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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  $\Omega(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\log\frac{1}{\epsilon})$  (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  $d \ge 4$ , to show that the general upper bound,  $O(\frac{d}{z}\log\frac{1}{z})$ , 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  $X' \subseteq X$ is called an  $\epsilon$ -net for  $(X, \mathcal{R})$  if  $X' \cap R \neq \emptyset$  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

$$\mathcal{R}|_Y := \{Y \cap R : R \in \mathcal{R}\}.$$

The Vapnik-Chervonenkis dimension or, in short, the VC-dimension of the range space  $(X, \mathcal{R})$ is the minimum integer d such that  $|\mathcal{R}|_{Y}| < 2^{|R|}$  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  $O(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log |\mathcal{R}|_X)$ . 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

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 $Y \subseteq X$ , we have  $|\mathcal{F}|_Y| = O(|Y|^d)$ . 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  $\Omega(\frac{d}{\epsilon} \log \frac{d}{\epsilon})$ , we obtain an  $\epsilon$ -net with positive probability. Actually, they only used the weaker assumption that  $|\mathcal{R}|_Y| = O(|Y|^d)$  for every  $Y \subseteq X$ . This bound was later improved to  $(1 + o(1))(\frac{d}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon})$ , as  $d, \frac{1}{\epsilon} \to \infty$  [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  $|\mathcal{R}|_X|$ . 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  $d \ge 2$ , there exist range spaces with VC-dimension at most d, and for which any  $\epsilon$ -net must have size at least  $(1 - \frac{2}{d} + \frac{1}{d(d+2)} + o(1))\frac{d}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ .

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  $\mathcal{R}|_X$ . 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  $O(\frac{d}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon})$ .

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  $S_x := \{S | x \in S, S \in \mathcal{S}\}$ , 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  $O(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$  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 VC-dimension by a more refined combinatorial property, one can prove the existence of  $\epsilon$ -nets of size  $o(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon})$ . To formulate this property, we need to introduce some terminology.

Given a function  $\varphi : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$ , 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  $\mathcal{R}|_Y$  is  $O(|Y| \cdot \varphi(|Y|) \cdot l^c)$ . 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  $\varphi(n) = O(n^D)$ , for some D > 0, then we have  $|\mathcal{R}|_Y| = O(|Y|^{1+D+c(\mathcal{R})})$ . However, this latter condition does not yield much information on the finer distribution of the sizes of the smaller sets in  $\mathcal{R}|_Y$ .

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  $\varphi(n) = O(n^{\lfloor d/2 \rfloor - 1})$ .

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  $\mathcal{S}' \subseteq \mathcal{S}$  for which there is a point in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  contained in all elements of  $\mathcal{S}'$ , but in none of the elements of  $\mathcal{S} \setminus \mathcal{S}'$ , is at most  $O(|\mathcal{S}|\varphi(|\mathcal{S}|)l^{c(\mathcal{R})})$ , for a suitable constant  $c(\mathcal{R})$ . (Note that for small values of l, these points – and the corresponding cells  $\cap_{\mathcal{S}\in\mathcal{S}'} \mathcal{S}$  – 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  $O(n \log^* n)$ ; see [3]. Therefore, the shallow-cell complexity of the corresponding dual range spaces is  $\varphi(n) = O(\log^* n)$ .

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-the-art.

▶ Theorem A. Let  $(X, \mathcal{R})$  be a range space with shallow-cell complexity  $\varphi$ , where  $\varphi(n) = O(n^d)$  for some constant d. Then, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , it has an  $\epsilon$ -net of size  $O(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \varphi(\frac{1}{\epsilon}))$ , 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  $O(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\log\varphi(|X|))$  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  $|A| = O(\frac{d}{\epsilon^2}\log\frac{1}{\epsilon}) = O(\frac{1}{\epsilon^3})$ , and for any  $R \in \mathcal{R}$ , we have  $\frac{|R \cap A|}{|A|} \ge \frac{|R|}{|X|} - \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . In particular, any  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  with  $|R| \ge \epsilon |X|$  contains at least an  $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$ -fraction of the elements of A. Therefore, an  $(\epsilon/2)$ -net for  $(A, \mathcal{R}|_A)$  is an  $\epsilon$ -net for  $(X, \mathcal{R})$ . Computing an  $(\epsilon/2)$ -net for  $(A, \mathcal{R}|_A)$  gives the required set of size  $O(\frac{2}{\epsilon}\log\varphi(|A|)) = O(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\log\varphi(\frac{1}{\epsilon^3})) = O(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\log\varphi(\frac{1}{\epsilon}))$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Their result is in fact for the more general problem of small weight  $\epsilon$ -nets.

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  $O(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$ . 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,  $\Omega(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\log\frac{1}{\epsilon})$  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  $\Omega(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\log\frac{1}{\epsilon})$ .

#### 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  $d \ge 4$  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  $\Omega(\frac{d}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon})$ .

We have seen that for any  $d \ge 1$  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  $\mathcal{B} \setminus \mathcal{A}$  (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 3d 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.

- ▶ Definition 1. A function  $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$  is called *submultiplicative* if
- 1.  $\varphi^{\alpha}(n) \leq \varphi(n^{\alpha})$  for  $0 < \alpha < 1$  and a sufficiently large positive n, and
- **2.**  $\varphi(x)\varphi(y) \ge \varphi(xy)$  for any sufficiently large  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^+$ .

▶ Theorem 2. Let d be a fixed positive integer and let  $\varphi : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$  be any submultiplicative function with  $\varphi(n) = O(n^d)$ . 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  $\Omega(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\log\varphi(\frac{1}{\epsilon}))$ .

We have remarked that  $\varphi(n) = \Omega(n)$  implies that  $|\mathcal{F}|_Y| = \Omega(|Y|^2)$  for any  $Y \subseteq X$ . Therefore, in this case the last theorem yields a lower bound of  $\Omega(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon})$ , 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  $\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \varphi(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$  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<sup>2</sup> in  $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  and  $\mathcal{P}$  is the set system induced by points, i.e.,  $\mathcal{B}' \in \mathcal{P}$  if and only if there exists a point  $p \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  such that  $\mathcal{B}' = \{B \in \mathcal{B} : p \in B\}$ .

▶ 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  $f : \mathcal{B} \to \mathbb{R}^{2d+2}$  such that for every  $\mathcal{B}' \in \mathcal{P}$ , there exists a half-space H in  $\mathbb{R}^{2d+2}$  with  $\{f(B), B \in \mathcal{B}'\} = H \cap \{f(B), B \in \mathcal{B}\}.$ 

**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  $g: \mathcal{B} \to \mathbb{R}^{2d+2}$ , where the box  $B = [x_1^l, x_1^r] \times \cdots \times [x_{d+1}^l, x_{d+1}^r]$  is mapped to the point  $(x_1^l, 1/x_1^r, \cdots, x_{d+1}^l, 1/x_{d+1}^r) \in \mathbb{R}^{2d+2}$  lying in the positive orthant of  $\mathbb{R}^{2d+2}$ . Clearly, for any point  $p = (a_1, \ldots, a_{d+1})$ , we have  $p \in B$  if and only if  $g(B) \in B_p =$  $[0, a_1] \times [0, 1/a_1] \times \cdots \times [0, a_{d+1}] \times [0, 1/a_{d+1}]$ . Thus,  $g(\cdot)$  maps the set of boxes in  $\mathcal{B}$  to a set of points in  $\mathbb{R}^{2d+2}$ , such that for any point  $p \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  contained in the set  $\mathcal{B}' \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ , the box  $B_p$ in  $\mathbb{R}^{2d+2}$  contains precisely the points corresponding to the boxes of  $\mathcal{B}'$ . 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  $|\mathcal{B}| = (k-1)d2^{k-2}$  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  $R \in \mathcal{B} \setminus \mathcal{S}$ , 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  $(1 - o(1)) \frac{d}{\delta \epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ .

**Proof.** Apply Lemma 4 with  $k = \lfloor \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} \rfloor$  to get a set  $\mathcal{B}$  of  $(k-1)d2^{k-2}$  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  $\mathcal{B} \setminus \mathcal{S}$  contains at least one point of Q. By the pigeonhole principle, there is a point p from Q that is contained at least  $|\mathcal{B} \setminus \mathcal{S}|/|Q|$  sets from  $\mathcal{B} \setminus \mathcal{S}$ . But then

$$\frac{|\mathcal{B} \setminus \mathcal{S}|}{|Q|} \ge \frac{|\mathcal{B}|/2}{|Q|} = \frac{|\mathcal{B}|}{2 \cdot 2^{k-1}} \ge \epsilon |\mathcal{B}|,$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> 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".

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  $|\mathcal{B}|/2 = \frac{(k-1)d2^{k-2}}{2} \geq (1-o(1))\frac{d}{8\epsilon}\log\frac{1}{\epsilon}$ . 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  $\mathbb{R}^{2d+2}$ . 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  $|\mathcal{B}| = (k-1)d2^{k-2}$ .

For ease of exposition, we will identify intervals with binary sequences; namely, a binary sequence  $0.l_1l_2...l_s$  will correspond to the interval  $(0.l_1l_2...l_s000..., 0.l_1l_2...l_s111...) \subset (0,1)$ . 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  $\mathcal{B}^{i} = \mathcal{B}^{i}_{1} \bigcup \cdots \bigcup \mathcal{B}^{i}_{k-1}$ , where

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

The construction of  $\mathcal{B}$  is complete. For every *i* and *j*, we have  $|\mathcal{B}_j^i| = 2^{k-2}$ . Then,  $|\mathcal{B}| = \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} |\mathcal{B}_j^i| = d(k-1)2^{k-2}$ . 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  $Z_i = \arg \max\{size(X_i), size(Y_i)\}$ .

It will be useful to define the following larger set of boxes:

(i, j)-level := { $X_i \times X_{i+1} : X_i$  is a sequence of size  $k - j, X_{i+1}$  is a sequence of size j }.

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:

$$\mathcal{H}(i,j) = \bigcup_{G \in \mathcal{G}_{i,j}, |G \cap \mathcal{S}| = 0} \{B \in G : B = X_i \times X_{i+1}, \text{ sum of the last digits of } X_i, X_{i+1} \text{ is even}\} \bigcup_{G \in \mathcal{G}_{i,j}, |G \cap \mathcal{S}| = 1} \{B \in G : B = X_i \times X_{i+1}, \text{ sum of the last digits of } X_i, X_{i+1} \text{ is odd}\}.$$

$$(1)$$

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

$$\mathcal{H}\cap\mathcal{B}=\mathcal{B}\setminus\mathcal{S}.$$

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. A(1,1) = 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\},\$$

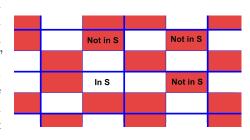
**3.** For  $i \in [2, d]$ 

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

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  $A \in \mathcal{A}(i - 1, k - 1)$ .



(2)

#### 8 New Lower Bounds for *e*-nets

(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  $A \in \mathcal{A}(i, j)$ :

$$A = (H_{i,j} \cap \ldots \cap H_{i,1}) \bigcap (H_{i-1,k-1} \cap \ldots \cap H_{i-1,1}) \bigcap \ldots \bigcap (H_{1,k-1} \cap \ldots \cap H_{1,1})$$
(3)

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  $H' \in \mathcal{H}(i, j - 1)$  there is an element  $A \in \mathcal{A}(i, j - 1)$  contained in it. Therefore, for each sequence  $Y_i = 0.l_1 \dots l_{k-j}, Y_{i+1} = 0.m_1 \dots m_{j-1}$  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  $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$  be a monotonically increasing submultiplicative function<sup>3</sup>, 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  $\frac{(1-4\delta)}{\epsilon} \log \varphi(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$ .

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

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

Let d be the smallest integer such that  $\varphi(n) = O(n^d)$ . 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.

$$m = \log \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right) \le \log\left(c_1 \epsilon^{-d}\right) \le d \log \frac{c_1}{\epsilon} \le d \log n \tag{4}$$

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,  $|\mathcal{F}| \leq 2n\varphi^{1-2\delta}(n)$ .

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  $\frac{(1-4\delta)}{\epsilon}\log\varphi(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$ , 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  $x \ge x_0$ , every  $X \subseteq [n], |X| = x$ , the number of sets of size *exactly* l in  $\mathcal{F}|_X$  is  $O(x\varphi(x))$ . This implies that the number of sets in  $\mathcal{F}|_X$  of size at most l is  $O(x\varphi(x)l)$ . In the computations below, we will also assume that  $l \ge d+1 \ge 2$ ; otherwise if  $l \le d$ , and assuming  $x \ge x_0 \ge 2d$ , we have

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

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  $|\mathcal{F}|_X|$  by  $|\mathcal{F}|$ . By Claim 9, with high probability, we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathcal{F}| &\leq 2n \cdot \varphi^{1-2\delta}(n) \leq 2n \cdot \left(\varphi(x) \cdot \varphi\left(\frac{n}{x}\right)\right)^{1-2\delta} \text{ (by the submultiplicativity of }\varphi\\ &\leq 2n \cdot \left(\varphi(x) \cdot \varphi\left(\varphi^{\delta/d}(x)\right)\right)^{1-2\delta} \text{ (as } n/x \leq \varphi^{\delta/d}(x)\text{)}\\ &\leq 2n \cdot \left(c_1\varphi(x)\varphi^{\delta}(x)\right)^{1-2\delta} \text{ (using }\varphi(t) \leq c_1t^d \text{)}\\ &\leq 2c_1n\varphi(x)^{1-\delta} \leq 2c_1x\varphi(x)^{1-\delta+\delta/d} = O(x\varphi(x)). \end{aligned}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Compare with Definition 1.

**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  $\mathcal{F}|_X$  by  $\mathcal{F}|_X^l$  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  $\Pr[E] \leq \sum_{l=2}^{m} \Pr[E_l]$ , where  $E_l$  is the event that for some  $X \subset [n]$ , |X| = x, there are more than  $x\varphi(x)$  elements in  $\mathcal{F}|_X^l$ . Then, for any fixed  $l \geq d+1 \geq 2$ , we have

$$\Pr[E_l] \leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_1} \Pr\left[\exists X \subseteq [n], |X| = x, |\mathcal{F}|_X^l| > x\varphi(x)\right]$$
$$\leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_1} \binom{n}{x} \sum_{s=\lceil x\varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}} \Pr\left[\text{For a fixed } X, |X| = x, |\{S \in \mathcal{F}|_X, |S| = l\}| = s\right]$$
$$\leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_1} \binom{n}{x} \sum_{s=\lceil x\varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}} \binom{\binom{x}{l}}{s} \Pr\left[\text{For a fixed } X, |X| = x, \mathcal{S} \subseteq \binom{X}{l}, |\mathcal{S}| = s, we \text{ have } \mathcal{F}|_X^l = \mathcal{S}\right]$$

$$\leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_1} \binom{n}{x} \sum_{s=\lceil x\varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{n}{l}} \binom{\binom{x}{l}}{s} \left(1 - (1-p)^{\binom{n-x}{m-l}}\right)^s (1-p)^{\binom{n-x}{m-l}} \binom{\binom{x}{l}-s}{s}$$
(5)

$$\leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_1} \sum_{s=\lceil x\varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{n}{l}} \left(\frac{en}{x}\right)^x \left(\frac{e\left(\frac{ex}{l}\right)^l}{s}\right)^s \left(p\binom{n-x}{m-l}\right)^s \tag{6}$$

$$\leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_1} \sum_{s=\lceil x\varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{n}{l}} \left(\frac{en}{x}\right)^x \left(\frac{e^{l+1}x^{l-1}}{l^l\varphi(x)}p\binom{n}{m}\frac{m^l}{(n-x-m)^l}\right)^s$$
(7)

$$\leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_1} \sum_{s=\lceil x\varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{n}{l}} \left(\frac{en}{x}\right)^x \left(\left(\frac{emx}{n}\right)^{l-1} \frac{e^2 m \varphi^{1-2\delta}(n)}{\varphi(x)}\right)^s \tag{8}$$

In the transition to the expression (6), we used several times (i) the bound  $\binom{a}{b} \leq \left(\frac{ea}{b}\right)^{b}$  for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ ; (ii) the inequality  $(1-p)^{b} \geq 1 - bp$  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.

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

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

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

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  $x_2 = \lceil n^{1-\delta} \rceil$ . We split the expression (8) into two sums  $\Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$ . Let

$$\Sigma_1 := \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_2-1} \sum_{s=\lceil x\varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{n}{l}} \left(\frac{en}{x}\right)^x \left(\left(\frac{emx}{n}\right)^{l-1} \frac{e^2 m\varphi^{1-2\delta}(n)}{\varphi(x)}\right)^s$$
  
$$\Sigma_2 := \sum_{x=x_2}^{x_1} \sum_{s=\lceil x\varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{n}{l}} \left(\frac{en}{x}\right)^x \left(\left(\frac{emx}{n}\right)^{l-1} \frac{e^2 m\varphi^{1-2\delta}(n)}{\varphi(x)}\right)^s$$

These two sums will be bounded separately. We have

$$\Sigma_1 \le \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_2-1} \sum_{s=\lceil x\varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{n}{l}} \left(\frac{en}{x}\right)^x \left(\left(\frac{emx}{n}\right)^{l-1} \frac{c_1^{1-2\delta}e^2mn^{d-2d\delta}}{x^{d-2d\delta}\varphi^{2\delta}(x)}\right)^s \tag{9}$$

$$\leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_2-1} \sum_{s=\lceil x\varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{n}{l}} \left(\frac{en}{x}\right)^x \left(\left(\frac{emx}{n}\right)^{l-1-d+2d\delta} Cm^{d+1-2d\delta}\right)^s \quad \text{(for some constant } C>0)$$

$$\leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_2-1} \sum_{s=\lceil x\varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{n}{2}} \left(\frac{en}{x}\right)^x \left(\left(n^{-\delta/2}\right)^{l-1-d+2d\delta} Cm^{d+1}\right)^s \tag{10}$$

$$\leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_2-1} x^l \left(\frac{en}{x}\right)^x \left(n^{-\frac{\delta}{2}\cdot 2d\delta} n^{\frac{\delta^2}{2}}\right)^{x\varphi(x)} \leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_2-1} x^l \left(\frac{en}{x}\right)^x n^{-\frac{x\varphi(x)d\delta^2}{2}}$$
(11)

$$\leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_2-1} n^{2x - \frac{x\varphi(x)d\delta^2}{2}} \leq \sum_{x=x_0}^{x_2-1} n^{-2x} \leq \frac{n}{n^{2x_0}} = o(\frac{1}{m}).$$
(12)

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  $em \leq ed \log n \leq n^{\delta/2}$  (this follows from (4). In the transition to (11), we needed that  $l \geq d+1, d \geq 1$  and that  $Cm^{d+1} \leq C(d \log n)^{d+1} = o(n^{\delta^2/2})$ , 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  $\varphi(x) \geq \varphi(x_0) \geq 8/(d\delta^2)$  and that m = o(n).

Next, we turn to bounding  $\Sigma_2$ . First observe that

$$\varphi^{1-2\delta}(n) \le \varphi^{\frac{1-2\delta}{1-\delta}}(n^{1-\delta}) \le \varphi^{\frac{1-2\delta}{1-\delta}}(x) \le \varphi^{1-\delta}(x),$$

where we used the submultiplicativity and monotonicity of the function  $\varphi(n)$  and the fact that  $x \ge x_2 = n^{1-\delta}$ . Substituting the bound for  $\varphi^{1-2\delta}(n)$  in  $\Sigma_2$  and putting  $C = e^2 m$ , we

obtain

$$\Sigma_{2} \leq \sum_{x=x_{2}}^{x_{1}} \sum_{s=\lceil x\varphi(x)\rceil}^{\binom{x}{l}} \left(\frac{en}{x}\right)^{x} \left(\left(\frac{emx}{n}\right)^{l-1} C\varphi^{-\delta}(x)\right)^{s}$$

$$\leq \sum_{x=x_{2}}^{x_{1}} x^{l} \left(\frac{en}{x}\right)^{x} \left(\frac{emx}{n} C\varphi^{-\delta}(x)\right)^{x\varphi(x)}$$

$$\leq \sum_{x=x_{2}}^{x_{1}} \left(\frac{n}{x}\right)^{x-x\varphi(x)} \left(e^{1+x/(x\varphi(x))} mx^{l/(x\varphi(x))} C\varphi^{-\delta}(x)\right)^{x\varphi(x)}$$

$$\leq \sum_{x=x_{2}}^{x_{1}} \left(\frac{n}{x}\right)^{x-x\varphi(x)} \left(C'\varphi^{-\delta/2}(x)\right)^{x\varphi(x)}$$
(13)
(14)

$$\leq n \left(\frac{n}{x_1}\right)^{x_2 - x_2 \varphi(x_2)} \left(C\varphi^{-\delta/2}(x_2)\right)^{x_2 \varphi(x_2)} \leq \left(\frac{n}{x_1}\right)^{x_2 - x_2 \varphi(x_2)}$$
(15)  
=  $\left(\frac{x_1}{n}\right)^{x_2 \varphi(x_2) - x_2} = o(1/m).$ 

In the transition to (13), we used that  $emx \leq em^2 \leq ed^2 \log^2 n < n$  and  $l \geq 2$ . To get (14), we used that for some constant c > 1 we have  $x^{l/(x\varphi(x))} \leq c^{m/\varphi(x)} \leq c^{\log \varphi(x)/\varphi(x)} = O(1)$  and that  $m \leq \varphi^{\delta/2}(x)$  for  $x \geq x_0$ . To obtain (15), we noticed that  $n^{1/(x_2\varphi(x_2))} = O(1)$ . At the last equation, we used that  $x_1 = o(n)$ ,  $ne/x_1 \to \infty$  as  $n \to \infty$  and  $x_2\varphi(x_2) - x_2 = \Omega(n^{1-\delta/2})$ .

We have shown that for every l = 2, ..., m,  $\Pr[E_l] = o(1/m)$ . We conclude that  $\Pr[E] \leq \sum_{l=2}^{m} \Pr[E_l] = o(1)$  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  $\frac{(1-4\delta)}{\epsilon} \log \varphi(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$ .

**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  $t = (1 - 4\delta)\frac{1}{\epsilon}\log\varphi(\frac{1}{\epsilon}) = (1 - 4\delta)n$ . Then

$$\mu \leq \sum_{\substack{X \subseteq [n] \\ |X|=t}} \Pr\left[X \text{ is an } \epsilon \text{-net for } \mathcal{F}\right] \leq \binom{n}{t} (1-p)^{\binom{n-t}{m}} \leq \binom{n}{t} e^{-p\binom{n-t}{m}}$$
(16)

$$\leq \left(\frac{en}{t}\right)^t e^{-n\varphi^{\delta}(n)} \leq 5^n e^{-n\varphi^{\delta}(n)} = o(1).$$
(17)

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

$$p\binom{n-t}{m} \ge p\binom{n}{m} \left(\frac{n-m-t}{n-t}\right)^t \ge n\varphi^{1-2\delta}(n) \left(1-\frac{m}{n-t}\right)^t$$
$$\ge n\varphi^{1-2\delta}(n) \left(1-\frac{(1+\delta/2)m}{n}\right)^t \ge n\varphi^{1-2\delta}(n)e^{-\frac{(1+\delta)mt}{n}}$$
$$\ge n\varphi^{1-2\delta}(n)e^{-(1-3\delta)\log\varphi(\frac{1}{\epsilon})} \ge n\varphi^{1-2\delta}(n)\varphi^{-1+3\delta}\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right) \ge n\varphi^{\delta}(n).$$

◀

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  $(1-4\delta)\frac{1}{\epsilon}\log\varphi(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$ . This completes the proof of the theorem.

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