# Stabbing Pairwise Intersecting Disks by Five Points 

Sariel Har-Peled ${ }^{1}$

Department of Computer Science, University of Illinois, Urbana, IL 61801, USA
sariel@illinois.edu
(D) https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2638-9635

Haim Kaplan
School of Computer Science, Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv 69978, Israel
haimk@tau.ac.il
Wolfgang Mulzer ${ }^{2}$
Institut für Informatik, Freie Universität Berlin, 14195 Berlin, Germany mulzer@inf.fu-berlin.de
(D) https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1948-5840

## Liam Roditty

Department of Computer Science, Bar Ilan University, Ramat Gan 5290002, Israel liamr@macs.biu.ac.il

## Paul Seiferth ${ }^{3}$

Institut für Informatik, Freie Universität Berlin, 14195 Berlin, Germany
pseiferth@inf.fu-berlin.de

## Micha Sharir ${ }^{4}$

School of Computer Science, Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv 69978, Israel michas@tau.ac.il

## Max Willert

Institut für Informatik, Freie Universität Berlin, 14195 Berlin, Germany willerma@inf.fu-berlin.de


#### Abstract

Suppose we are given a set $\mathcal{D}$ of $n$ pairwise intersecting disks in the plane. A planar point set $P$ stabs $\mathcal{D}$ if and only if each disk in $\mathcal{D}$ contains at least one point from $P$. We present a deterministic algorithm that takes $O(n)$ time to find five points that stab $\mathcal{D}$. Furthermore, we give a simple example of 13 pairwise intersecting disks that cannot be stabbed by three points.

This provides a simple - albeit slightly weaker - algorithmic version of a classical result by Danzer that such a set $\mathcal{D}$ can always be stabbed by four points.


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## 1 Introduction

Let $\mathcal{D}$ be a set of $n$ disks in the plane. If every three disks in $\mathcal{D}$ intersect, then Helly's theorem shows that the whole intersection $\bigcap \mathcal{D}$ of $\mathcal{D}$ is nonempty $[9,10,11]$. In other words, there is a single point $p$ that lies in all disks of $\mathcal{D}$, i.e., $p$ stabs $\mathcal{D}$. More generally, when we know only that every pair of disks in $\mathcal{D}$ intersect, there must be a point set $P$ of constant size such that each disk in $\mathcal{D}$ contains at least one point in $P$. It is fairly easy to give an upper bound on the size of $P$, but for some time, the exact bound remained elusive. Eventually, in July 1956 at an Oberwolfach seminar, Danzer presented the answer: four points are always sufficient and sometimes necessary to stab any finite set of pairwise intersecting disks in the plane (see [5]). Danzer was not satisfied with his original argument, so he never formally published it. In 1986, he presented a new proof [5]. Previously, in 1981, Stachó had already given an alternative proof [15], building on a previous construction of five stabbing points [14]. This line of work was motivated by a result of Hadwiger and Debrunner, who showed that three points suffice to stab any finite set of pairwise intersecting unit disks [8]. In later work, these results were significantly generalized and extended, culminating in the celebrated $(p, q)$-theorem that was proven by Alon and Kleitman in 1992 [1]. See also a recent paper by Dumitrescu and Jiang that studies generalizations of the stabbing problem for translates and homothets of a convex body [6].

Danzer's published proof [5] is fairly involved and uses a compactness argument, and part of it is based on an undetailed verification by computer. There seems to be no obvious way to turn it into an efficient algorithm for finding a stabbing set of size four. The two constructions of Stachó [15, 14] are simpler, but they start with three disks in $\mathcal{D}$ with empty intersection and maximum inscribed circle. It is not clear to us how to find such a triple quickly (in, say, near-linear time). Here, we present a new argument that yields five stabbing points. Our proof is constructive, and it lets us find the stabbing set in deterministic linear time.

As for lower bounds, Grünbaum gave an example of 21 pairwise intersecting disks that cannot be stabbed by three points [7]. Later, Danzer reduced the number of disks to ten [5]. This example is close to optimal, because every set of eight disks can be stabbed by three points [14]. It is hard to verify Danzer's lower bound example - even with dynamic geometry software, the positions of the disks cannot be visualized easily. Here, we present a simple construction that needs 13 disks and can be verified by inspection.

## 2 The Geometry of Pairwise Intersecting Disks

Let $\mathcal{D}$ be a set of $n$ pairwise intersecting disks in the plane. A disk $D_{i} \in \mathcal{D}$ is given by its center $c_{i}$ and its radius $r_{i}$. To simplify the analysis, we make the following assumptions: (i) the radii of the disks are pairwise distinct; (ii) the intersection of any two disks has a nonempty interior; and (iii) the intersection of any three disks is either empty or has a nonempty interior. A simple perturbation argument can then handle the degenerate cases.


Figure 1 left: At least one lens angle is large. right: $D_{1}$ and $E$ have the same radii and lens angle $2 \pi / 3$. By Lemma $2.2, D_{2}$ is a subset of $E .\left\{c_{1}, c, p, q\right\}$ is the set $P$ from Lemma 2.4.

The lens of two disks $D_{i}, D_{j} \in \mathcal{D}$ is the set $L_{i, j}=D_{i} \cap D_{j}$. Let $u$ be any of the two intersection points of $\partial D_{i}$ and $\partial D_{j}$. The angle $\angle c_{i} u c_{j}$ is called the lens angle of $D_{i}$ and $D_{j}$. It is at most $\pi$. A finite set $\mathcal{C}$ of disks is Helly if their common intersection $\cap \mathcal{C}$ is nonempty. Otherwise, $\mathcal{C}$ is non-Helly. We present some useful geometric lemmas.

- Lemma 2.1. Let $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}\right\}$ be a set of three pairwise intersecting disks that is non-Helly. Then, the set contains two disks with lens angle larger than $2 \pi / 3$.

Proof. Since $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}\right\}$ is non-Helly, the lenses $L_{1,2}, L_{1,3}$ and $L_{2,3}$ are pairwise disjoint. Let $u$ be the vertex of $L_{1,2}$ nearer to $D_{3}$, and let $v, w$ be the analogous vertices of $L_{1,3}$ and $L_{2,3}$ (see Figure 1, left). Consider the simple hexagon $c_{1} u c_{2} w c_{3} v$, and write $\angle u, \angle v$, and $\angle w$ for its interior angles at $u, v$, and $w$. The sum of all interior angles is $4 \pi$. Thus, $\angle u+\angle v+\angle w<4 \pi$, so at least one angle is less than $4 \pi / 3$. It follows that the corresponding exterior angle at $u$, $v$, or $w$ must be larger than $2 \pi / 3$.

- Lemma 2.2. Let $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ be two intersecting disks with $r_{1} \geq r_{2}$ and lens angle at least $2 \pi / 3$. Let $E$ be the unique disk with radius $r_{1}$ and center $c$, such that (i) the centers $c_{1}, c_{2}$, and $c$ are collinear and $c$ lies on the same side of $c_{1}$ as $c_{2}$; and (ii) the lens angle of $D_{1}$ and $E$ is exactly $2 \pi / 3$ (see Figure 1, right). Then, if $c_{2}$ lies between $c_{1}$ and $c$, we have $D_{2} \subseteq E$.

Proof. Let $x \in D_{2}$. Since $c_{2}$ lies between $c_{1}$ and $c$, the triangle inequality gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
|x c| \leq\left|x c_{2}\right|+\left|c_{2} c\right|=\left|x c_{2}\right|+\left|c_{1} c\right|-\left|c_{1} c_{2}\right| . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $x \in D_{2}$, we get $\left|x c_{2}\right| \leq r_{2}$. Also, since $D_{1}$ and $E$ have radius $r_{1}$ each and lens angle $2 \pi / 3$, it follows that $\left|c_{1} c\right|=\sqrt{3} r_{1}$. Finally, $\left|c_{1} c_{2}\right|=\sqrt{r_{1}^{2}+r_{2}^{2}-2 r_{1} r_{2} \cos \alpha}$, by the law of cosines, where $\alpha$ is the lens angle of $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$. As $\alpha \geq 2 \pi / 3$ and $r_{1} \geq r_{2}$, we get $\cos \alpha \leq-1 / 2=(\sqrt{3}-3 / 2)-\sqrt{3}+1 \leq(\sqrt{3}-3 / 2) r_{1} / r_{2}-\sqrt{3}+1$, As such, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|c_{1} c_{2}\right|^{2} & =r_{1}^{2}+r_{2}^{2}-2 r_{1} r_{2} \cos \alpha \geq r_{1}^{2}+r_{2}^{2}-2 r_{1} r_{2}\left((\sqrt{3}-3 / 2) \frac{r_{1}}{r_{2}}-\sqrt{3}+1\right) \\
& =r_{1}^{2}-2(\sqrt{3}-3 / 2) r_{1}^{2}+2(-\sqrt{3}+1) r_{1} r_{2}+r_{2}^{2} \\
& =(1-2 \sqrt{3}+3) r_{1}^{2}+2(-\sqrt{3}+1) r_{1} r_{2}+r_{2}^{2}=\left(r_{1}(\sqrt{3}-1)+r_{2}\right)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Plugging this into Eq. (1) gives $|x c| \leq r_{2}+\sqrt{3} r_{1}-\left(r_{1}(\sqrt{3}-1)+r_{2}\right)=r_{1}$, i.e., $x \in E$.

- Lemma 2.3. Let $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ be two intersecting disks with equal radius $r$ and lens angle $2 \pi / 3$. There is a set $P$ of four points so that any disk $F$ of radius at least $r$ that intersects both $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ contains a point of $P$.


Figure 2 left: $P=\left\{c_{1}, c_{2}, p, q\right\}$ is the stabbing set. The green $\operatorname{arc} \gamma=\partial\left(D_{1}^{2} \cap D_{2}^{2}\right) \cap Q$ is covered by $D_{1}^{2} \cap D_{q}$. right: Situation (ii) in the proof of Lemma 2.4: $D_{2} \nsubseteq E . x$ is an arbitrary point in $D_{2} \cap F \cap k^{+}$. The angle at $c$ in the triangle $\Delta x c c_{2}$ is $\geq \pi / 2$.

Proof. Consider the two tangent lines of $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$, and let $p$ and $q$ be the midpoints on these lines between the respective two tangency points. We set $P=\left\{c_{1}, c_{2}, p, q\right\}$ (see Figure 2, left).

Given the disk $F$ that intersects both $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$, we shrink its radius, keeping its center fixed, until either the radius becomes $r$ or until $F$ is tangent to $D_{1}$ or $D_{2}$. Suppose the latter case holds and $F$ is tangent to $D_{1}$. We move the center of $F$ continuously along the line spanned by the center of $F$ and $c_{1}$ towards $c_{1}$, decreasing the radius of $F$ to maintain the tangency. We stop when either the radius of $F$ reaches $r$ or $F$ becomes tangent to $D_{2}$. We obtain a disk $G \subseteq F$ with center $c=\left(c_{x}, c_{y}\right)$ so that either: (i) radius $(G)=r$ and $G$ intersects both $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$; or (ii) radius $(G) \geq r$ and $G$ is tangent to both $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$. Since $G \subseteq F$, it suffices to show that $G \cap P \neq \emptyset$. We introduce a coordinate system, setting the origin $o$ midway between $c_{1}$ and $c_{2}$, so that the $y$-axis passes through $p$ and $q$. Then, as in Figure 2 (left), we have $c_{1}=(-\sqrt{3} r / 2,0), c_{2}=(\sqrt{3} r / 2,0), q=(0, r)$, and $p=(0,-r)$.

For case (i), let $D_{1}^{2}$ be the disk of radius $2 r$ centered at $c_{1}$, and $D_{2}^{2}$ the disk of radius $2 r$ centered at $c_{2}$. Since $G$ has radius $r$ and intersects both $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$, its center $c$ has distance at most $2 r$ from both $c_{1}$ and $c_{2}$, i.e., $c \in D_{1}^{2} \cap D_{2}^{2}$. Let $D_{p}$ and $D_{q}$ be the two disks of radius $r$ centered at $p$ and $q$. We will show that $D_{1}^{2} \cap D_{2}^{2} \subseteq D_{1} \cup D_{2} \cup D_{p} \cup D_{q}$. Then it is immediate that $G \cap P \neq \emptyset$. By symmetry, it is enough to focus on the upper-right quadrant $Q=\{(x, y) \mid x \geq 0, y \geq 0\}$. We show that all points in $D_{1}^{2} \cap Q$ are covered by $D_{2} \cup D_{q}$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $r=1$. Then, the two intersection points of $D_{1}^{2}$ and $D_{q}$ are $r_{1}=\left(\frac{5 \sqrt{3}-2 \sqrt{87}}{28}, \frac{38+3 \sqrt{29}}{28}\right) \approx(-0.36,1.93)$ and $r_{2}=\left(\frac{5 \sqrt{3}+2 \sqrt{87}}{28}, \frac{38-3 \sqrt{29}}{28}\right) \approx$ $(0.98,0.78)$, and the two intersection points of $D_{1}^{2}$ and $D_{2}$ are $s_{1}=\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, 1\right) \approx(0.87,1)$ and $s_{2}=\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2},-1\right) \approx(0.87,-1)$. Let $\gamma$ be the boundary curve of $D_{1}^{2}$ in $Q$. Since $r_{1}, s_{2} \notin Q$ and since $r_{2} \in D_{2}$ and $s_{1} \in D_{q}$, it follows that $\gamma$ does not intersect the boundary of $D_{2} \cup D_{q}$ and hence $\gamma \subset D_{2} \cup D_{q}$. Furthermore, the subsegment of the $y$-axis from $o$ to the start point of $\gamma$ is contained in $D_{q}$, and the subsegment of the $x$-axis from $o$ to the endpoint of $\gamma$ is contained in $D_{2}$. Hence, the boundary of $D_{1}^{2} \cap Q$ lies completely in $D_{2} \cup D_{q}$, and since $D_{2} \cup D_{q}$ is simply connected, it follows that $D_{1}^{2} \cap Q \subseteq D_{2} \cup D_{q}$, as desired.

For case (ii), since $G$ is tangent to $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$, the center $c$ of $G$ is on the perpendicular bisector of $c_{1}$ and $c_{2}$, so the points $p, o, q$ and $c$ are collinear. Suppose without loss of generality that $c_{y} \geq 0$. Then, it is easily checked that $c$ lies above $q$, and $\operatorname{radius}(G)+r=$ $\left|c_{1} c\right| \geq|o c|=r+|q c|$, so $q \in G$.

- Lemma 2.4. Consider two intersecting disks $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ with $r_{1} \geq r_{2}$ and lens angle at least $2 \pi / 3$. Then, there is a set $P$ of four points such that any disk $F$ of radius at least $r_{1}$ that intersects both $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ contains a point of $P$.


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Proof. Let $\ell$ be the line through $c_{1}$ and $c_{2}$. Let $E$ be the disk of radius $r_{1}$ and center $c \in \ell$ that satisfies the conditions (i) and (ii) of Lemma 2.2. Let $P=\left\{c_{1}, c, p, q\right\}$ as in the proof of Lemma 2.3, with respect to $D_{1}$ and $E$ (see Figure 1, right). We claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{1} \cap F \neq \emptyset \wedge D_{2} \cap F \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow E \cap F \neq \emptyset \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

Once (*) is established, we are done by Lemma 2.3. If $D_{2} \subseteq E$, then (*) is immediate, so assume that $D_{2} \nsubseteq E$. By Lemma 2.2, $c$ lies between $c_{1}$ and $c_{2}$. Let $k$ be the line through $c$ perpendicular to $\ell$, and let $k^{+}$be the open halfplane bounded by $k$ with $c_{1} \in k^{+}$and $k^{-}$ the open halfplane bounded by $k$ with $c_{1} \notin k^{-}$. Since $\left|c_{1} c\right|=\sqrt{3} r_{1}>r_{1}$, we have $D_{1} \subset k^{+}$ (see Figure 2, right). Recall that $F$ has radius at least $r_{1}$ and intersects $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$. We distinguish two cases: (i) there is no intersection of $F$ and $D_{2}$ in $k^{+}$, and (ii) there is an intersection of $F$ and $D_{2}$ in $k^{+}$.

For case (i), let $x$ be any point in $D_{1} \cap F$. Since we know that $D_{1} \subset k^{+}$, we have $x \in k^{+}$. Moreover, let $y$ be any point in $D_{2} \cap F$. By assumption (i), $y$ is not in $k^{+}$, but it must be in the infinite strip defined by the two tangents of $D_{1}$ and $E$. Thus, the line segment $\overline{x y}$ intersects the diameter segment $k \cap E$. Since $F$ is convex, the intersection of $\overline{x y}$ and $k \cap E$ is in $F$, so $E \cap F \neq \emptyset$.

For case (ii), fix $x \in D_{2} \cap F \cap k^{+}$arbitrarily. Consider the triangle $\Delta x c c_{2}$. Since $x \in k^{+}$, the angle at $c$ is at least $\pi / 2$ (Figure 2, right). Thus, $|x c| \leq\left|x c_{2}\right|$. Also, since $x \in D_{2}$, we know that $\left|x c_{2}\right| \leq r_{2} \leq r_{1}$. Hence, $|x c| \leq r_{1}$, so $x \in E$ and (*) follows, as $x \in E \cap F$.

## 3 Existence of Five Stabbing Points

With the tools from Section 2, we can now show that there is a stabbing set with five points.

- Theorem 3.1. Let $\mathcal{D}$ be a set of $n$ pairwise intersecting disks in the plane. There is a set $P$ of five points such that each disk in $\mathcal{D}$ contains at least one point from $P$.

Proof. If $\mathcal{D}$ is Helly, there is a single point that lies in all disks of $\mathcal{D}$. Thus, assume that $\mathcal{D}$ is non-Helly, and let $D_{1}, D_{2}, \ldots, D_{n}$ be the disks in $\mathcal{D}$ ordered by increasing radius. Let $i^{*}$ be the smallest index with $\bigcap_{i \leq i^{*}} D_{i}=\emptyset$. By Helly's theorem [9,10, 11], there are indices $j, k<i^{*}$ such that $\left\{D_{i^{*}}, D_{j}, D_{k}\right\}$ is non-Helly. By Lemma 2.1, two disks in $\left\{D_{i^{*}}, D_{j}, D_{k}\right\}$ have lens angle at least $2 \pi / 3$. Applying Lemma 2.4 to these two disks, we obtain a set $P^{\prime}$ of four points so that every disk $D_{i}$ with $i \geq i^{*}$ contains at least one point from $P^{\prime}$. Furthermore, by definition of $i^{*}$, we have $\bigcap_{i<i^{*}} D_{i} \neq \emptyset$, so there is a point $q$ that stabs every disk $D_{i}$ with $i<i^{*}$. Thus, $P=P^{\prime} \cup\{q\}$ is a set of five points that stabs every disk in $\mathcal{D}$, as desired.

## 4 Algorithmic Considerations

Theorem 3.1 leads to a simple $O(n \log n)$ time deterministic algorithm for finding a stabbing set of size 5: we sort the disks in $\mathcal{D}$ by radius, and we insert the disks one by one, while maintaining their intersection. Once the intersection becomes empty, we can use the method from Theorem 3.1 to find the stabbing set (otherwise, $\mathcal{D}$ is Helly, and we have a single stabbing point). As we will see next, there is also a deterministic linear time algorithm, using the LP-type framework by Sharir and Welzl [13, 3].

The LP-type framework. An LP-type problem $(\mathcal{H}, w, \leq)$ is an abstract generalization of a low-dimensional linear program. It consists of a finite set of constraints $\mathcal{H}$, a weight function $w: 2^{\mathcal{H}} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$, and a total $\operatorname{order}(\mathcal{W}, \leq)$ on the weights. The weight function $w$ assigns a weight to each subset of constraints. It must fulfill the following three axioms:


Figure 3 left: The disks $D_{3}$ and $D_{4}$ are destroyers of the set $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}\right\}$. Moreover, $D_{3}$ is the smallest destroyer of the whole set $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}, D_{4}\right\}$. right: The disks without $D_{\infty}$ form a Helly set $\mathcal{C}$. Adding $D_{\infty}$ leads to the non-Helly set $\overline{\mathcal{C}}=\mathcal{C} \cup\left\{D_{\infty}\right\}$ with smallest destroyer $D_{\infty}$. The point $v$ is the extreme point for $\mathcal{C}$ and $D_{\infty}$, i.e., $\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{C})=d\left(v, D_{\infty}\right)$.

- Monotonicity: for any $\mathcal{H}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ and $H \in \mathcal{H}$, we have $w\left(\mathcal{H}^{\prime} \cup\{H\}\right) \leq w\left(\mathcal{H}^{\prime}\right)$;
- Finite Basis: there is a constant $d \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any $\mathcal{H}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$, there is a subset $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{H}^{\prime}$ with $|\mathcal{B}| \leq d$ and $w(\mathcal{B})=w\left(\mathcal{H}^{\prime}\right)$; and
- Locality: for any $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{H}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ with $w(\mathcal{B})=w\left(\mathcal{H}^{\prime}\right)$ and for any $H \in \mathcal{H}$, we have that if $w(\mathcal{B} \cup\{H\})=w(\mathcal{B})$, then also $w\left(\mathcal{H}^{\prime} \cup\{H\}\right)=w\left(\mathcal{H}^{\prime}\right)$.
Given a subset $\mathcal{H}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$, a basis for $\mathcal{H}^{\prime}$ is an inclusion-minimal set $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{H}^{\prime}$ with $w(\mathcal{B})=w\left(\mathcal{H}^{\prime}\right)$. The Finite-Basis-axiom states that any basis has at most $d$ constraints. The goal in an LP-type problem is to determine $w(\mathcal{H})$ and a corresponding basis $\mathcal{B}$ for $\mathcal{H}$.

A generalization of Seidel's algorithm for low-dimensional linear programming [12] shows that we can solve an LP-type problem in expected time $O(|\mathcal{H}|)$, provided that an $O(1)$-time violation test is available: given a set $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ and a constraint $H \in \mathcal{H}$, we say that $H$ violates $\mathcal{B}$ if and only if $w(\mathcal{B} \cup\{H\})<w(\mathcal{B})$. In a violation test, we are given $\mathcal{B}$ and $H$, and we must determine (i) whether $\mathcal{B}$ is a valid basis for some subset of constraints; and (ii) whether $H$ violates $\mathcal{B} .{ }^{5}$ Here and below, the constant factor in the $O$-notation may depend on $d$.

Chazelle and Matoušek [4] showed that an LP-type problem can be solved in $O(|\mathcal{H}|)$ deterministic time if (i) we have a constant-time violation test and (ii) the range space $\left(\mathcal{H},\left\{\operatorname{vio}(\mathcal{B}) \mid \mathcal{B}\right.\right.$ is a basis for some $\left.\left.\mathcal{H}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{H}\right\}\right)$ has bounded VC-dimension [3]. Here, for a basis $\mathcal{B}$, the set $\operatorname{vio}(\mathcal{B}) \subset \mathcal{H}$ consists of all constraints that violate $\mathcal{B}$. We will now show that the problem of finding a non-Helly triple as in Theorem 3.1 is LP-type and fulfills the requirements for the algorithm of Chazelle and Matoušek.

Geometric observations. The distance between two closed sets $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2}$ is defined as $d(A, B)=\min \{d(a, b) \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$. From now on, we assume that all points in $\bigcup \mathcal{D}$ have positive $y$-coordinates. This can be ensured with linear overhead by an appropriate translation of the input. We denote by $D_{\infty}$ the closed halfplane below the $x$-axis. It is

[^1]

Figure 4 left: The disk $D_{4}$ is a destroyer for the Helly sets $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}\right\}$ and $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}\right\}$. The extreme point $v$ for $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}\right\}$ is also the extreme point for $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}\right\}$. right: The disk $D_{4}$ is a destroyer for the Helly sets $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}\right\}$ and $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}\right\}$. The extreme point $v$ for $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}\right\}$ is not in $\mathcal{D}_{3}$. The distance to $D_{4}$ increases.
interpreted as a disk with radius $\infty$ and center at $(0,-\infty)$. For $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ we set $\overline{\mathcal{C}}=\mathcal{C} \cup\left\{D_{\infty}\right\}$. Observe that for $\mathcal{C}_{1} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{2} \subseteq \overline{\mathcal{D}}$, if $\mathcal{C}_{1}$ is non-Helly, then $\mathcal{C}_{2}$ is non-Helly. Furthermore, for $r \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \cup\{\infty\}$ and $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \overline{\mathcal{D}}$, we define $\mathcal{C}_{\leq r}$ (resp., $\mathcal{C}_{<r}$ ) as the set of all disks in $\mathcal{C}$ with radius at most (resp., smaller than) $r$. Let $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ be Helly. A disk $D \in \overline{\mathcal{D}}$ is a destroyer of $\mathcal{C}$ if $\mathcal{C} \cup\{D\}$ is non-Helly. Observe that $D_{\infty}$ is a destroyer for every Helly subset of $\mathcal{D}$. Now, let $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ be an arbitrary subset of $\mathcal{D}$ (either Helly or non-Helly). We say $D \in \overline{\mathcal{C}}$ is the smallest destroyer of $\mathcal{C}$ if $\mathcal{C}_{<r}$ is Helly and $\overline{\mathcal{C}}_{\leq r}$ is non-Helly, where $r$ is the radius of $D$. Note that $D$ is the unique largest disk in $\overline{\mathcal{C}}_{\leq r}$. Furthermore, $D$ is the smallest disk in $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$ that causes a non-Helly triple. If $\mathcal{C}$ is Helly, then $D=D_{\infty}$. See Figure 3 for an example. We can make the following two observations.

- Lemma 4.1. Let $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ be Helly and $D \in \overline{\mathcal{D}}$ a destroyer of $\mathcal{C}$. Then, the point $v \in \bigcap \mathcal{C}$ with minimum distance to $D$ is unique.

Proof. Suppose there are two distinct points $v \neq w \in \bigcap \mathcal{C}$ with $d(v, D)=d(\bigcap \mathcal{C}, D)=$ $d(w, D)$. Since $\bigcap \mathcal{C}$ is convex, the segment $\overline{v w}$ lies in $\bigcap \mathcal{C}$. Now, if $D \neq D_{\infty}$, then every point in the relative interior of $\overline{v w}$ is strictly closer to $D$ than $v$ and $w$. If $D=D_{\infty}$, then all points in $\overline{v w}$ have the same distance to $D$, but since $\bigcap \mathcal{C}$ is strictly convex, the relative interior of $\overline{v w}$ lies in the interior of $\bigcap \mathcal{C}$, so there must be a point in $\bigcap \mathcal{C}$ that is closer to $D$ than $v$ and $w$. In either case, we obtain a contradiction to the assumption $v \neq w$ and $d(v, D)=d(\bigcap \mathcal{C}, D)=d(w, D)$. The claim follows.

The unique point $v \in \bigcap \mathcal{C}$ with minimum distance to a destroyer $D$ is called the extreme point for $\mathcal{C}$ and $D$ (see Figure 3).

- Lemma 4.2. Let $\mathcal{C}_{1} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{2} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ be two Helly sets and $D \in \overline{\mathcal{D}}$ a destroyer of $\mathcal{C}_{1}$ (and thus of $\left.\mathcal{C}_{2}\right)$. Let $v \in \bigcap \mathcal{C}_{1}$ be the extreme point for $\mathcal{C}_{1}$ and $D$. We have $d\left(\cap \mathcal{C}_{1}, D\right) \leq d\left(\cap \mathcal{C}_{2}, D\right)$. In particular, if $v \in \bigcap \mathcal{C}_{2}$, then $d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{1}, D\right)=d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{2}, D\right)$ and $v$ is also the extreme point for $\mathcal{C}_{2}$. If $v \notin \bigcap \mathcal{C}_{2}$, then $d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{1}, D\right)<d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{2}, D\right)$.

Proof. The first claim holds trivially: let $w \in \bigcap \mathcal{C}_{2}$ be the extreme point for $\mathcal{C}_{2}$ and $D$. Since $\mathcal{C}_{1} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{2}$, it follows that $w \in \bigcap \mathcal{C}_{1}$, so $d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{1}, D\right) \leq d(w, D)=d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{2}, D\right)$. If $v \in \bigcap \mathcal{C}_{2}$, then $d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{1}, D\right) \leq d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{2}, D\right) \leq d(v, D)=d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{1}, D\right)$, so $v=w$, by Lemma 4.1. If $v \notin \bigcap \mathcal{C}_{2}$, then $d\left(\cap \mathcal{C}_{1}, D\right)<d\left(\cap \mathcal{C}_{2}, D\right)$, by Lemma 4.1 and the fact that $\mathcal{C}_{1} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{2}$. See Figure 4.

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Figure 5 Monotonicity: In both cases, $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}\right\}$ is non-Helly with smallest destroyer $D_{3}$. Adding a disk $E$ either decreases the radius of the smallest destroyer (left) or increases the distance to the smallest destroyer (right).


Figure 6 A basis can either be a non-Helly triple (left), a pair of intersecting disks $E$ and $F$ where the point of minimum $y$-coordinate in $E \cap F$ is a vertex (middle), or a single disk.

Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a subset of $\mathcal{D}$. The radius of the smallest destroyer $D$ of $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$ is denoted by $\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C})$. Note that $\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C}) \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \cup\{\infty\}$. Moreover, let $\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{C})$ be the distance between $D$ and the set $\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{<\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C})}$, i.e., $\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{C})=d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{<\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C})}, D\right)$. Then, $\mathcal{C}$ is Helly if and only if $\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C})=\infty$. In this case, $\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{C})$ is the distance between $\bigcap \mathcal{C}$ and the $x$-axis. We define the weight $w(\mathcal{C})$ of $\mathcal{C}$ as $w(\mathcal{C})=(\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C}),-\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{C}))$, and we denote by $\leq$ the lexicographic order on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Chan observed, in a slightly different context, that $(\mathcal{D}, w, \leq)$ is LP-type [2]. However, Chan's paper does not contain a detailed proof for this fact. Thus, in the following lemmas, we show that the three LP-type axioms hold.

- Lemma 4.3. For any $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ and $E \in \mathcal{D}$, we have $w(\mathcal{C} \cup\{E\}) \leq w(\mathcal{C})$.

Proof. Set $\mathcal{C}^{*}=\mathcal{C} \cup\{E\}$. Let $D$ be the smallest destroyer of $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$, and let $r=\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C})$ be the radius of $D$. Then, $D$ is the largest disk in $\overline{\mathcal{C}}_{\leq r}$. The set $\overline{\mathcal{C}}_{\leq r}$ is non-Helly. Adding $E$ does not change this, i.e., $\overline{\mathcal{C}}_{\leq r}^{*}$ is also non-Helly. Thus, the smallest destroyer of $\overline{\mathcal{C}}_{\leq r}^{*}$ is either $D$ or some smaller disk in $\mathcal{C}_{<r}^{*}$. In the latter case, we have $\operatorname{rad}\left(\mathcal{C}^{*}\right)<\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C})$. In the former case, we have $\operatorname{rad}\left(\mathcal{C}^{*}\right)=\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C})$, and Lemma 4.2 gives $-\operatorname{dist}\left(\mathcal{C}^{*}\right)=-d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{<r}^{*}, D\right) \leq-d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{<r}, D\right)=$ $-\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{C})$. In either case, $w\left(\mathcal{C}^{*}\right) \leq w(\mathcal{C})$. See Figure 5 for an illustration.

- Lemma 4.4. For any $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$, there is a set $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ with $|\mathcal{B}| \leq 3$ and $w(\mathcal{B})=w(\mathcal{C})$.


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Proof. Let $D$ be the smallest destroyer of $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$. Let $r=\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C})$ be the radius of $D$, and let $v \in \bigcap \mathcal{C}_{<r}$ be the extreme point for $\mathcal{C}_{<r}$ and $D$. By general position, there are at most two disks $E, F \in \mathcal{C}_{<r}$ with $v \in \partial(E \cap F)$. Note that $E$ and $F$ may be the same disk.

Set $\mathcal{B}=\{D, E, F\} \backslash\left\{D_{\infty}\right\}$. There are three possibilities. If $\mathcal{C}$ is non-Helly, then $D \neq D_{\infty}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ is a non-Helly triple (indeed, as the disks in $\mathcal{D}$ are pairwise intersecting, the extreme point $v$ must lie at the intersection of two disk boundaries). If $\mathcal{C}$ is Helly, then $D=D_{\infty}$ and $|\mathcal{B}| \leq 2$. If $|\mathcal{B}|=2$, then $v$ is the vertex of $\partial(E \cap F)$ with minimum $y$-coordinate. If $|\mathcal{B}|=1$, then $v$ is the point on $\partial E$ with minimum $y$-coordinate. In either case, $\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{B})$ is the value of the smallest $y$-coordinate of a point in $\bigcap \mathcal{B}$. See Figure 6 for an illustration.

We claim that $w(\mathcal{B})=w(\mathcal{C})$. Firstly, $\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{B})=\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C})$, because $\mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{C}$ have the same smallest destroyer. Secondly, we show $\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{B})=\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{C})$ : since $\mathcal{B}_{<r} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{<r}$, by Lemma 4.2, we get $\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{B})=d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{B}_{<r}, D\right) \leq d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{<r}, D\right)=\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{C})$. Suppose that $\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{B})<\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{C})$. Then, there is a point $w \in E \cap F$ with $d(w, D)<d(v, D)$. Furthermore, by general position and since $v$ is the intersection of two disk boundaries, there is a relatively open neighborhood $N$ around $v$ in $\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{<r}$ such that $N$ is also relatively open in $E \cap F$. Since $E \cap F$ is convex, there is a point $x \in N$ that also lies in the relative interior of the line segment $\overline{w v}$. Then, $d(x, D)<d(v, D)$ and $x \in \bigcap \mathcal{C}_{<r}$, which is impossible, as $v$ is the extreme point.

The set $\mathcal{B}$ is actually a basis for $\mathcal{C}$ : if $\mathcal{B}$ is a non-Helly triple, then removing any disk from $\mathcal{B}$ creates a Helly set and increases the radius of the smallest destroyer to $\infty$. If $|\mathcal{B}| \leq 2$, then $D_{\infty}$ is the smallest destroyer of $\mathcal{B}$ and the minimality follows directly from the definition.

- Lemma 4.5. Let $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ with $w(\mathcal{B})=w(\mathcal{C})$ and let $E \in \mathcal{D}$. Then, if $w(\mathcal{B} \cup\{E\})=w(\mathcal{B})$ we also have $w(\mathcal{C} \cup\{E\})=w(\mathcal{C})$.
Proof. Set $\mathcal{C}^{*}=\mathcal{C} \cup\{E\}, \mathcal{B}^{*}=\mathcal{B} \cup\{E\}$. Let $r=\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C})$ and $D$ the smallest destroyer of $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$. Since $w(\mathcal{C})=w(\mathcal{B})=w\left(\mathcal{B}^{*}\right)$, we have that $D$ is also the smallest destroyer of $\overline{\mathcal{B}}$ and of $\overline{\mathcal{B}}^{*}$. If $E$ has radius $>r$, then $E$ cannot be the smallest destroyer of $\overline{\mathcal{C}}^{*}$, so $w\left(\mathcal{C}^{*}\right)=w(\mathcal{C})$. Assume that $E$ has radius $<r$. Let $v$ be the extreme point of $\mathcal{C}_{<r}$ and $D$. Since $w\left(\mathcal{B}^{*}\right)=w(\mathcal{B})$, we know that $d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{B}_{<r}, D\right)=d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{B}_{<r}^{*}, D\right)=d(v, D)$. Now, Lemma 4.2 implies $v \in E$, since $E \in \mathcal{B}_{<r}^{*}$. Thus, the set $\mathcal{C}_{<r}^{*}=\mathcal{C}_{<r} \cup\{E\}$ is Helly. Furthermore, $\overline{\mathcal{C}}_{\leq r}^{*}$ is non-Helly, because the subset $\overline{\mathcal{C}}_{\leq r}$ is non-Helly. Therefore, $D$ is also the smallest destroyer of $\overline{\mathcal{C}}^{*}$, so $\operatorname{rad}\left(\mathcal{C}^{*}\right)=r=\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{C})$. Finally, since $\mathcal{B}_{<r}^{*} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{<r}^{*}$ we can use Lemma 4.2 to derive

$$
d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{<r}, D\right)=d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{B}_{<r}^{*}, D\right) \leq d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{<r}^{*}, D\right) \leq d(v, D)=d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}_{<r}, D\right)
$$

Next, we describe a violation test for $(\mathcal{D}, w, \leq)$ : given a set $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ and a disk $E \in \mathcal{D}$ with radius $r$, determine (i) whether $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis for some subset of $\mathcal{D}$, and (ii) whether $E$ violates $\mathcal{B}$, i.e., whether $w(\mathcal{B} \cup\{E\})<w(\mathcal{B})$. This is done as follows:

- If (i) $|\mathcal{B}|>3$; or (ii) $|\mathcal{B}|=3$ and $\mathcal{B}$ is Helly; or (iii) $|\mathcal{B}|=2$ and the $y$-minimum of $\bigcap \mathcal{B}$ is also the $y$-minimum of a single disk of $\mathcal{B}$, return " $\mathcal{B}$ is not a basis".
- If $|\mathcal{B}|=1$, then, if the $y$-minimum in $E \cap \bigcap \mathcal{B}$ differs from the $y$-minimum in $\bigcap \mathcal{B}$, return " $\boldsymbol{E}$ violates $\mathcal{\mathcal { B }}$ "; otherwise, return " $\boldsymbol{E}$ does not violate $\mathcal{B}$ ".
- If $\mathcal{B}=\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}\right\}$, find the $y$-minimum $v$ of $D_{1} \cap D_{2}$ and return " $\boldsymbol{E}$ violates $\mathcal{B}$ " if $v \notin E$, and " $\boldsymbol{E}$ does not violate $\mathcal{B}$ ", otherwise.
- Finally, if $\mathcal{B}=\left\{D, D_{1}, D_{2}\right\}$ is non-Helly with smallest destroyer $D .{ }^{6}$ Let $r=\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{B})$ be the radius of $D$ and $r^{\prime}$ be the radius of $E$ :

[^2]= If $r^{\prime}>r$, return " $E$ does not violate $\mathcal{B}$ ".

- If $r^{\prime}<r$, find the vertex $v$ of $D_{1} \cap D_{2}$ that minimizes the distance to $E$ and return " $E$ violates $\mathcal{B}$ " if $v \notin E$, and " $E$ does not violate $\mathcal{B}$ ", otherwise.

The violation test obviously needs constant time. Finally, to apply the algorithm of Chazelle and Matoušek, we still need to check that the range space $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{R})$ with $\mathcal{R}=\{\operatorname{vio}(\mathcal{B}) \mid$ $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis of a subset in $\mathcal{D}\}$ has bounded VC dimension.

- Lemma 4.6. The range space $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{R})$ has VC-dimension at most 3 .

Proof. The discussion above shows that for any basis $\mathcal{B}$, there is a point $v_{\mathcal{B}} \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ such that $E \in \mathcal{D}$ violates $\mathcal{B}$ if and only if $v_{\mathcal{B}} \notin E$. Thus, for any $v \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$, let $\mathcal{R}_{v}^{\prime}=\{D \in \mathcal{D} \mid v \notin D\}$ and let $\mathcal{R}^{\prime}=\left\{\mathcal{R}_{v}^{\prime} \mid v \in \mathbb{R}^{2}\right\}$. Since $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{\prime}$, it suffices to show that ( $\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{R}^{\prime}$ ) has bounded VCdimension. For this, consider the complement range space $\left(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{R}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ with $\mathcal{R}^{\prime \prime}=\left\{\mathcal{R}_{v}^{\prime \prime} \mid v \in \mathbb{R}^{2}\right\}$ and $\mathcal{R}_{v}^{\prime \prime}=\{D \in \mathcal{D} \mid v \in D\}$, for $v \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$. It is well known that $\left(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{R}^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{R}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ have the same VC-dimension [3], and that ( $\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{R}^{\prime \prime}$ ) has VC-dimension 3 (e.g., this follows from the classic homework exercise that there is no planar Venn-diagram for four sets).

Finally, the following lemma summarizes discussion so far.

- Lemma 4.7. Given a set $\mathcal{D}$ of $n$ pairwise intersecting disks in the plane, we can decide in $O(n)$ deterministic time whether $\mathcal{D}$ is Helly. If so, we can compute a point in $\bigcap \mathcal{D}$ in $O(n)$ deterministic time. If not, we can compute the smallest destroyer $D$ of $\mathcal{D}$ and two disks $E, F \in \mathcal{D}_{<r}$ that form a non-Helly triple with $D$. Here, $r$ is the radius of $D$.

Proof. Since ( $\mathcal{D}, w, \leq$ ) is LP-type, the violation test needs $O(1)$ time, and the VC-dimension of $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{R})$ is bounded, we can apply the deterministic algorithm of Chazelle and Matoušek [4] to compute $w(\mathcal{D})=(\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{D}),-\operatorname{dist}(\mathcal{D}))$ and a corresponding basis $\mathcal{B}$ in $O(n)$ time. Then, $\mathcal{D}$ is Helly if and only if $\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{D})=\infty$. If $\mathcal{D}$ is Helly, then $|\mathcal{B}| \leq 2$. We compute the unique point $v \in \bigcap \mathcal{B}$ with $d\left(v, D_{\infty}\right)=d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{B}, D_{\infty}\right)$. Since $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ and $d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{B}, D_{\infty}\right)=d\left(\bigcap \mathcal{D}, D_{\infty}\right)$, we have $v \in \bigcap \mathcal{D}$ by Lemma 4.2. We output $v$. If $\mathcal{D}$ is non-Helly, we simply output $\mathcal{B}$, because $\mathcal{B}$ is a non-Helly triple with the smallest destroyer $D$ of $\mathcal{D}$ and two disks $E, F \in \mathcal{D}_{<r}$, where $r$ is the radius of $D$.

- Theorem 4.8. Given a set $\mathcal{D}$ of $n$ pairwise intersecting disks in the plane, we can find in $O(n)$ time a set $P$ of five points such that every disk of $\mathcal{D}$ contains at least one point of $P$.

Proof. Using the algorithm from Lemma 4.7, we decide whether $\mathcal{D}$ is Helly. If so, we return the point computed by the algorithm. Otherwise, the algorithm gives us a non-Helly triple $\{D, E, F\}$, where $D$ is the smallest destroyer of $\mathcal{D}$ and $E, F \in \mathcal{D}_{<r}$, with $r$ being the radius of $D$. Since $\mathcal{D}_{<r}$ is Helly, we can obtain in $O(n)$ time a stabbing point $q \in \bigcap \mathcal{D}_{<r}$ by using the algorithm from Lemma 4.7 again. Next, by Lemma 2.1, there are two disks in $\{D, E, F\}$ whose lens angle is at least $2 \pi / 3$. Let $P^{\prime}$ be the set of four points from the proof of Lemma 2.4. Then, $P=P^{\prime} \cup\{q\}$ is a set of five points that stabs every disks in $\mathcal{D}$.

## 5 A Simple Lower Bound

We now exhibit a set of 13 pairwise intersecting disks in the plane such that no point set of size three can pierce all of them. The construction begins with an inner disk $A$ of radius 1 and three larger disks $D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}$ of equal radius, so that $A$ is tangent to all three disks and so that each two disks are tangent to each other. For $i=1,2,3$, we denote the contact point of $A$ and $D_{i}$ by $\xi_{i}$.


Figure 7 Each common tangent $\ell$ between $A$ and $D_{i}$ represents a very large disk, whose interior is disjoint from $A$. The nine points of tangency are pairwise distinct.

We add six more disks as follows. For $i=1,2,3$, we draw the two common outer tangents to $A$ and $D_{i}$, and denote by $T_{i}^{-}$and $T_{i}^{+}$the halfplanes that are bounded by these tangents and are openly disjoint from $A$. The labels $T_{i}^{-}$and $T_{i}^{+}$are chosen such that the points of tangency between $A$ and $T_{i}^{-}, D_{i}$, and $T_{i}^{+}$, appear along $\partial A$ in this counterclockwise order. One can show that the nine points of tangency between $A$ and the other disks and tangents are pairwise distinct (see Figure 7). We regard the six halfplanes $T_{i}^{-}, T_{i}^{+}$, for $i=1,2,3$, as (very large) disks; in the end, we can apply a suitable inversion to turn the disks and halfplanes into actual disks, if so desired.

Finally, we construct three additional disks $A_{1}, A_{2}, A_{3}$. To construct $A_{i}$, we slightly expand $A$ into a disk $A_{i}^{\prime}$ of radius $1+\varepsilon_{1}$, while keeping the tangency with $D_{i}$ at $\xi_{i}$. We then roll $A_{i}^{\prime}$ clockwise along $D_{i}$, by a tiny angle $\varepsilon_{2} \ll \varepsilon_{1}$, to obtain $A_{i}$.

This gives a set of 13 disks. For sufficiently small $\varepsilon_{1}$ and $\varepsilon_{2}$, we can ensure the following properties for each $A_{i}$ : (i) $A_{i}$ intersects all other 12 disks; (ii) the nine intersection regions $A_{i} \cap D_{j}, A_{i} \cap T_{j}^{-}, A_{i} \cap T_{j}^{+}$, for $j=1,2,3$, are pairwise disjoint; and (iii) $\xi_{i} \notin A_{i}$.

- Theorem 5.1. The construction yields a set of 13 disks that cannot be stabbed by 3 points.

Proof. Consider any set $P$ of three points. Set $A^{*}=A \cup A_{1} \cup A_{2} \cup A_{3}$. If $P \cap A^{*}=\emptyset$, we have unstabbed disks, so suppose that $P \cap A^{*} \neq \emptyset$. For $p \in P \cap A^{*}$, property (ii) implies that $p$ stabs at most one of the nine remaining disks $D_{j}, T_{j}^{+}$and $T_{j}^{-}$, for $j=1,2,3$. Thus, if $P \subset A^{*}$, we would have unstabbed disks, so we may assume that $\left|P \cap A^{*}\right| \in\{1,2\}$.

Suppose first that $\left|P \cap A^{*}\right|=2$. As just argued, at most two of the remaining disks are stabbed by $P \cap A^{*}$. The following cases can then arise.
(a) None of $D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}$ is stabbed by $P \cap A^{*}$. Since $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}\right\}$ is non-Helly and a non-Helly set must be stabbed by at least two points, at least one disk remains unstabbed.
(b) Two disks among $D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}$ are stabbed by $P \cap A^{*}$. Then the six unstabbed halfplanes form many non-Helly triples, e.g., $T_{1}^{-}, T_{2}^{-}$, and $T_{3}^{-}$, and again, a disk remains unstabbed.
(c) The set $P \cap A^{*}$ stabs one disk in $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}\right\}$ and one halfplane. Then, there is (at least) one disk $D_{i}$ such that $D_{i}$ and its two tangent halfplanes $T_{i}^{-}, T_{i}^{+}$are all unstabbed by $P \cap A^{*}$. Then, $\left\{D_{i}, T_{i}^{-}, T_{i}^{+}\right\}$is non-Helly, and at least two more points are needed to stab it.
Suppose now that $\left|P \cap A^{*}\right|=1$, and let $P \cap A^{*}=\{p\}$. We may assume that $p$ stabs all three disks $A_{1}, A_{2}, A_{3}$, since otherwise a disk would stay unstabbed. At most one of the nine remaining disks is stabbed by $p$. Thus, $p \notin\left\{\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}, \xi_{3}\right\}$, so the other disk that it stabs (if any) must be a halfplane. That is, $p$ does not stab any of $D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}$. Since $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}\right\}$ is non-Helly, it requires two stabbing points. Moreover, since $|P \backslash\{p\}|=2$, we may assume that
one point $q$ of $P \backslash A^{*}$ is the point of tangency of two of these disks, say $q=D_{2} \cap D_{3}$. Then, $q$ stabs only two of the six halfplanes, say, $T_{1}^{-}$and $T_{1}^{+}$. But then, $\left\{D_{1}, T_{2}^{+}, T_{3}^{-}\right\}$is non-Helly and does not contain any point from $\{p, q\}$. At least one disk remains unstabbed.

## 6 Conclusion

We gave a simple linear-time algorithm to find five stabbing points for a set of pairwise intersecting disks in the plane. It remains open how to use the proofs of Danzer or Stachó [15, 5] (or any other technique) for an efficient construction of four stabbing points. It is also not known whether nine disks can be stabbed by three points or not (for eight disks, this is the case [14]). Furthermore, it would be interesting to find a simpler construction, than the one by Danzer, of ten pairwise intersecting disks that cannot be stabbed by three points.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{5}$ Here, we follow the presentation of Chazelle [3]. Sharir and Welzl [13] do not require property (i) of a violation test. Instead, they need an additional basis computation primitive: given a basis $\mathcal{B}$ and a constraint $H \in \mathcal{H}$, find a basis for $\mathcal{B} \cup\{H\}$. Given a violation test with property (i), a basis computation primitive can easily be implemented by brute force enumeration.

[^2]:    ${ }^{6}$ Note that since $\mathcal{B}$ is a subset of $\mathcal{D}$ and since $\mathcal{B}$ is non-Helly, the smallest destroyer $D$ of $\mathcal{B}$ cannot be the disk $D_{\infty}$.

