# New Lower Bounds for $\epsilon$-nets 

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#### Abstract

Following groundbreaking work by Haussler and Welzl (1987), the use of small $\epsilon$-nets has become a standard technique for solving algorithmic and extremal problems in geometry and learning theory. Two significant recent developments are: $(i)$ an upper bound on the size of the smallest $\epsilon$-nets for set systems, as a function of their so-called shallow-cell complexity (Chan, Grant, Könemann, and Sharpe); and (ii) the construction of a set system whose members can be obtained by intersecting a point set in $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ by a family of half-spaces such that the size of any $\epsilon$-net for them is at least $\Omega\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ (Pach and Tardos).

The present paper completes both of these avenues of research. We (i) give a lower bound, matching the result of Chan et al., and (ii) generalize the construction of Pach and Tardos to half-spaces in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, for any $d \geq 4$, to show that the general upper bound, $O\left(\frac{d}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$, of Haussler and Welzl for the size of the smallest $\epsilon$-nets is tight.


Keywords and phrases $\epsilon$-nets; lower bounds; geometric set systems; shallow-cell complexity; half-spaces.

## 1 Introduction

Let $X$ be a finite set and let $\mathcal{R}$ be a system of subsets of an underlying set containing $X$. In computational geometry, the pair $(X, \mathcal{R})$ is usually called a range space. A subset $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ is called an $\epsilon$-net for $(X, \mathcal{R})$ if $X^{\prime} \cap R \neq \emptyset$ for every member $R \in \mathcal{R}$ with at least $\epsilon|X|$ elements. The use of small-sized $\epsilon$-nets in geometrically defined range spaces has become a standard technique in discrete and computational geometry, with many combinatorial and algorithmic consequences. In most applications, $\epsilon$-nets precisely and provably capture the most important quantitative and qualitative properties that one would expect from a random sample. Typical applications include the existence of spanning trees and simplicial partitions with low crossing number, upper bounds for discrepancy of set systems, LP rounding, range searching, streaming algorithms; see [16, 13].

For any subset $Y \subseteq X$, define the projection of $\mathcal{R}$ on $Y$ to be the set system

$$
\left.\mathcal{R}\right|_{Y}:=\{Y \cap R: R \in \mathcal{R}\}
$$

The Vapnik-Chervonenkis dimension or, in short, the $V C$-dimension of the range space $(X, \mathcal{R})$ is the minimum integer $d$ such that $|\mathcal{R}|_{Y} \mid<2^{|R|}$ for any subset $Y \subseteq X$ with $|Y|>d$.

A straightforward sampling argument shows that every range space $(X, \mathcal{R})$ has an $\epsilon$-net of size $O\left(\left.\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log |\mathcal{R}|_{X} \right\rvert\,\right)$. The remarkable result of Haussler and Welzl [11], based on previous work of Vapnik and Chervonenkis [22], shows that much smaller $\epsilon$-nets exist if we assume that our range space has small VC-dimension.

According to the Sauer-Shelah lemma [20, 21] (discovered earlier by Vapnik and Chervonenkis [22]), for any range space $(X, \mathcal{R})$ whose VC-dimension is at most $d$ and for any subset
$Y \subseteq X$, we have $|\mathcal{F}|_{Y} \mid=O\left(|Y|^{d}\right)$. Haussler and Welzl [11] showed that if the VC-dimension of a range space $(X, \mathcal{D})$ is at most $d$, then by picking a random sample of size $\Omega\left(\frac{d}{\epsilon} \log \frac{d}{\epsilon}\right)$, we obtain an $\epsilon$-net with positive probability. Actually, they only used the weaker assumption that $|\mathcal{R}|_{Y} \mid=O\left(|Y|^{d}\right)$ for every $Y \subseteq X$. This bound was later improved to $(1+o(1))\left(\frac{d}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$, as $d, \frac{1}{\epsilon} \rightarrow \infty$ [12]. In the sequel, we will refer to this result as the $\epsilon$-net theorem. The key feature of the $\epsilon$-net theorem is that it guarantees the existence of an $\epsilon$-net whose size is independent of both $|X|$ and $|\mathcal{R}|_{X} \mid$. Furthermore, if one only requires the VC-dimension of $(X, \mathcal{R})$ to be bounded by $d$, then this bound cannot be improved. It was shown in [12] that given any $\epsilon>0$ and integer $d \geq 2$, there exist range spaces with VC-dimension at most $d$, and for which any $\epsilon$-net must have size at least $\left(1-\frac{2}{d}+\frac{1}{d(d+2)}+o(1)\right) \frac{d}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}$.

The effectiveness of $\epsilon$-net theory in geometry derives from the fact that most "geometrically defined" range spaces $(X, \mathcal{R})$ arising in applications have bounded VC-dimension and, hence, satisfy the condition of the $\epsilon$-net theorem.

There are two important types of geometric set systems, both involving points and geometric objects in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, that are used in such applications. Let $\mathcal{R}$ be a family of possibly unbounded geometric objects in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, such as the family of all half-spaces, all balls, all polytopes with a bounded number of facets, or all semialgebraic sets of bounded complexity $\leq d$, i.e., subsets of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ defined by at most $D$ polynomial equations or inequalities in the $d$ variables, each of degree at most $D$. Given a finite set of points $X \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$, we define the primal range space $(X, \mathcal{R})$ as the set system "induced by containment" in the objects from $\mathcal{R}$. Formally, it is a set system with the set of elements $X$ and sets $\{X \cap R: R \in \mathcal{R}\}$. The combinatorial properties of this range space depend on the projection $\left.\mathcal{R}\right|_{X}$. Using this terminology, Radon's theorem [13] implies that the primal range space on a ground set $X$, induced by containment in half-spaces in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, has VC-dimension at most $d+1[16]$. Thus, by the $\epsilon$-net theorem, this range space has an $\epsilon$-net of size $O\left(\frac{d}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$.

In many applications, it is natural to consider the dual range space, in which the roles of the points and ranges are swapped. As above, let $\mathcal{R}$ be a family of geometric objects (ranges) in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$. Given a finite set of objects $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{R}$, the dual range space "induced" by them is defined as the set system (hypergraph) on the ground set $\mathcal{S}$, consisting of the sets $S_{x}:=\{S \mid x \in S, S \in \mathcal{S}\}$, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$. It is easy to see [16] that if the VC-dimension of the range space $(X, \mathcal{R})$ is less than $d$, then the VC-dimension of the dual range space induced by any subset of $\mathcal{R}$ is less than $2^{d}$.

## Recent progress.

In many geometric scenarios, however, one can find smaller $\epsilon$-nets than those whose existence is guaranteed by the $\epsilon$-net theorem. It has been known for a long time that this is the case, e.g., for primal set systems induced by containment in balls in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ and half-spaces in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ and $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. Over the past two decades, a number of specialized techniques have been developed to show the existence of small-sized $\epsilon$-nets for such set systems $[18,14,19,8,9,4,23,24,7,6,15,5]$. Based on these successes, it was generally believed that in most geometric scenarios one should be able to substantially strengthen the $\epsilon$-net theorem, and obtain perhaps even a $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ upper bound for the size of the smallest $\epsilon$-nets. In this direction, there have been two significant recent developments: one positive and one negative.

Upper bounds. Following the work of Clarkson and Varadarajan [9], it has been gradually realized that if one replaces the condition that the range space $(X, \mathcal{R})$ has bounded VCdimension by a more refined combinatorial property, one can prove the existence of $\epsilon$-nets of size $o\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$. To formulate this property, we need to introduce some terminology.

Given a function $\varphi: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+}$, we say that the primal range space $(X, \mathcal{R})$ has shallow-cell complexity $\varphi$ if there exists a constant $c=c(\mathcal{R})>0$ such that, for every $Y \subseteq X$ and for every positive integer $l$, the number of at most $l$-element sets in $\left.\mathcal{R}\right|_{Y}$ is $O\left(|Y| \cdot \varphi(|Y|) \cdot l^{c}\right)$. This condition imposes sharper restrictions on the range space than the requirement that its VC-dimension is bounded and, hence, the projection of $\mathcal{R}$ on $X$ grows polynomially in $|X|$. Indeed, if, e.g., $(X, \mathcal{R})$ has shallow-cell complexity $\varphi(n)=O\left(n^{D}\right)$, for some $D>0$, then we have $|\mathcal{R}|_{Y} \mid=O\left(|Y|^{1+D+c(\mathcal{R})}\right)$. However, this latter condition does not yield much information on the finer distribution of the sizes of the smaller sets in $\left.\mathcal{R}\right|_{Y}$.

Several of the range spaces mentioned earlier turn out to have low shallow-cell complexity. For instance, the primal range spaces induced by containment of points in disks in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ or half-spaces in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ have shallow-cell complexity $\varphi(n)=O(1)$. In general, it is known [13] that the primal range space induced by containment of points by half-spaces in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ has shallow-cell complexity $\varphi(n)=O\left(n^{\lfloor d / 2\rfloor-1}\right)$.

Define the union complexity of a family of objects $\mathcal{R}$, as the maximum number of faces of all dimensions that the union of any $n$ members of $\mathcal{R}$ can have; see [1]. Applying a simple probabilistic technique developed by Clarkson and Shor [10], we can find an interesting relationship between the union complexity of a family of objects $\mathcal{R}$ and the shallow-cell complexities of the dual range spaces induced by subsets $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathcal{R}$. Suppose that the union complexity of a family $\mathcal{R}$ of objects in the plane is $O(n \varphi(n))$, for some "well-behaved" function $\varphi$. Then the dual range space induced by any subset $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathcal{R}$ has shallow-cell complexity $O(\varphi(n))$. According to the above definitions, this means that for any $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathcal{R}$ and for any positive integer $l$, the number of $l$-element subsets $\mathcal{S}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$ for which there is a point in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ contained in all elements of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, but in none of the elements of $\mathcal{S} \backslash \mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, is at most $O\left(|\mathcal{S}| \varphi(|\mathcal{S}|) l^{c(\mathcal{R})}\right)$, for a suitable constant $c(\mathcal{R})$. (Note that for small values of $l$, these points - and the corresponding cells $\cap_{S \in \mathcal{S}^{\prime}} S$ - are not heavily covered, which explains the use of the adjective "shallow.")

For example, the family of fat triangles (i.e., triangles for which the ratio of the radii of the circumscribing and inscribed circles is bounded from above by a constant) is known to have union complexity $O\left(n \log ^{*} n\right)$; see [3]. Therefore, the shallow-cell complexity of the corresponding dual range spaces is $\varphi(n)=O\left(\log ^{*} n\right)$.

From a series of elegant results $[4,7,24]$, one can easily deduce that if the shallow-cell complexity of a set system is $\varphi(n)=o(n)$, then its permits smaller $\epsilon$-nets than what is guaranteed by the $\epsilon$-net theorem. The following theorem represents the current state-of-theart.

- Theorem A. Let $(X, \mathcal{R})$ be a range space with shallow-cell complexity $\varphi$, where $\varphi(n)=O\left(n^{d}\right)$ for some constant $d$. Then, for every $\epsilon>0$, it has an $\epsilon$-net of size $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)\right)$, where the constant hidden in the $O$-notation depends on $d$.

Proof. (Sketch.) The main result in [7] shows the existence of $\epsilon$-nets of size $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \varphi(|X|)\right)$ for any non-decreasing function $\varphi^{1}$. To get a bound independent of $|X|$, first compute a small $(\epsilon / 2)$-approximation $A \subseteq X$ for $(X, \mathcal{R})$ [13]. It is known that there is such an $A$ with $|A|=O\left(\frac{d}{\epsilon^{2}} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)=O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon^{3}}\right)$, and for any $R \in \mathcal{R}$, we have $\frac{|R \cap A|}{|A|} \geq \frac{|R|}{|X|}-\frac{\epsilon}{2}$. In particular, any $R \in \mathcal{R}$ with $|R| \geq \epsilon|X|$ contains at least an $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$-fraction of the elements of $A$. Therefore, an $(\epsilon / 2)$-net for $\left(A,\left.\mathcal{R}\right|_{A}\right)$ is an $\epsilon$-net for $(X, \mathcal{R})$. Computing an $(\epsilon / 2)$-net for $\left(A,\left.\mathcal{R}\right|_{A}\right)$ gives the required set of size $O\left(\frac{2}{\epsilon} \log \varphi(|A|)\right)=O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon^{3}}\right)\right)=O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)\right)$.

[^0]Lower bounds. It was conjectured for a long time [14] that most geometrically defined range spaces of bounded Vapnik-Chervonekis dimension have "linear-sized" $\epsilon$-nets, i.e., $\epsilon$-nets of size $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$. These hopes were shattered by Alon [2], who established a superlinear (but barely superlinear!) lower bound on the size of $\epsilon$-nets for the primal range space induced by straight lines in the plane. Shortly after, Pach and Tardos [17] managed to establish a tight lower bound, $\Omega\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ for the size of $\epsilon$-nets in primal range spaces induced by half-spaces in $\mathbb{R}^{4}$, and in several other geometric scenarios.

- Theorem B. [17] Let $\mathcal{F}$ denote the family of half-spaces in $\mathbb{R}^{4}$. For any $\epsilon>0$, there exist point sets $X \subset \mathbb{R}^{4}$ such that in the (primal) range spaces $(X, \mathcal{F})$, the size of every $\epsilon$-net is $\Omega\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$.


## Our contributions.

The aim of this paper is to complete both avenues of research opened by the above two theorems. In Section 2, we optimally generalize Theorem B to higher dimensions, and hence completely solve the $\epsilon$-net problem for half-spaces in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, for $d \geq 4$.

- Theorem 1. For any integer $d \geq 4$ and any $\epsilon>0$, there exist primal range spaces $(X, \mathcal{F})$ induced by point sets $X$ and collection of half-spaces $\mathcal{F}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ such that the size of every $\epsilon$-net for $(X, \mathcal{F})$ is $\Omega\left(\frac{d}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$.

We have seen that for any $d \geq 1$ the VC-dimension of any range space induced by points and half-spaces in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ is at most $d+1$. Thus, Theorem 1 matches, up to a constant factor independent of $d$ and $\epsilon$, the upper bound implied by the $\epsilon$-net theorem. The key idea of the proof of [17] is to construct a set $\mathcal{B}$ of axis-parallel rectangles in the plane such that for any $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{B}$ there exists a small set $Q$ of points that hit exactly the rectangles from $\mathcal{B} \backslash \mathcal{A}$ (see Lemma 4). The main new ingredient in our proof is a generalization of this statement to $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ with the set $Q$ having the same size but the number of axis-parallel boxes $d$ times larger. This gives the improvement by a factor $d$.

As Noga Alon pointed out to us, it is not hard to see that for a fixed $\epsilon>0$, the lower bound for $\epsilon$-nets for primal range spaces induced by half-spaces in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ has to grow at least linearly in $d$. Suppose that we want to obtain a $\frac{1}{3}$-net, say, for the range space induced by open half-spaces on a set $X$ of $3 d$ points in general position in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$. Notice that for this we need at least $d+1$ points. Indeed, any $d$ points of $X$ span a hyperplane, and one of the open half-spaces determined by this hyperplane contains at least $\frac{|X|}{3}$ points.

In Section 3, we show that the bound in Theorem A cannot be improved.
$\rightarrow$ Definition 1. A function $\varphi: \mathbb{R}^{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+}$is called submultiplicative if

1. $\varphi^{\alpha}(n) \leq \varphi\left(n^{\alpha}\right)$ for $0<\alpha<1$ and a sufficiently large positive $n$, and
2. $\varphi(x) \varphi(y) \geq \varphi(x y)$ for any sufficiently large $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{+}$.

- Theorem 2. Let $d$ be a fixed positive integer and let $\varphi: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+}$be any submultiplicative function with $\varphi(n)=O\left(n^{d}\right)$. Then, for any $\epsilon>0$ there exist range spaces $(X, \mathcal{F})$ that have
(i) shallow-cell complexity $\varphi$, and for which
(ii) the size of any $\epsilon$-net is at least $\Omega\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)\right)$.

We have remarked that $\varphi(n)=\Omega(n)$ implies that $|\mathcal{F}|_{Y} \mid=\Omega\left(|Y|^{2}\right)$ for any $Y \subseteq X$. Therefore, in this case the last theorem yields a lower bound of $\Omega\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$, which was known for a long time in VC-dimension theory [12]. This fact also follows from Theorem B, as the primal set system induced by points and half-spaces in $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ is known to have shallow-cell complexity $\varphi(n)=O(n)$.

Theorem 2 becomes interesting when $\varphi(n)=o(n)$ and the upper bound $\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ in Theorem A improves on the general upper bound $\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ guaranteed by the $\epsilon$-net theorem. Theorem 2 shows that, if $\varphi(n)=o(n)$, even this improved bound is asymptotically tight. This result suggests that the introduction of the notion of shallow-cell complexity provided the right framework for $\epsilon$-net theory.

## 2 Proof of Theorem 1

We prove Theorem 1 by first reducing the problem from that of the primal range space induced by half-spaces to a dual range space induced by axis-parallel boxes. Consider the range space $(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P})$, where the base set $\mathcal{B}$ consists of $(d+1)$-dimensional axis-parallel boxes ${ }^{2}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ and $\mathcal{P}$ is the set system induced by points, i.e., $\mathcal{B}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{P}$ if and only if there exists a point $p \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ such that $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}=\{B \in \mathcal{B}: p \in B\}$.

- Lemma 3. Let $(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P})$ be the dual range space induced by a set of boxes $\mathcal{B}$ and points in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$. Then there exists a function $f: \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2 d+2}$ such that for every $\mathcal{B}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{P}$, there exists a half-space $H$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2 d+2}$ with $\left\{f(B), B \in \mathcal{B}^{\prime}\right\}=H \cap\{f(B), B \in \mathcal{B}\}$.

Proof. By translation, we can assume that all the boxes in $\mathcal{B}$ lie in the positive orthant of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$. First, consider the function $g: \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2 d+2}$, where the box $B=\left[x_{1}^{l}, x_{1}^{r}\right] \times \cdots \times\left[x_{d+1}^{l}, x_{d+1}^{r}\right]$ is mapped to the point $\left(x_{1}^{l}, 1 / x_{1}^{r}, \cdots, x_{d+1}^{l}, 1 / x_{d+1}^{r}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{2 d+2}$ lying in the positive orthant of $\mathbb{R}^{2 d+2}$. Clearly, for any point $p=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d+1}\right)$, we have $p \in B$ if and only if $g(B) \in B_{p}=$ $\left[0, a_{1}\right] \times\left[0,1 / a_{1}\right] \times \cdots \times\left[0, a_{d+1}\right] \times\left[0,1 / a_{d+1}\right]$. Thus, $g(\cdot)$ maps the set of boxes in $\mathcal{B}$ to a set of points in $\mathbb{R}^{2 d+2}$, such that for any point $p \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ contained in the set $\mathcal{B}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, the box $B_{p}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2 d+2}$ contains precisely the points corresponding to the boxes of $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$. Note that for any $p$, the box $B_{p}$ contains the origin. Now apply Lemma 2.3 in [17] to the set $\{f(B), B \in \mathcal{B}\}$.

We first state the main technical result of this section.

- Lemma 4. Let $k$ be a positive integer. Then there exists a set $\mathcal{B}$ of boxes in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ such that $|\mathcal{B}|=(k-1) d 2^{k-2}$ and for any $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ there exists a $2^{k-1}$-element set $Q$ of points in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ with the property that
(i) $Q \cap R \neq \emptyset$ for any $R \in \mathcal{B} \backslash \mathcal{S}$, and
(ii) $Q \cap S=\emptyset$ for any $S \in \mathcal{S}$.

The above lemma immediately implies a lower bound for the size of $\epsilon$-nets for dual range spaces induced by boxes.

- Theorem 5. Let $\epsilon>0$ and let $n>n_{0}(\epsilon)$ be a sufficiently large integer. Then there exists a set $\mathcal{B}$ of boxes in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ such that $|\mathcal{B}|=n$ and any $\epsilon$-net for the dual range space $(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P})$ is of size at least $(1-o(1)) \frac{d}{8 \epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}$.
Proof. Apply Lemma 4 with $k=\left\lfloor\log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right\rfloor$ to get a set $\mathcal{B}$ of $(k-1) d 2^{k-2}$ boxes in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$. We claim that the dual range space $(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P})$ does not have a small $\epsilon$-net. Assume that there is an $\epsilon$-net $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, where $|\mathcal{S}| \leq|\mathcal{B}| / 2$. By Lemma 4, there exists a set of points $Q$ such that $|Q|=2^{k-1}$, each box in $\mathcal{S}$ does not contain any point of $Q$, and each box in $\mathcal{B} \backslash \mathcal{S}$ contains at least one point of $Q$. By the pigeonhole principle, there is a point $p$ from $Q$ that is contained at least $|\mathcal{B} \backslash \mathcal{S}| /|Q|$ sets from $\mathcal{B} \backslash \mathcal{S}$. But then

$$
\frac{|\mathcal{B} \backslash \mathcal{S}|}{|Q|} \geq \frac{|\mathcal{B}| / 2}{|Q|}=\frac{|\mathcal{B}|}{2 \cdot 2^{k-1}} \geq \epsilon|\mathcal{B}|
$$

[^1]as $2^{-k-1} \leq \epsilon \leq 2^{-k}$. Thus, none of the at least $\epsilon|\mathcal{B}|$ sets hit by $p$ are picked in $\mathcal{S}$, a contradiction. Hence, any $\epsilon$-net must have size at least $|\mathcal{B}| / 2=\frac{(k-1) d 2^{k-2}}{2} \geq(1-o(1)) \frac{d}{8 \epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}$. The above lower bound holds for a fixed value of $n$, as a function of $1 / \epsilon$. Now the theorem follows for any $n$, by replacing each box of $\mathcal{B}$ with several copies, as in the proof of Theorem 1 in [17].

## Proof of Theorem 1.

By Lemma 3, any lower bound for $\epsilon$-nets for the dual set system induced by a set of boxes in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ gives a lower bound for the primal set system induced by half-spaces in $\mathbb{R}^{2 d+2}$. Now Theorem 1 follows immediately from Theorem 5 for even $d$, and with a slight loss in the constant, for odd $d$ by applying the lower bound for $d-1$.

We now return to the proof of the main technical statement of this section.

## Proof of Lemma 4.

Let $K=[0,1]^{d+1}$ be a cube in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$; the constructed sets $\mathcal{B}$ will lie in $K$. Our construction will have $|\mathcal{B}|=(k-1) d 2^{k-2}$.

For ease of exposition, we will identify intervals with binary sequences; namely, a binary sequence $0 . l_{1} l_{2} \ldots l_{s}$ will correspond to the interval $\left(0 . l_{1} l_{2} \ldots l_{s} 000 \ldots, 0 . l_{1} l_{2} \ldots l_{s} 111 \ldots\right) \subset$ $(0,1)$. For example, the sequence 0 corresponds to the interval $(0,1)$, the sequence 0.0 corresponds to the interval $(0,1 / 2)$ and so on. We call $s$ the size of the sequence. The "trivial" sequence 0 is of size $0,0.0$ of size 1 and so on. Note that sequences of size $s$ correspond to intervals of Euclidean length $2^{-s}$. We denote both sequences and the corresponding intervals by capital letters $X, Y$ with subscripts.

Each box in $\mathcal{B}$ will be a Cartesian product of $d+1$ intervals (each represented by a sequence). In fact, $\mathcal{B}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{d} \mathcal{B}^{i}$, where each $B \in \mathcal{B}^{i}$ will have the form $B=0 \times 0 \times \ldots \times$ $X_{i} \times X_{i+1} \times 0 \times \ldots \times 0$. The only "non-trivial" intervals - that is, not equal to $(0,1)-$ are the $i$-th and the $(i+1)$-th ones. When clear from the context, we will omit the $(d-1)$ trivial intervals, and simply write $B=X_{i} \times X_{i+1}$ for $B \in \mathcal{B}^{i}$. Set $\mathcal{B}^{i}=\mathcal{B}_{1}^{i} \cup \cdots \bigcup \mathcal{B}_{k-1}^{i}$, where

$$
\mathcal{B}_{j}^{i}=\left\{X_{i} \times X_{i+1}, \quad X_{i}=0 . l_{1} \ldots l_{k-j}, \quad X_{i+1}=0 . m_{1} \ldots m_{j}: l_{k-j}=m_{j}=1\right\}
$$

The construction of $\mathcal{B}$ is complete. For every $i$ and $j$, we have $\left|\mathcal{B}_{j}^{i}\right|=2^{k-2}$. Then, $|\mathcal{B}|=\sum_{i=1}^{d} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1}\left|\mathcal{B}_{j}^{i}\right|=d(k-1) 2^{k-2}$. It remains to show the existence of the desired set $Q$ for any set $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$.

We start with the following crucial observation, stated without proof.

- Observation 6. Consider two boxes $X=X_{1} \times X_{2} \times \ldots \times X_{d+1}$ and $Y=Y_{1} \times Y_{2} \times \ldots \times Y_{d+1}$. They intersect if and only if for each $i \in[1, d+1]$, one of $X_{i}$ or $Y_{i}$ is a subsequence of the other (By convention, 0 is considered to be a subsequence of every other sequence).

Moreover, if this is the case, then we have $X \cap Y=Z_{1} \times \ldots \times Z_{d+1}$, where $Z_{i}=$ $\arg \max \left\{\operatorname{size}\left(X_{i}\right), \operatorname{size}\left(Y_{i}\right)\right\}$.

It will be useful to define the following larger set of boxes:
$(i, j)$-level $:=\left\{X_{i} \times X_{i+1}: X_{i}\right.$ is a sequence of size $k-j, X_{i+1}$ is a sequence of size $\left.j\right\}$.
Note that the length of the interval in the $i$-th and $(i+1)$-th coordinates is $2^{-k+j}$ and $2^{-j}$, respectively, for the $(i, j)$-level. Also, for any $i$ and $j$, the boxes from the $(i, j)$-level are disjoint, with their closures forming a cover of $K$.

Fix some $i \in[1, d]$ and $j \in[1, k-1]$. We say four boxes from the $(i, j)$-level are grouped if the corresponding sequences for the $i$-th and $(i+1)$-th coordinate of these boxes differ only in the last bit. This provides us with the partition of the boxes on the $(i, j)$-level into $2^{k-2}$ groups. Denote this set of groups by $\mathcal{G}(i, j)$. Note that for every group $G$, we have $|G \cap \mathcal{B}|=1$. Given $\mathcal{S}$, we define the following set of boxes:

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{H}(i, j)= & \bigcup_{G \in \mathcal{G}_{i, j},|G \cap \mathcal{S}|=0}\left\{B \in G: B=X_{i} \times X_{i+1}, \text { sum of the last digits of } X_{i}, X_{i+1} \text { is even }\right\} \bigcup \\
& \bigcup_{G \in \mathcal{G}_{i, j},|G \cap \mathcal{S}|=1}\left\{B \in G: B=X_{i} \times X_{i+1}, \text { sum of the last digits of } X_{i}, X_{i+1} \text { is odd }\right\} . \tag{1}
\end{align*}
$$

Note that each box $B \in \mathcal{H}(i, j)$ belongs to the $(i, j)$-level, and so is of the form $B=$ $X_{i} \times X_{i+1}$, where $X_{i}$ has size $k-j$ and $X_{i+1}$ has size $j$. Set

$$
\mathcal{H}=\bigcup_{i \in[1, d], j \in[1, k-1]} \mathcal{H}(i, j) .
$$

For each $B=X_{i} \times X_{i+1} \in \mathcal{B}_{j}^{i}$, the sum of the last digits of $X_{i}$ and $X_{i+1}$ is even, and so a simple but crucial property of the system of boxes $\mathcal{H}$ is that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{H} \cap \mathcal{B}=\mathcal{B} \backslash \mathcal{S} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The construction of the set $\mathcal{H}(i, j)$ is illustrated on the right. The groups on the $(i, j)$-level are bounded by thick lines, and the rectangles from the $(i, j)$-level that belong to $\mathcal{H}(i, j)$ are marked red. In each "thick" box there are 4 "thin" boxes that form the group, and the upper right one from each group belongs to $\mathcal{B}$. We choose one of the diagonals in each thick box to be in $\mathcal{H}(i, j)$ depending on whether the upper right thin box
 is in $\mathcal{S}$ or not.

The set $Q$ we are going to construct will be a hitting set for $\mathcal{H}$. This suffices to prove the lemma: note that $|Q|=|\mathcal{H}(i, j)|=2^{k-1}$ for each $i, j$, and since the boxes at the $(i, j)$-level are disjoint, each point from $Q$ must hit exactly one box from $\mathcal{H}(i, j)$ and, hence, no box of $\mathcal{S}$ (by equation (2)).

Before we describe the construction of $Q$, we define the set of hitting boxes $\mathcal{A}(i, j)$ :

1. $\mathcal{A}(1,1)=\mathcal{H}(1,1)$,
2. For $i \in[1, d], j \in[2, k-1]$

$$
\mathcal{A}(i, j)=\{A \cap H: A \in \mathcal{A}(i, j-1), H \in \mathcal{H}(i, j), A \cap H \neq \emptyset\}
$$

3. For $i \in[2, d]$

$$
\mathcal{A}(i, 1)=\{A \cap H: A \in \mathcal{A}(i-1, k-1), H \in \mathcal{H}(i, 1), A \cap H \neq \emptyset\}
$$

The key properties of the sets of hitting boxes are formulated in the following lemma.

- Lemma 7. Let $\mathcal{A}(\cdot, \cdot)$ be as defined above. Then
(i) For $i \in[2, d]$, each $A \in \mathcal{A}(i-1, k-1)$ intersects exactly one box from $\mathcal{H}(i, 1)$. Moreover, each box $H \in \mathcal{H}(i, 1)$ is intersected by some $A \in \mathcal{A}(i-1, k-1)$.
(ii) Let $i \in[1, d]$, and $j \in[2, k-1]$. Then each $A \in \mathcal{A}(i, j-1)$ intersects exactly one box from $\mathcal{H}(i, j)$. Moreover, each box $H \in \mathcal{H}(i, j)$ is intersected by some $A \in \mathcal{A}(i, j-1)$.

Proof. The proof of the lemma is by induction on the pair $(i, j)$ with lexicographic ordering. By construction of $\mathcal{A}(\cdot, \cdot)$, for each box $A \in \mathcal{A}(i, j)$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\left(H_{i, j} \cap \ldots \cap H_{i, 1}\right) \bigcap\left(H_{i-1, k-1} \cap \ldots \cap H_{i-1,1}\right) \bigcap \ldots \bigcap\left(H_{1, k-1} \cap \ldots \cap H_{1,1}\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $H_{i, j} \in \mathcal{H}(i, j)$.
Proof of (i). By equation (3) and Observation 6, each box $A \in \mathcal{A}(i-1, k-1)$ has the form $A=X_{1} \times \ldots \times X_{i} \times 0 \times \ldots \times 0$, where for each $j \in[1, i], X_{j}$ has size $k-1$. In particular, $X_{i}$ is of size $k-1$. On the other hand, for $H \in H(i, 1)$ we have $H=0 \times \ldots \times 0 \times Y_{i} \times Y_{i+1} \times 0 \times \ldots \times 0$, where $Y_{i}$ is a sequence of size $k-1$ and $Y_{i+1}$ is a sequence of size 1. Moreover, for each sequence $X_{i}$ of size $k-1$ there is exactly one $H \in \mathcal{H}(i, 1)$ such that $H=0 \times \ldots \times 0 \times X_{i} \times Y_{i+1} \times 0 \times \ldots \times 0$. To see that, one has to note that after fixing a sequence $X_{i}$ we determine the last digit of $Y_{i+1}$ in a unique way based on the even/odd sum criterion from (1). But the last digit is the whole sequence $Y_{i+1}$. Therefore, first part of $(i)$ is proven.

On the other hand, by induction, each of the elements from $\mathcal{H}(i-1, k-1)$ contains one box from $\mathcal{A}(i-1, k-1)$. This implies that among the elements of $\mathcal{A}(i-1, k-1)$ all sequences $X_{i}$ of length $k-1$ are present. Therefore, for each $H \in \mathcal{H}(i, 1), H=0 \times \ldots \times Y_{i} \times Y_{i+1} \times 0 \times \ldots \times 0$, there exists a box $A \in \mathcal{A}(i-1, k-1)$ where $A=X_{1} \times \ldots \times X_{i-1} \times Y_{i} \times 0 \times \ldots \times 0$; by Observation 6, $H$ intersects $A$.

Proof of (ii). The proof of this part is similar to the previous one. By equation (3) and Observation 6, each box $A \in \mathcal{A}(i, j-1)$ has the form $A=X_{1} \times \ldots \times X_{i+1} \times 0 \times \ldots \times 0$, where $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{i}$ are sequences of size $k-1$ and $X_{i+1}$ is of size $j-1$. Let $X_{i}=0 . l_{1} \ldots l_{k-1}, X_{i+1}=$ $0 . m_{1} \ldots m_{j-1}$. We claim that there is a unique element $H \in \mathcal{H}(i, j)$, such that $H=0 \times \ldots \times$ $Y_{i} \times Y_{i+1} \times 0 \times \ldots \times 0$, where $Y_{i}=0 . l_{1} \ldots l_{k-j}, Y_{i+1}=0 . m_{1} \ldots m_{j-1} x$, where $x$ is either 0 or 1 . Indeed, there are two such boxes in the $(i, j)$-level, but the value of $x$ is again uniquely determined based on the even/odd condition from (1). It is easy to see that $H$ is the only element from $\mathcal{H}(i, j)$ that satisfies the containment relation from Observation 6 with $A$.

To prove the second part of the claim, we again use induction. For every box $H^{\prime} \in$ $\mathcal{H}(i, j-1)$ there is an element $A \in \mathcal{A}(i, j-1)$ contained in it. Therefore, for each sequence $Y_{i}=0 . l_{1} \ldots l_{k-j}, Y_{i+1}=0 . m_{1} \ldots m_{j-1}$ there is an element $A \in \mathcal{A}(i, j-1)$ that contains these two sequences as subsequences on the $i$-th and $(i+1)$-st coordinate. On the other hand, each $H \in \mathcal{H}(i, j)$ is determined by such sequences $Y_{i}, Y_{i+1}$. Therefore each $H$ intersects some A.

It is easy to deduce from Lemma 7 that $|\mathcal{A}(i, j)|=2^{k-1}$ for each $i \in[1, d]$ and $j \in[1, k-1]$. Moreover, each box of $\mathcal{H}$ is hit by one of the boxes of $\mathcal{A}(d, k-1)$. Arbitrarily choose one point from each box of $\mathcal{A}(d, k-1)$. The resulting set $Q$ will meet the requirements.

## 3 Proof of Theorem 2

The goal of this section is to establish lower bounds on the sizes of $\epsilon$-nets in range spaces with given shallow-cell complexity $\varphi$. Theorem 2 is a consequence of the following more precise statement.

- Theorem 8. Let $\varphi: \mathbb{R}^{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+}$be a monotonically increasing submultiplicative function ${ }^{3}$, which tends to infinity and is bounded from above by a polynomial of constant degree.

For any $\delta>0$ one can find an $\epsilon_{0}>0$ with the following property: for any $0<\epsilon<\epsilon_{0}$, there exists a range space on a set of $n$ elements with shallow-cell complexity $\varphi$, in which the size of every $\epsilon$-net is at least $\frac{(1-4 \delta)}{\epsilon} \log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$.

Proof. The parameters of the range space are as follows:

$$
n=\frac{\log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)}{\epsilon}, \quad m=\epsilon n=\log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right), \quad p=\frac{n \varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n)}{\binom{n}{m}}
$$

Let $d$ be the smallest integer such that $\varphi(n)=O\left(n^{d}\right)$. In fact, we will assume that $n^{d-1} \leq \varphi(n) \leq c_{1} n^{d}$, for a suitable constant $c_{1} \geq 1$, provided that $n$ is large enough. In the most interesting case, when $\varphi(n)=o(n)$, we have $d=1$. Using that $n \geq \frac{\log \varphi(1 / \epsilon)}{\epsilon}$, if $\epsilon<\epsilon_{0}$, we have the following logarithmic upper bound on $m$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
m=\log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right) \leq \log \left(c_{1} \epsilon^{-d}\right) \leq d \log \frac{c_{1}}{\epsilon} \leq d \log n \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consider a range space $([n], \mathcal{F})$ with a ground set $[n]$ and with a system of $m$-element subsets $\mathcal{F}$, where each $m$-element subset of $[n]$ is added to $\mathcal{F}$ independently with probability $p$. The next claim follows by a routine application of the Chernoff bound.

- Claim 9. With high probability, $|\mathcal{F}| \leq 2 n \varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n)$.

Theorem 8 follows by combining the next two lemmas that show that, with high probability, the range space $([n], \mathcal{F})$
(i) does not admit an $\epsilon$-net of size less than $\frac{(1-4 \delta)}{\epsilon} \log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$, and
(ii) has shallow-cell complexity $\varphi$.

For the proofs, we need to assume that $n=n(\delta, d, \varphi)$ is a sufficiently large constant, or, equivalently, that $\epsilon_{0}=\epsilon_{0}(\delta, d)$ is sufficiently small.

- Lemma 10. With high probability, the range space $([n], \mathcal{F})$ has shallow-cell complexity $\varphi$.

Proof. It is enough to show that for all sufficiently large $x \geq x_{0}$, every $X \subseteq[n],|X|=x$, the number of sets of size exactly $l$ in $\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{X}$ is $O(x \varphi(x))$. This implies that the number of sets in $\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{X}$ of size at most $l$ is $O(x \varphi(x) l)$. In the computations below, we will also assume that $l \geq d+1 \geq 2$; otherwise if $l \leq d$, and assuming $x \geq x_{0} \geq 2 d$, we have

$$
\binom{x}{l} \leq\binom{ x}{d} \leq x^{d} \leq x \varphi(x)
$$

where the last inequality follows by the assumption on $\varphi(x)$, provided that $x$ is sufficiently large. We distinguish two cases.
Case 1: $x>\frac{n}{\varphi^{\delta / d}(x)}$. In this case, we trivially upper-bound $|\mathcal{F}|_{X} \mid$ by $|\mathcal{F}|$. By Claim 9 , with high probability, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
|\mathcal{F}| & \leq 2 n \cdot \varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n) \leq 2 n \cdot\left(\varphi(x) \cdot \varphi\left(\frac{n}{x}\right)\right)^{1-2 \delta} \quad \text { (by the submultiplicativity of } \varphi \\
& \leq 2 n \cdot\left(\varphi(x) \cdot \varphi\left(\varphi^{\delta / d}(x)\right)\right)^{1-2 \delta} \quad\left(\text { as } n / x \leq \varphi^{\delta / d}(x)\right) \\
& \leq 2 n \cdot\left(c_{1} \varphi(x) \varphi^{\delta}(x)\right)^{1-2 \delta} \quad\left(\text { using } \varphi(t) \leq c_{1} t^{d}\right) \\
& \leq 2 c_{1} n \varphi(x)^{1-\delta} \leq 2 c_{1} x \varphi(x)^{1-\delta+\delta / d}=O(x \varphi(x)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

[^2]Case 2: $x \leq \frac{n}{\varphi^{\delta / d}(x)}$. Denote the largest integer $x$ that satisfies this inequality by $x_{1}$. It is clear that $x_{1}=o(n)$ (recall that $\varphi$ is monotonically increasing and tends to infinity). We also denote the system of all $l$-element subsets of $\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{X}$ by $\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{X} ^{l}$ and the set of all $l$-element subsets of $X$ by $\binom{X}{l}$. Let $E$ be the event that $\mathcal{F}$ does not have the required $\varphi(\cdot)$-shallow-cell complexity property. Then $\operatorname{Pr}[E] \leq \sum_{l=2}^{m} \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{l}\right]$, where $E_{l}$ is the event that for some $X \subset[n]$, $|X|=x$, there are more than $x \varphi(x)$ elements in $\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{X} ^{l}$. Then, for any fixed $l \geq d+1 \geq 2$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{l}\right] \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{1}} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\exists X \subseteq[n],|X|=x,|\mathcal{F}|_{X}^{l} \mid>x \varphi(x)\right] \\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{1}}\binom{n}{x} \sum_{s=\lceil x \varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { For a fixed } X,|X|=x,\left|\left\{\left.S \in \mathcal{F}\right|_{X},|S|=l\right\}\right|=s\right] \\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{1}}\binom{n}{x} \sum_{s=\lceil x \varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}}\left(\begin{array}{c}
x \\
l \\
s
\end{array}\right) \text { Pr }\left[\text { For a fixed } X,|X|=x, \mathcal{S} \subseteq\binom{X}{l},|\mathcal{S}|=s,\right. \\
& \text { we have } \left.\left.\mathcal{F}\right|_{X} ^{l}=\mathcal{S}\right] \\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{1}}\binom{n}{x} \sum_{s=\lceil x \varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}}\left(\begin{array}{c}
\left(\begin{array}{c}
x \\
l \\
s
\end{array}\right)
\end{array}\right)\left(1-(1-p)^{\binom{n-x}{m-l}}\right)^{s}(1-p)^{\binom{n-x}{m-l}\left(\binom{x}{l}-s\right)}  \tag{5}\\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{1}} \sum_{s=\lceil x \varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}}\left(\frac{e n}{x}\right)^{x}\left(\frac{e\left(\frac{e x}{l}\right)^{l}}{s}\right)^{s}\left(p\binom{n-x}{m-l}\right)^{s}  \tag{6}\\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{1}} \sum_{s=\lceil x \varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}}\left(\frac{e n}{x}\right)^{x}\left(\frac{e^{l+1} x^{l-1}}{l^{l} \varphi(x)} p\binom{n}{m} \frac{m^{l}}{(n-x-m)^{l}}\right)^{s}  \tag{7}\\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{1}} \sum_{s=\lceil x \varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}}\left(\frac{e n}{x}\right)^{x}\left(\left(\frac{e m x}{n}\right)^{l-1} \frac{e^{2} m \varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n)}{\varphi(x)}\right)^{s} \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

In the transition to the expression (6), we used several times $(i)$ the bound $\binom{a}{b} \leq\left(\frac{e a}{b}\right)^{b}$ for any $a, b \in \mathbb{N} ;(i i)$ the inequality $(1-p)^{b} \geq 1-b p$ for any integer $b \geq 1$ and real $0 \leq p \leq 1$; and (iii) we upper-bounded the last factor of (5) by 1.

In the transition from (6) to (7) we lower-bounded $s$ by $x \varphi(x)$. We also used the estimate $\binom{n-x}{m-l} \leq\binom{ n}{m} \frac{m^{l}}{(n-x-m)^{l}}$, which can be verified as follows.

$$
\binom{n-x}{m-l}=\binom{n-x}{m} \prod_{i=0}^{l-1} \frac{m-i}{n-x-m+(i+1)} \leq\binom{ n-x}{m}\left(\frac{m}{n-x-m}\right)^{l} \leq\binom{ n}{m} \frac{m^{l}}{(n-x-m)^{l}}
$$

Finally, to obtain (8), we substituted the formula for $p$ and used the fact that

$$
l^{l}(n-x-m)^{l}=(l \cdot(n-x-m))^{l} \geq\left(l \cdot \frac{n}{2}\right)^{l} \geq n^{l}
$$

as $x \leq x_{1}=o(n), m=\epsilon n \leq n / 4$ for $\epsilon<\epsilon_{0} \leq 1 / 4$ and $l \geq 2$.

Denote $x_{2}=\left\lceil n^{1-\delta}\right\rceil$. We split the expression (8) into two sums $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$. Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Sigma_{1}:=\sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{2}-1} \sum_{s=\lceil x \varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}}\left(\frac{e n}{x}\right)^{x}\left(\left(\frac{e m x}{n}\right)^{l-1} \frac{e^{2} m \varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n)}{\varphi(x)}\right)^{s} \\
& \Sigma_{2}:=\sum_{x=x_{2}}^{x_{1}} \sum_{s=\lceil x \varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}}\left(\frac{e n}{x}\right)^{x}\left(\left(\frac{e m x}{n}\right)^{l-1} \frac{e^{2} m \varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n)}{\varphi(x)}\right)^{s}
\end{aligned}
$$

These two sums will be bounded separately. We have

$$
\begin{align*}
\Sigma_{1} & \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{2}-1} \sum_{s=\lceil x \varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}}\left(\frac{e n}{x}\right)^{x}\left(\left(\frac{e m x}{n}\right)^{l-1} \frac{c_{1}^{1-2 \delta} e^{2} m n^{d-2 d \delta}}{x^{d-2 d \delta} \varphi^{2 \delta}(x)}\right)^{s}  \tag{9}\\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{2}-1} \sum_{s=\lceil x \varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}}\left(\frac{e n}{x}\right)^{x}\left(\left(\frac{e m x}{n}\right)^{l-1-d+2 d \delta} C m^{d+1-2 d \delta}\right)^{s} \quad(\text { for some constant } C>0) \\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{2}-1} \sum_{s=\lceil x \varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}}\left(\frac{e n}{x}\right)^{x}\left(\left(n^{-\delta / 2}\right)^{l-1-d+2 d \delta} C m^{d+1}\right)^{s}  \tag{10}\\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{2}-1} x^{l}\left(\frac{e n}{x}\right)^{x}\left(n^{-\frac{\delta}{2} \cdot 2 d \delta} n^{\frac{\delta^{2}}{2}}\right)^{x \varphi(x)} \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{2}-1} x^{l}\left(\frac{e n}{x}\right)^{x} n^{-\frac{x \varphi(x) d \delta^{2}}{2}}  \tag{11}\\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{2}-1} n^{2 x-\frac{x \varphi(x) d \delta^{2}}{2}} \leq \sum_{x=x_{0}}^{x_{2}-1} n^{-2 x} \leq \frac{n}{n^{2 x_{0}}}=o\left(\frac{1}{m}\right) \tag{12}
\end{align*}
$$

To obtain (9), we used the property that $\varphi(n) \leq \varphi(x) \varphi(n / x) \leq c_{1} \varphi(x)(n / x)^{d}$, provided that $n, x, n / x$ are sufficiently large. To establish (10), we used the fact that $x \leq x_{2}=n^{1-\delta}$ and that $e m \leq e d \log n \leq n^{\delta / 2}$ (this follows from (4). In the transition to (11), we needed that $l \geq d+1, d \geq 1$ and that $C m^{d+1} \leq C(d \log n)^{d+1}=o\left(n^{\delta^{2} / 2}\right)$, by (4). Then we lower-bounded $s$ by $x \varphi(x)$. To arrive at (12), we used that $l \leq x$. The last inequality follows from the facts that $x_{0}$ is large enough, so that $\varphi(x) \geq \varphi\left(x_{0}\right) \geq 8 /\left(d \delta^{2}\right)$ and that $m=o(n)$.

Next, we turn to bounding $\Sigma_{2}$. First observe that

$$
\varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n) \leq \varphi^{\frac{1-2 \delta}{1-\delta}}\left(n^{1-\delta}\right) \leq \varphi^{\frac{1-2 \delta}{1-\delta}}(x) \leq \varphi^{1-\delta}(x)
$$

where we used the submultiplicativity and monotonicity of the function $\varphi(n)$ and the fact that $x \geq x_{2}=n^{1-\delta}$. Substituting the bound for $\varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n)$ in $\Sigma_{2}$ and putting $C=e^{2} m$, we
obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
\Sigma_{2} & \leq \sum_{x=x_{2}}^{x_{1}} \sum_{s=\lceil x \varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}}\left(\frac{e n}{x}\right)^{x}\left(\left(\frac{e m x}{n}\right)^{l-1} C \varphi^{-\delta}(x)\right)^{s} \\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{2}}^{x_{1}} x^{l}\left(\frac{e n}{x}\right)^{x}\left(\frac{e m x}{n} C \varphi^{-\delta}(x)\right)^{x \varphi(x)}  \tag{13}\\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{2}}^{x_{1}}\left(\frac{n}{x}\right)^{x-x \varphi(x)}\left(e^{1+x /(x \varphi(x))} m x^{l /(x \varphi(x))} C \varphi^{-\delta}(x)\right)^{x \varphi(x)} \\
& \leq \sum_{x=x_{2}}^{x_{1}}\left(\frac{n}{x}\right)^{x-x \varphi(x)}\left(C^{\prime} \varphi^{-\delta / 2}(x)\right)^{x \varphi(x)} \quad\left(\text { for some constant } C^{\prime}>0\right)  \tag{14}\\
& \leq n\left(\frac{n}{x_{1}}\right)^{x_{2}-x_{2} \varphi\left(x_{2}\right)}\left(C \varphi^{-\delta / 2}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)^{x_{2} \varphi\left(x_{2}\right)} \leq\left(\frac{n}{x_{1}}\right)^{x_{2}-x_{2} \varphi\left(x_{2}\right)}  \tag{15}\\
& =\left(\frac{x_{1}}{n}\right)^{x_{2} \varphi\left(x_{2}\right)-x_{2}}=o(1 / m) .
\end{align*}
$$

In the transition to (13), we used that $e m x \leq e m^{2} \leq e d^{2} \log ^{2} n<n$ and $l \geq 2$. To get (14), we used that for some constant $c>1$ we have $x^{\bar{l} /(x \varphi(x))} \leq c^{m / \varphi(x)} \leq c^{\log \varphi(x) / \varphi(x)}=O(1)$ and that $m \leq \varphi^{\delta / 2}(x)$ for $x \geq x_{0}$. To obtain (15), we noticed that $n^{1 /\left(x_{2} \varphi\left(x_{2}\right)\right)}=O(1)$. At the last equation, we used that $x_{1}=o(n), n e / x_{1} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $x_{2} \varphi\left(x_{2}\right)-x_{2}=\Omega\left(n^{1-\delta / 2}\right)$.

We have shown that for every $l=2, \ldots, m, \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{l}\right]=o(1 / m)$. We conclude that $\operatorname{Pr}[E] \leq$ $\sum_{l=2}^{m} \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{l}\right]=o(1)$ and, hence, with high probability, the range space $([n], \mathcal{F})$ has shallow-cell complexity $\varphi$.

Now we are in a position to prove that with high probability, the range space $([n], \mathcal{F})$ does not admit a small $\epsilon$-net.

- Lemma 11. With high probability, the size of any $\epsilon$-net of the range space $([n], \mathcal{F})$ is at least $\frac{(1-4 \delta)}{\epsilon} \log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$.

Proof. Assume without loss of generality that $\delta<1 / 10$. Denote by $\mu$ the probability that the range space has an $\epsilon$-net of size $t=(1-4 \delta) \frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)=(1-4 \delta) n$. Then

$$
\begin{gather*}
\mu \leq \sum_{\substack{X \subseteq[n] \\
|X|=t}} \operatorname{Pr}[X \text { is an } \epsilon \text {-net for } \mathcal{F}] \leq\binom{ n}{t}(1-p)\left(\begin{array}{c}
\binom{n-t}{m}
\end{array}\binom{n}{t} e^{-p\binom{n-t}{m}}\right.  \tag{16}\\
\leq\left(\frac{e n}{t}\right)^{t} e^{-n \varphi^{\delta}(n)} \leq 5^{n} e^{-n \varphi^{\delta}(n)}=o(1) \tag{17}
\end{gather*}
$$

Here, the crucial transition from (16) to (17) uses the inequality below. Since $1-a x>e^{-b x}$ for $b>a, 0<x<1 / a-1 / b$, we obtain that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p\binom{n-t}{m} \geq p\binom{n}{m}\left(\frac{n-m-t}{n-t}\right)^{t} \geq n \varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n)\left(1-\frac{m}{n-t}\right)^{t} \\
& \geq n \varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n)\left(1-\frac{(1+\delta / 2) m}{n}\right)^{t} \geq n \varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n) e^{-\frac{(1+\delta) m t}{n}} \\
& \geq n \varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n) e^{-(1-3 \delta) \log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)} \geq n \varphi^{1-2 \delta}(n) \varphi^{-1+3 \delta}\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right) \geq n \varphi^{\delta}(n) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, Lemma 10 and Lemma 11 imply that with high probability the range space ( $[n], \mathcal{F}$ ) has shallow-cell complexity $\varphi$ and it admits no $\epsilon$-net of size less than $(1-4 \delta) \frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$. This completes the proof of the theorem.

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[^0]:    1 Their result is in fact for the more general problem of small weight $\epsilon$-nets.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ An axis-parallel box in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ is the Cartesian product of $d+1$ intervals. For simplicity, in the sequel, they will be called "boxes".

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Compare with Definition 1.

