (i)–(iii) discussed in the introduction. Another, less obvious weakness, which has to do with the way in which the q_j -dependent terms in the bounds are derived. Specifically, these terms facilitate the induction step, when the constraining parameter q is passed *unchanged* to the inductive subproblems. Informally, since the overall number of lines in a subproblem goes down, one would expect q to decrease too, but so far we do not have a clean mechanism

for doing so. This weakness is manifested, e.g., in Corollary 1, where one would like to replace the second term by one with a smaller exponent of n and a larger one of q . Specifically, for lines in \mathbb{R}^3 , one would like to get a term close to $O(nq_2/k^3)$. This would yield $O(n^{3/2}/k^3)$ for the important special case $q_2 = O(n^{1/2})$ considered in [10]; the present bound is weaker.

A final remark concerns the relationships between the q_j , as set forth in Equation (4). These conditions are forced upon us by the induction process. As noted above, for incidences between points and lines in \mathbb{R}^4 , the bound derived in our main theorem 5 is (asymptotically) the same as that of the main result of Sharir and Solomon in [20]. The difference is that there, no restrictions on the q_j are imposed. Their proof is facilitated by the so called “second partitioning polynomial” (see [13,20]). Recently, Basu and Sombra [2] proved the existence of a third partitioning polynomial (see [2, Theorem 3.1]), and conjectured the existence of a k -partitioning polynomial for general $k > 3$ (see [2, Conjecture 3.4] for an exact formulation); for completeness we refer also to [7, Theorem 4.1], where a weaker version of this conjecture is proved. Building upon the work of Basu and Sombra [2], the proof of Sharir and Solomon [21] is likely to extend and yield the same bound as in our main theorem 5, for the more general case of incidences between points and bounded degree algebraic curves in dimensions at most five, and, if [2, Conjecture 3.4] holds, in every dimension, without any conditions on the q_j .

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