# A Combinatorial Distinction Between the Euclidean and Projective Planes 

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#### Abstract

Let $n$ and $m$ be integers with $n=m^{2}+m+1$. Then the projective plane of order $m$ has $n$ points and $n$ lines with each line containing $m+1 \approx n^{1 / 2}$ points. In this paper, we consider the analogous problem for the Euclidean plane and show that there cannot be a comparably large collection of lines each of which contains approximately $n^{1 / 2}$ points from a given set of $n$ points. More precisely, we show that for every $\delta>0$, there exist constants $c, n_{0}$ so that if $n \geqslant n_{0}$, it is not possible to find $n$ points in the Euclidean plane and a collection of at least $c n^{1 / 2}$ lines each containing at least $\delta n^{1 / 2}$ of the points. This theorem answers a question posed by P. Erdös. The proof involves a covering lemma, which may be of independent interest, and an application of the first author's regularity lemma.


## 1. Introduction

Throughout this paper we are concerned with the maximum size of a family $\mathscr{L}$ of lines in the Euclidean plane for which there exist a set $\mathscr{P}$ of $n$ points so that each line in $\mathscr{L}$ contains at least $\delta n^{1 / 2}$ of the points in $\mathscr{P}$ ( $\delta$ is fixed positive constant). The points with integer coordinates $\left\{(i, j): 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n^{1 / 2}, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n^{1 / 2}\right.$ show that when $\delta=1,|\mathscr{L}|$ can be at least $2 n^{1 / 2}$. The principal result of this paper will be to show that this simple construction is essentially best possible.

Theorem. For every $\delta>0$, there exist constants $c, n_{0}$ so that if $n \geqslant n_{0}, \mathscr{P}=$ $\left\{p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{n}\right\}$ is any set of $n$ points in the Euclidean plane, and $\mathscr{L}$ is a collection of lines each containing at least $\delta n^{1 / 2}$ of these points, then $\mathscr{L}$ contains less than $\mathrm{cn}^{1 / 2}$ lines.

This theorem settles in the affirmative a conjecture of P. Erdös. The corresponding problem for a projective plane has a dramatically different answer. When $n=m^{2}+m+1$, a projective plane has $n$ points, $n$ lines and each line contains $m+1 \approx n^{1 / 2}$ points. The proof of our theorem requires the development of a covering lemma for points in the plane and a subsequent application of the first author's regularity lemma [5]. We refer the reader to Erdös' survey papers [1], [2], [3], and [4] for extensive listings of problems in combinatorial geometry.

## 2. The Covering Lemmas

In this section, we consider the problem of covering a set $\mathscr{P}$ of $m$ points in the plane by a family $\mathscr{F}$ of regions with certain restrictions being placed on the shapes of the regions in $\mathscr{F}$ and the number of points from $\mathscr{P}$ which they contain. We shall only be concerned with regions of two different shapes (see Figure 1): Shape 1-a square with sides parallel to the coordinate axes; and Shape 2-a square from which a smaller square has been removed. The sides of the squares are parallel to the coordinate axes.

When we count the number of points in $\mathscr{P}$ contained in a region of one of these two shapes, we include those on the boundary of the region. Keeping in mind the nature of

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Figure 1.
the general problem we are investigating, it is clear that we have the freedom to apply an arbitrary linear transformation to the plane so that we can rotate, translate, compress, or expand the points in $\mathscr{P}$ as desired. Therefore it is natural to assume that all points in $\mathscr{P}$ are contained in the unit square $Q_{0}=\{(x, y): 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1,0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1\}$.

For each $i \geqslant 0$, we will let $\mathscr{G}_{i}$ denote the family of subsquares of $Q_{0}$ obtained by dividing $Q_{0}$ into $4^{i}$ subsquares of equal size. We will also let $\mathscr{G}=\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathscr{G}_{i}$. Hereafter, all shape 2 regions considered will be of the form $Q-Q^{\prime}$ where $Q, Q^{\prime} \in \mathscr{G}$ and $Q^{\prime}$ is a subsquare of $Q$. However, unless we specify that a square belongs to $\mathscr{G}$, it will only be assumed that it is contained in the unit square $Q_{0}$ and that the sides are parallel to the coordinate axes. A family $\mathscr{F}$ of regions is said to be almost disjoint when no point in the plane belongs to the interior of more than one region in $\mathscr{F}$. Our first lemma is concerned with covering the points in $\mathscr{P}$ with an almost disjoint family of regions of these two shapes.

Lemma 1. Let $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ be positive integers with $4 r_{1} \leqslant r_{2}$. Then let $m \geqslant r_{2}$ and let $\mathscr{P}$ be any set of $m$ points in the unit square. Then there exists an ordered pair $\left(c_{0}, d_{0}\right)$ of nonnegative integers and an almost disjoint family $\mathscr{F}$ of regions so that:

1. Each region is either a square from $\mathscr{G}$ or a shape 2 region of the form $Q-Q^{\prime}$ where $Q$, $Q^{\prime} \in \mathscr{G}$.
2. Each region in $\mathscr{F}$ contains at least $r_{1}$ but no more than $r_{2}$ points from $\mathscr{P}$.
3. $\mathscr{F}$ covers at least $c_{0} r_{2} / 4$ of the points in $\mathscr{P}$.
4. $\mathscr{F}$ fails to cover at most $\left(d_{0}+1\right) r_{1}$ of the points in $\mathscr{P}$.
5. $d_{0} \leqslant 4 c_{0}-4$.

Proof. The argument will involve an inductive construction beginning with small squares in $\mathscr{G}$ and proceeding up through larger squares. We will find it convenient to use the following terminology. If $Q \in \mathscr{G}_{i}$, the four squares in $\mathscr{S}_{i+1}$ contained in $Q$ are called immediate subsquares of $Q$. A square $Q$ is said to be dense if it contains at least $r_{2} / 4$ points from $\mathscr{P}$. Otherwise, the square is said to be sparse. For each $i \geqslant 0$, a square $Q$ in $\mathscr{G}_{i}$ is said to be concentrated when it contains more than $r_{2}$ points from $\mathscr{P}$ and has exactly one dense immediate subsquare. Now let $k$ be the least nonnegative integer for which every square in $\mathscr{G}_{k+1}$ is sparse. We now proceed to construct the desired family $\mathscr{F}$ by an algorithm which will involve examining in turn each of the families $\mathscr{G}_{k}, \mathscr{G}_{k-1}, \ldots, \mathscr{G}_{0}$. Based on a prescribed set of rules, certain regions will be added to the family $\mathscr{F}$ and others will be deleted. In addition certain dense squares will be assigned labels which will be an ordered pair of nonnegative integers. When a dense square $Q$ is assigned the label ( $c_{Q}, d_{Q}$ ), $c_{Q}$ will be called the cover number of $Q$ and $d_{O}$ will be called the deficiency number of $Q$. Once a square is labelled, it retains that label permanently.

We begin by letting $\mathscr{F}$ consist of the collection of dense squares in $\mathscr{G}_{k}$. Each dense square $Q$ in $\mathscr{G}_{k}$ will be labelled with the pair $(1,0)$. We then observe that the following properties concerning labelled dense squares are satisfied when $i=k$.

If $Q$ is a labelled dense square in some family $\mathscr{G}_{j}$ where $k \geqslant j \geqslant i$, then $P_{1}: d_{Q} \leqslant 4 c_{Q}-4$,
$\mathrm{P}_{2}: \mathscr{F}$ covers at least $c_{Q} r_{2} / 4$ of the points in $\mathscr{P}$ which belong to $Q$, and
$P_{3}: \mathscr{F}$ fails to cover at most $d_{Q} r_{1}$ of the points in $\mathscr{P}$ which belong to $Q$.
Furthermore, we observe that the following condition concerning unlabelled dense squares is satisfied vacuously when $i=k$.
$\mathrm{P}_{4}$ : If $Q$ is an unlabelled dense square in $\mathscr{G}_{j}$ where $k \geqslant j \geqslant i$, then $Q$ has a labelled subsquare $Q^{\prime}$ so that $Q-Q^{\prime}$ contains less than $r_{1}$ points from $\mathscr{P}$.

Finally, we observe that $\mathscr{F}$ satisfies the following two conditions.
$\mathrm{P}_{5}$ : Each region in $\mathscr{F}$ is either a square from $\mathscr{G}$ or is a shape 2 region of the form $Q-Q^{\prime}$ where $Q, Q^{\prime} \in \mathscr{G}$.
$\mathrm{P}_{6}$ : Each region in $\mathscr{F}$ contains at least $r_{1}$ but no more than $r_{2}$ points from $\mathscr{P}$.
Next, we suppose that for some integer $i_{0}$ with $k>i_{0} \geqslant 0$, we have a family $\mathscr{F}$ and a labelling of certain dense squares in $\mathscr{G}_{k} \cup \mathscr{G}_{k-1} \cup \cdots \cup \mathscr{G}_{i_{0}+1}$ so that these six properties are satisfied when $i=i_{0}+1$. We then provide the algorithm for updating the family $\mathscr{F}$ and for labelling certain dense squares in $\mathscr{G}_{i}$ so that each of the six properties is satisfied when $i=i_{0}$.

Let $Q$ be a dense square in $\mathscr{G}_{i_{0}}$.
Case 1. $Q$ contains at most $r_{2}$ points from $\mathscr{P}$. In this case, we update $\mathscr{F}$ by adding $Q$ and deleting any region previously in $\mathscr{F}$ contained in $Q$. The dense square $Q$ is labelled with the pair $(1,0)$.

Case 2. $Q$ is concentrated. In this case, we let $Q^{\prime}$ denote the unique immediate subsquare of $Q$ which is dense.
Subcase 2(a). $Q^{\prime}$ is labelled. If $Q-Q^{\prime}$ has less than $r_{1}$ points then $Q$ is unlabelled. If $Q-Q^{\prime}$ has at least $r_{1}$ points, add $Q-Q^{\prime}$ to $\mathscr{F}$ and label $Q$ as follows. Set $d_{O}=d_{Q^{\prime}}$. If $Q-Q^{\prime}$ has at least $r_{2} / 4$ points, set $c_{Q}=1+c_{Q^{\prime}}$. Otherwise, set $c_{Q}=c_{Q^{\prime}}$.
Subcase $b$. $Q^{\prime}$ is unlabelled. Let $Q^{\prime \prime}$ be a labelled subsquare so that $Q^{\prime}-Q^{\prime \prime}$ contains less than $r_{1}$ points. If $Q-Q^{\prime \prime}$ has less than $r_{1}$ points, then $Q$ is unlabelled. If $Q-Q^{\prime \prime}$ has at least $r_{1}$ points, add $Q-Q^{\prime \prime}$ to and label $Q$ as follows. Set $d_{Q}=d_{Q^{\prime \prime}}$. If $Q-Q^{\prime \prime}$ has at least $r_{2} / 4$ points, set $c_{Q}=1+c_{Q^{\prime \prime}}$. Otherwise, set $c_{Q}=c_{Q^{\prime \prime}}$.

In each of the first two cases, it is trivial to verify that the desired conditions are satisfied for the dense square $Q$. The remaining case requires only a little more effort.

Case 3. $Q$ has more than $r_{2}$ points from $\mathscr{P}$ but is not concentrated. In this case we let $Q_{1}, Q_{2}, \ldots, Q_{t}$ be the immediate subsquares of $Q$ which are dense, where $2 \leqslant t \leqslant 4$. For each $j$, we let $\left(c_{j}, d_{j}\right)$ be the label assigned to $Q_{j}$ if it has been labelled. When $Q_{j}$ is unlabelled, we let $\left(c_{j}, d_{j}\right)$ be the label assigned to a labelled subsquare $Q_{j}^{\prime}$ of $Q_{j}$ for which $Q_{i}-Q_{i}^{\prime}$ has less than $r_{1}$ points. The square $Q$ is then labelled with the pair $\left(c_{Q}, d_{Q}\right)$ where $c_{Q}=\sum_{j=1}^{t} c_{j}$ and $d_{Q}=4+\sum_{j=1}^{t} d_{j}$. The family $\mathscr{F}$ is then updated by adding any sparse immediate subsquare of $Q$ which contains at least $r_{1}$ points from $\mathscr{P}$.

It is obvious that $\mathscr{F}$ satisfies $P_{5}$ and $P_{6}$ so it remains only to show that the first three conditions are satisfied for this labelled square. First, we observe that $d_{Q}=4+\sum_{i=1}^{t} d_{i} \leqslant$ $4+\sum_{j=1}^{t} 4 c_{j}-4=(8-4 t)+4 c_{Q}-4$. Since $t \geqslant 2$, we conclude that $d_{Q} \leqslant 4 c_{Q}-4$ and thus $P_{1}$ is satisfied.

Property $P_{2}$ is clearly satisfied since $\mathscr{F}$ covers at least $c_{j} r_{2} / 4$ of the points in each dense immediate subsquare $Q_{i}$, and $c_{Q}=\sum_{i=1}^{t} c_{j}$. To see that property $P_{3}$ is satisfied, we see that for each $j, \mathscr{F}$ fails to cover at most $d_{j} r_{1}$ of the points in $Q_{j}$ when $Q_{i}$ is labelled. When $Q_{j}$ is not labelled, $\mathscr{F}$ fails to cover at most $d_{j} r_{1}$ of the points in $Q_{j}^{\prime}$ but also covers none of the points in $Q_{j}-Q_{j}^{\prime}$. Thus for each $j$, there are at most an additional $r_{1}$ points not covered. $\mathscr{F}$ covers all the points in each sparse immediate subsquare of $Q$ unless it
contains less than $r_{1}$ points. We conclude that each immediate subsquare of $Q$ can contribute at most $r_{1}$ additional points of $\mathscr{P}$ which are not covered by $\mathscr{F}$. Thus $\mathscr{F}$ fails to cover at most $\left(\sum_{j=1}^{t} d_{j} r_{1}\right)+4 r_{1}=d_{Q} r_{1}$ points in $Q$.

With this observation, we have completed the proof that this algorithm may be applied inductively, so we now consider the resulting family when the algorithm terminates at $i=0$. Let ( $c_{0}, d_{0}$ ) be the label applied to the unit square $Q_{0}$ if it is labelled by the algorithm. Otherwise, let ( $c_{0}, d_{0}$ ) be the label assigned to a labelled subsquare $Q_{0}^{\prime}$ of $Q_{0}$ for which $Q_{0}-Q_{0}^{\prime}$ has less than $r_{1}$ points. It is then immediate that the pair ( $c_{0}, d_{0}$ ) and the current family $\mathscr{F}$ satisfy the conclusion of the lemma.

Our next lemma is concerned with a covering of points from $\mathscr{P}$ by a family $\mathscr{F}$ of regions each of which is a square, although not necessarily a square in $\mathscr{G}$. When we use the term 'rectangle' in the proof of Lemma 2, it will be assumed that the sides are parallel to the coordinate axes.

Lemma 2. Let $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ be positive integers with $256 r_{1} \leqslant r_{2}$. Then let $m \geqslant r_{2}$ and let $\mathscr{P}$ be any set of $m$ points in the unit square. Then there exists an almost disioint family $\mathscr{F}$ of squares to that:

1. Each square in $\mathscr{F}$ contains at least $r_{1}$ but no more than $r_{2}$ points from $\mathscr{P}$.
2. $\mathscr{F}$ covers at least $m / 16$ of the $m$ points in $\mathscr{P}$.

Proof. We first apply the algorithm of the preceding lemma for the values $r_{1}^{\prime}=8 r_{1}$ and $r_{2}^{\prime}=r_{2}$ to produce a family $\mathscr{F}^{\prime}$ of regions some of which are squares in $\mathscr{G}$ and some of which are shape 2 regions of the form $Q-Q^{\prime}$ where $Q, Q^{\prime} \in \mathscr{G}$. Let ( $c_{0}, d_{0}$ ) be the pair associated with the family $\mathscr{F}^{\prime}$. We conclude that $\mathscr{F}^{\prime}$ covers at least $c_{0} r_{2}^{\prime} / 4$ points in $\mathscr{P}$ and fails to cover at most $\left(d_{0}+1\right) r_{1}^{\prime}$ points in $\mathscr{P}$. Since $c_{0} \geqslant \frac{1}{4} d_{0}$ we have

$$
\frac{c_{0} r_{2}^{\prime} / 4}{\left(d_{0}+1\right) r_{1}^{\prime}} \geqslant \frac{d_{0} r_{2} /(4 \times 4)}{2 d_{0}\left(8 r_{1}\right)} \geqslant 1 .
$$

Thus $\mathscr{F}$ covers at least $m / 2$ of the points in $\mathscr{P}$. It remains only to show that if $Q-Q^{\prime}$ is a Shape 2 region in $\mathscr{F}^{\prime}$, then there exists a square $Q^{\prime \prime}$ contained in $Q-Q^{\prime}$ so that $Q^{\prime \prime}$ contains at least $1 / 8$-th of the points in $\mathscr{P}$ which belong to $Q-Q^{\prime}$. However, there is a natural way to subdivide the region $Q-Q^{\prime}$ into rectangles by extending the sides of the small square.

Depending on whether $Q^{\prime}$ is located in the corner, on one side, or in the interior of $Q$, the number of rectangles determined is 3,5 , or 8 (see Figure 2) In any case, one of these rectangles is certain to contain at least $1 / 8$ th of the points in $\mathscr{P}$ belonging to $Q-Q^{\prime}$. Regardless of which rectangle enjoys this property, it is easy to see that there is a square $Q^{\prime \prime}$ contained in $Q-Q^{\prime}$ and containing the specified rectangle.

Note that in the proof of Lemma 2, the existence of $Q^{\prime \prime}$ depends heavily on the fact that $Q, Q \in \mathscr{G}$. If $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$ are arbitrary squares and $Q^{\prime}$ is in the interior of $Q$ but is


Figure 2.
very close to the boundary of $Q$ in comparison to the size of $Q^{\prime}$, then the existence of $Q^{\prime \prime}$ cannot be asserted.

## 3. The Proof of the Principal Theorem

Throughout this section, we assume that $\mathscr{P}=\left\{p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{n}\right\}$ is a collection of $n$ points in the unit square and that $\mathscr{L}=\left\{l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{t}\right\}$ is a family of $t=c n^{1 / 2}$ lines each of which contains at least $\delta n^{1 / 2}$ points from $\mathscr{P}$. Without loss of generality, we may assume $\delta$ is small, say $\delta<1 / 10$. We will then derive a series of assumptions that can be made concerning the properties of this configuration culminating in a contradiction when $c$ and $n$ are sufficiently large in comparison to $1 / \delta$. At a crucial stage of the argument, we will use the second covering lemma developed in the preceding section. We will also require the regularity lemma developed by the first author in [5]. In this paper, we present only the material necessary to understand and apply this lemma and refer the reader to [5] for the argument.

Let $G$ be a graph on a set $S$, and let $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ be disjoint nonempty subsets of $S$. Then we denote by $G\left(A_{1}, A_{2}\right)$ the subgraph of $G$ whose vertex set is $A_{1} \cup A_{2}$ and whose edge set contains those edges in $G$ with one endpoint in each of $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$. The density of $G\left(A_{1}, A_{2}\right)$ is the ratio of the number of edges in $G\left(A_{1}, A_{2}\right)$ divided by $\left|A_{1}\right|\left|A_{2}\right|$. The density of $G\left(A_{1}, A_{2}\right)$ measures the probability that an ordered pair $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right) \in A_{1} \times A_{2}$ chosen at random is an edge in $G$.

Now let $\varepsilon$ be a small positive number. Then we say that $G\left(A_{1}, A_{2}\right)$ is $\varepsilon$-regular provided that the density of $G\left(A_{1}^{\prime}, A_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ differs from the density of $G\left(A_{1}, A_{2}\right)$ by at most $\varepsilon$ whenever $A_{i}^{\prime} \subseteq A_{i}$ and $\left|A_{i}^{\prime}\right| \geqslant \varepsilon\left|A_{i}\right|$ for $i=1,2$.

Lemma 3 (Szemerédi [5]). For every $\varepsilon \in 0$ and every positive integer $M$, there exist constants $N_{1}$ and $N_{2}$ so that if $n \geqslant N_{2}$ and $G$ is any graph whose vertex set is an n-element set $S$, then there exists a partition $S=A_{1} \cup A_{2} \cup \cdots \cup A_{k}$ so that:

1. The partition is equipartite, i.e. $\left\|A_{i_{1}}|-| A_{i_{2}}\right\| \leqslant 1, \quad$ for $i_{1}, i_{2}=1,2, \ldots, k$.
2. $M \leqslant k \leqslant N_{1}$.
3. For all but at most $\varepsilon\binom{k}{2}$ of the pairs $\left\{A_{i_{1}}, A_{i_{2}}\right\}$, the subgraph $G\left(A_{i_{1}}, A_{i_{2}}\right)$ is $\varepsilon$-regular.

This regularity lemma will be applied to a graph whose vertex set is a subset of the set $\mathscr{L}$ of lines in our configuration. But we must first take care of some preliminaries. In particular we must bound the number of lines which are incident with any point in $\mathscr{P}$. We begin by applying an appropriate linear transformation so that each line in $\mathscr{L}$ has a slope from the interval $(-1 / 2,1 / 2)$.

For each line $l_{j} \in \mathscr{L}$, we choose $\delta n^{1 / 2}$ points from $\mathscr{P}$ which lie on the line $l_{j}$, and hereafter when we refer to an incidence between a point in $\mathscr{P}$ and the line $l_{j}$, it will be assumed that the point in question is one of the $\delta n^{1 / 2}$ chosen points. For each $i$, we let $d_{i}$ count the number of lines from $\mathscr{L}$ with which $p_{i}$ is incident (in this restricted sense). We call $d_{i}$ the degree of the point $p_{i}$. Then $\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}=\delta c n$.

Similarly, if $l_{j}$ and $l_{k}$ are distinct lines in $\mathscr{L}$, we say that $l_{j}$ and $l_{k}$ intersect when there is a point $p_{i} \in \mathscr{P}$ which is incident with both of them. When $l_{j}$ and $l_{k}$ are distinct nonparallel lines in $\mathscr{L}$ and there is no point in $\mathscr{P}$ incident with both, we say $l_{j}$ and $l_{k}$ cross. We then let $E$ denote the set of pairs of intersecting lines. Later, we will consider a subset of $E$ as the edge set of a graph $G$ whose vertices are lines in $\mathscr{L}$. For now, we note the $|E|=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\binom{d_{i}}{2} \leqslant\left(\begin{array}{c}c n_{2}^{1 / 2}\end{array}\right)$. On the otherhand

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}^{2} \geqslant \frac{1}{n}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}\right)^{2}=\delta^{2} c^{2} n
$$

so that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n}\binom{d_{i}}{2}=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}^{2}-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i} \geqslant \frac{1}{2} \delta^{2} c^{2} n-\frac{1}{2} \delta c n>\delta^{3} c^{2} n
$$

and

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}^{2}=2 \sum_{i=1}^{n}\binom{d_{i}}{2}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i} \leqslant 2 c^{2} n .
$$

Since $\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}^{2} \leqslant 2 c^{2} n$, we conclude that less that $2 \delta^{4} n$ points from $\mathscr{P}$ have degree exceeding $c / \delta^{2}$. Now suppose there are $s$ points in $\mathscr{P}$ which have degree less than $\delta^{2} c$. Then consider the equation $\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}=\delta c n$ and the inequality $\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}^{2} \leqslant 2 c^{2} n$. We now proceed to systematically change the numbers $d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}$, but at all times we will insure that these two constraints are satisfied. Once we begin to change the numbers $d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}$, their physical significance vanishes, but we are at this moment only concerned with an inequality for $s$. Should any one of the degrees, say $d_{i}$, be less than $\delta^{2} c$. We then let $\bar{d}$ denote the average degree of the remaining $n-s$ points, and observe We then perform the natural 'local exchange' of increasing $d_{i}$ by 1 and decreasing $d_{j}$ by 1. Since $\left(d_{i}+1\right)^{2}+\left(d_{j}-1\right)^{2} \leqslant d_{i}^{2}+d_{i}^{2}$, we conclude that the two constraints $\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}=\delta c n$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}^{2} \leqslant 2 c^{2} n$ are satisfied after this exchange has been performed. After a series of such exchanges and a relabelling of the points, we may assume that $d_{1}=d_{2}=\cdots=d_{s}=$ $\delta^{2} c$. We then let $\bar{d}$ denote the average degree of the remaining $n-s$ points, and observe that:

$$
s\left(\delta^{2} c\right)+(n-s) \bar{d}=\delta c n, \quad \text { and } \quad s\left(\delta^{2} c\right)^{2}+(n-s) \bar{d}^{2} \leqslant 2 c^{2} n
$$

A simple calculation shows that $s\left(2+\delta^{2}-2 \delta^{3}\right)<n\left(2-\delta^{2}\right)$ and thus $s<n\left(1-\delta^{3}\right)$. Since $\delta^{3} n-\delta^{4} n>\delta^{4} n$, it follows that there are $\delta^{4} n$ points in $\mathscr{P}$ whose degree is at least $\delta^{2} c$ but no more than $c / \delta^{2}$. Let $m=\delta^{4} n$ and relabel the points in $\mathscr{P}$ so that each of the points in the set $\mathscr{B}=\left\{p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{m}\right\}$ satisfy the property that $\delta^{2} c \leqslant d_{i} \leqslant c / \delta^{2}$. We refer to these points as bounded points.

There are at least $\sum_{i=1}^{m} d_{i} \geqslant \delta^{4} n \delta^{2} c=\delta^{6} c n$ incidences between bounded points and lines in $\mathscr{L}$. Suppose there are $s$ lines in $\mathscr{L}$ which have less than $\delta^{7} n^{1 / 2}$ incidences with bounded points. Then it follows that $s \delta^{7} n^{1 / 2}+\left(c n^{1 / 2}-s\right) \delta n^{1 / 2}>\delta^{6} c n$. Thus ( $1-$ $\left.\delta^{5}\right) c n^{1 / 2}>s\left(1-\delta^{6}\right)$, and $s<\left(1-\delta^{6}\right) c n^{1 / 2}$. We conclude that there are at least $\delta^{6} c n^{1 / 2}$ lines in $\mathscr{L}$ each having at least $\delta^{7} n^{1 / 2}$ incidences with points in the set $\mathscr{B}$ of $\delta^{4} n$ bounded points.

At this point, we have arrived at a new configuration with the additional property that the degree of any point does not exceed the average by an appreciable amount. So we can reformulate the properties of this configuration as follows. We have a set $\mathscr{B}=$ $\left\{p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{m}\right\}$ of $m$ points where $m=\delta^{4} n$. Setting $c_{1}=\delta^{4} c$ and $\delta_{1}=\delta^{5}$ so that $\delta^{6} \mathrm{cn}^{1 / 2}=$ $c_{1} m^{1 / 2}$ and $\delta^{7} n=\delta^{1} m^{1 / 2}$, then we have a family $\mathscr{L}_{\mathscr{B}}=\left\{l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{t_{1}}\right\}$ of $t_{1}=c_{1} m^{1 / 2}$ lines each of which has exactly $\delta^{1} \mathrm{~m}^{1 / 2}$ incidences with points from $\mathscr{B}$.

For each $i=1,2, \ldots, m$, there are $e_{i}$ lines from $\mathscr{L}_{\mathscr{B}}$ which are incident with $p_{i}$. There are $\sum_{i=1}^{m} e_{i}=\delta_{1} c_{1} m$ incidences and $\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left({ }_{2}^{e_{i}}\right)>\delta_{1}^{3} c_{1}^{2} m$ pairs of lines from $\mathscr{L}_{\mathscr{B}}$ which intersect in a point from $\mathscr{B}$ incident with both. Most importantly, we know that $e_{i} \leqslant d_{i} \leqslant c / \delta^{2}=$ $c_{1} / \delta_{1}^{6 / 5}<c_{1} / \delta_{1}^{2}$. The reader should note that we no longer have a lower bound on the degrees $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{m}$, since we have discarded some of the lines in $\mathscr{L}$.

Next, we let $G$ be the graph whose vertex set is the set $\mathscr{L}_{\mathscr{F}}$ of lines and whose edge set is the set $E_{\beta}$ of pairs of lines from $\mathscr{L}_{\mathscr{B}}$ which intersect. We know $\left|E_{\mathscr{R}}\right| \geqslant \delta_{1}^{3} c_{1}^{2} m$. Then let $M=\max \left\{10^{20}, \delta^{-100}\right\}$, and set $\varepsilon=1 / M$. For these values of $\varepsilon$ and $M$, we let $N_{1}$ and $N_{2}$ be the constants provided by the regularity lemma. We note that $N_{2}$ is very large
compared to $N_{1}$. Hereafter, we will assume that $n \geqslant N_{1}^{21}$ and $c \geqslant N_{2}$. With these assumptions, it is certainly true that $c_{1} m^{1 / 2} \geqslant N_{2}$ so that the graph $G$ has at least $N_{2}$ vertices.

We let $\mathscr{L}_{\mathscr{B}}=\mathscr{L}_{1} \cup \mathscr{L}_{2} \cup \cdots \cup \mathscr{L}_{k}$ be the partition guaranteed by the regularity lemma. Note that each $\mathscr{L}_{i}$ contains $c_{1} m^{1 / 2} / k$ lines. Then we let $E_{1}$ denote those edges with both end points in the same subset $\mathscr{L}_{i}$ for some. $i$. It follows that $\left|E_{1}\right| \leqslant k\left(c_{1} m^{1 / 2} / k\right)^{2} \leqslant c_{1}^{2} m / M<$ $\delta_{1}^{4} c_{1}^{2} m$. Then let $E_{2}$ denote the set of edges between distinct subsets $\left(\mathscr{L}_{i_{1}}, \mathscr{L}_{i_{2}}\right)$ for which $G\left(\mathscr{L}_{i_{1}}, \mathscr{L}_{i_{2}}\right)$ is not $\varepsilon$-regular. Then $\left|E_{2}\right| \leqslant \varepsilon\binom{k}{2}\left(c_{1} m^{1 / 2} / k\right)^{2} \leqslant \delta_{1}^{4} c_{1}^{2} m$. So there are at least $\delta_{1}^{3} c_{1}^{2} m-2 \delta_{1}^{4} c_{1}^{2} m>\delta_{1}^{4} c_{1}^{2} m$ edges whose end points lie in distinct subsets $\mathscr{L}_{i_{1}}, \mathscr{L}_{i_{2}}$ for which $G\left(\mathscr{L}_{i_{1}}, \mathscr{L}_{i_{2}}\right)$ is $\varepsilon$-regular. We may then choose an $\varepsilon$-regular pair ( $\left.\mathscr{L}_{i_{1}}, \mathscr{L}_{i_{2}}\right)$ so that there are at least $\delta_{1}^{4} c_{1}^{2} m /\binom{k}{2} \geqslant \delta_{1}^{4} c_{1}^{2} m / k^{2}$ edges between $\mathscr{L}_{i_{1}}$ and $\mathscr{L}_{i_{2}}$. We can relabel the subsets so that $i_{1}=1$ and $i_{2}=2$. Note that the density of $G\left(\mathscr{L}_{1}, \mathscr{L}_{2}\right)$ is at least $\delta_{1}^{4}$.

Now suppose that $\mathscr{L}^{\prime}$ is any set of parallel lines in $\mathscr{L}_{\mathscr{B}}$. Then $\left|\mathscr{L}^{\prime}\right| \delta_{1} m^{1 / 2} \leqslant m$ so that $\left|\mathscr{L}^{\prime}\right| \leqslant\left(1 / \delta_{1}\right) m^{1 / 2}<\left|\mathscr{L}_{1}\right| / 3$. Now all lines have slope in the interval $\left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)$, so we can choose a line $l_{0}$ with slope $m_{0}$ so that at least one-third of the lines in $\mathscr{L}_{1}$ have slope in the interval ( $m_{0}, \frac{1}{2}$ ), and at least one-third have slope in the interval $\left(-\frac{1}{2}, m_{0}\right)$. As for $\mathscr{L}_{2}$, we know that either one-third of the lines in $\mathscr{L}_{2}$ have slope in ( $m_{0}, \frac{1}{2}$ ), or at least one third have slope in $\left(-\frac{1}{2}, \mathrm{~m}_{0}\right)$. So without loss of generality we may assume that $\mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime}$ and $\mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime}$ each contain ( $c_{1} m^{1 / 2}$ ) $/ 3 k$ lines, each line from $\mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime}$ has slope in the interval ( $m_{0}, \frac{1}{2}$ ) and each line from $\mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime}$ has in the interval $\left(-\frac{1}{2}, m_{0}\right)$.

Next, we rotate the points in $\mathscr{B}$ so that the line $l_{0}$ has slope zero. Since the rotation is at most $30^{\circ}$, we know that each line in $\mathscr{L}$ has slope in the interval $\left(-3 / 2^{1 / 2}, 3 / 2^{1 / 2}\right)$. Now each line in $\mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime}$ has positive slope and each line in $\mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime}$ has negative slope. For each pair of vertices $\left(l_{1}, l_{2}\right)$ from $\mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime} \times \mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime}$ regardless of whether this pair intersects or crosses, we let $\alpha\left(l_{1}, l_{2}\right)$ measure the angle formed by this pair of lines (Figure 3). By convention, we measure the angle which includes the $x$-axis.


Figure 3.

We know that $0^{\circ} \leqslant \alpha\left(l_{1}, l_{2}\right) \leqslant 120^{\circ}$. So we may apply a linear transformation of the form $(x, y) \rightarrow(a x, b y)$ so that the average value of $\alpha\left(l_{1}, l_{2}\right)$ is $90^{\circ}$. Note that it is not necessary for any one of these angles to be exactly $90^{\circ}$ in order for the average to be $90^{\circ}$. However it is easy to see that there must be a relatively large fraction of the angles which are somewhat near $90^{\circ}$, say in the interval [ $30^{\circ}, 150^{\circ}$ ]. More precisely, the pigeonhole principle shows that there exist subsets $\mathscr{L}_{i}^{\prime \prime} \subseteq \mathscr{L}_{i}^{\prime}$ with $\left|\mathscr{L}_{i}^{\prime \prime}\right|=\frac{1}{10}\left|\mathscr{L}_{i}^{\prime}\right|$ for $i=1,2$ so that $\alpha\left(l_{1}, l_{2}\right)$ is in the interval $\left[30^{\circ}, 150^{\circ}\right]$ for every $l_{1} \in \mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ and every $l_{2} \in \mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime \prime}$. A second plication of the pigeon-hole principle followed by a suitable linear transformation allows us to conclude that there exist subsets $\mathscr{L}_{i}^{\prime \prime \prime} \subseteq \mathscr{L}_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ with $\left|\mathscr{L}_{i}^{\prime \prime \prime}\right|=\frac{1}{1000}\left|\mathscr{L}_{i}^{\prime \prime}\right|$ so that each line $l_{1}$ in $\mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ has slope in the interval $[0 \cdot 99,1 \cdot 01]$ and each line $l_{2}$ in $\mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ has slope in the interval $[-1.01,-0.99]$. As a consequence, $\alpha\left(l_{1}, l_{2}\right)$ is very nearly $90^{\circ}$. The essential
fact is that the regularity lemma guarantees that many of the pairs $\left(l_{1}, l_{2}\right) \in \mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime \prime \prime} \times \mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ will be edges in the graph $G$. This follows since $1 / 3 \cdot 10^{4}>\varepsilon$. So the density of $G\left(\mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime \prime \prime}, \mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime \prime \prime}\right) \geqslant$ density of $G\left(\mathscr{L}_{1}, \mathscr{L}_{2}\right)-\varepsilon \geqslant \delta_{1}^{4}-\varepsilon \geqslant \delta_{1}^{5}$. Hence there are at least $\delta_{1}^{5} c_{1}^{2} m / 9 \cdot 10^{8} k^{2} \geqslant c_{1}^{2} m / k^{3}$ pairs $\left(l_{1}, l_{2}\right)$ from $\mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime \prime \prime} \times \mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ which intersect in a point $p_{i} \in \mathscr{B}$ which is incident with both of these lines.

For each $p_{i} \in \mathscr{B}$, we let $a_{i}$ count the number of lines from $\mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ with which $p_{i}$ is incident and $b_{i}$ count the number of lines from $\mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ with which $p_{i}$ is incident. Since $a_{i}+b_{i} \leqslant e_{i}$, we know that neither $a_{i}$ nor $b_{i}$ can exceed $c_{1} / \delta_{1}^{2}$. Now suppose there are $s$ points in $\mathscr{B}$ for which either $a_{i}<c_{1} / k^{4}$ or $b_{i}<c_{1} / k^{4}$. Then it follows that

$$
s \frac{c_{1}}{k^{4}} \cdot \frac{c_{1}}{\delta_{1}^{2}}+(m-s) \frac{c_{1}}{\delta_{1}^{2}} \frac{c_{1}}{\delta_{1}^{2}} \geqslant \frac{c_{1}^{2} m}{k^{3}}
$$

and thus $s<m[1-(1 / k)]$.
So there $m / k^{4}$ points which satisfy the inequalities: $c_{1} / k^{4} \leqslant a_{i}, b_{i} \leqslant c_{1} / \delta^{2} . c_{1} / k^{4} \leqslant a_{i}$, $b_{i} \leqslant c_{1} / \delta_{1}^{2}$. We refer to these points as doubly bounded and let $\mathscr{D}$ be the set of $m / k^{4}$ doubly bounded points. Then there are at least $\left(m / k^{4}\right)\left(c_{1} / k^{4}\right)\left(c_{1} / k^{4}\right)$ pairs $\left(l_{1}, l_{2}\right) \in$ $\mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime \prime \prime} \times \mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ which intersect in a doubly bounded point incident with both $l_{1}$ and $l_{2}$.

Next, we apply the covering lemma of section 2 to the doubly bounded points with $r_{1}=N_{1}^{16}$ and $r_{2}=256 r_{1}$. Of course this requires $m / k^{4} \geqslant N_{1}^{16}$ which is certainly true when $n \geqslant N_{1}^{21}$. So we may assume that $\mathscr{F}$ is a family of almost disjoint squares covering at least $1 / 16-$ th of the $m / k^{4}$ doubly bounded points so that each square contains at least $r_{1}$ but no more than $r_{2}$ doubly bounded points. Now let $Q$ be any square in $\mathscr{F}$. Consider the four triangles into which $Q$ is subdivided by its diagonals (Figure 4)


Figure 4.

At least one of these triangles contains at least $1 / 4$ th of the doubly bounded points in $Q$. Let $T$ be such a triangle. Then for each doubly bounded point $p_{i} \in T$ we may choose $a_{i}-r_{2}$ lines from $\mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ which are incident with $p_{i}$ but are not incident with any other doubly bounded point in $Q$. Similarly, we may choose $b_{i}-r_{2}$ lines from $\mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ which are incident to $p_{i}$ but are not incident with any other doubly bounded point in $Q$. We note that if $l_{1}$ is a line from $\mathscr{L}_{1}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ chosen for $p_{i}, l_{2}$ is a line from $\mathscr{L}_{2}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ chosen for a distinct $p_{j}$, and these lines intersect in a doubly bounded point $p_{k}$ incident with both lines, then $p_{k}$ does not belong to $Q$ (Figure 5).

It is then easy to see that if $p_{i}$ and $p_{i}$ are distinct points in the triangle $T$ there are many crossings which occur inside $Q$ (Figure 6). Since $a_{i}-r_{2} \geqslant c_{1} / k^{5}$ and $b_{i}-r_{2} \geqslant c_{1} / k^{5}$, it is easy to see that regardless of the location of $p_{i}$ and $p_{i}$ in $T, T$, there are at least $c_{1}^{2} / k^{10}$ such crossings.

Since there are at least $\binom{r_{1}}{2} / 4$ pairs of doubly bounded points to be considered in each square and there are at least $m / 16 k^{4} r_{2}$ squares, we conclude that there are at least

$$
\frac{m}{16 k^{4} r_{2}} \frac{\binom{r_{1}}{2}}{4} \frac{c_{1}^{2}}{k^{10}}
$$



Figure 5.


Figure 6.
such crossings altogether. However,

$$
\frac{m}{16 k^{4} r_{2}} \frac{\binom{r_{1}}{2}}{4} \frac{c_{1}^{2}}{k^{10}} \geqslant \frac{r_{1}}{k^{15}} c_{1}^{2} m \geqslant \frac{r_{1}}{k^{16}} c^{2} n \geqslant \frac{r_{1}}{N_{1}^{16}} c^{2} n=c^{2} n>\binom{c n^{1 / 2}}{2}
$$

This implies that the number of crossings exceeds the total number of pairs of lines. Clearly this is impossible, and with this contradiction, the proof of the principal theorem is complete.

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