

# Chapter 1

## First Constructions of Epsilon-Nets

Consider the minimum hitting set problem for disks:

Let  $P$  be a set of  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\mathcal{R}$  a collection of  $m$  subsets of  $P$  induced by disks in the plane. Then the minimum hitting set problem asks for a hitting set  $Q \subseteq P$  for  $\mathcal{R}$  of minimum cardinality.

This can be written as an integer program with  $n$  variables, say  $x_p \in \{0, 1\}$  for each  $p \in P$ , specifying whether  $p$  belongs to an optimal solution. Then the size of the optimal solution is simply

$$OPT = \sum_p x_p.$$

Relaxing this integer program gives a linear program where  $x_p \in [0, 1]$ , and the goal is to minimize the sum of the  $x_p$ 's. See the LP on the right.

Let

$$W^* = \sum_{p \in P} x_p$$

denote the value of the linear program. Then the LP constraint implies that the sum of the variables in each set  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  is least 1. In other words, each set contains at least  $\frac{1}{W^*}$ -th of the total weight.

So the initial problem of finding a hitting set for  $\mathcal{R}$ —which could include sets of small cardinality—now reduces to the problem of finding a hitting set for all sets with weight at least  $\frac{1}{W^*}$ -th of the total weight. In particular, the LP will assign the elements in a small-sized set of  $\mathcal{R}$  relatively large weights, and this guides us in the choice of a near-optimal hitting set.

If we could find a hitting set  $Q \subseteq P$  of size at most  $C \cdot W^*$  for this problem, for some

$$\text{Minimize } \sum_{p \in P} x_p$$

subject to:

$$\sum_{p \in R} x_p \geq 1 \quad \forall R \in \mathcal{R}$$

$$0 \leq x_p \leq 1 \quad \forall p \in P.$$

constant  $C$ , then we will have

$$|Q| \leq C \cdot W^* \leq C \cdot OPT,$$

and so  $Q$  is a  $C$ -approximation to the optimal hitting set.

This task—called *rounding* in optimisation—is precisely the  $\epsilon$ -net problem we will study.

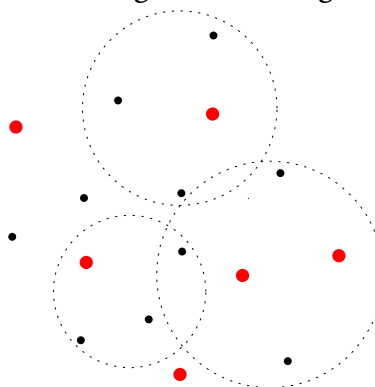
## 1.1 Deterministic

An  $\epsilon$ -net is a hitting set for those sets of  $\mathcal{R}$  that contain at least an  $\epsilon$ -th fraction of the elements of  $X$ .

**Definition 1.1.** Given a set system  $(X, \mathcal{R})$  and a parameter  $\epsilon > 0$ , a set  $N \subseteq X$  is an  $\epsilon$ -net for  $(X, \mathcal{R})$  if for each  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  with  $|R| \geq \epsilon \cdot |X|$ , we have  $N \cap R \neq \emptyset$ .

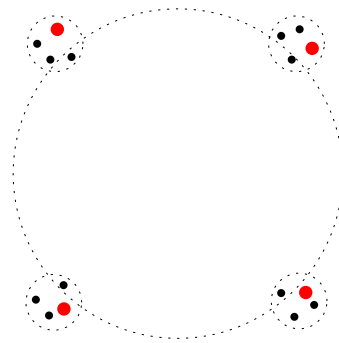
Our goal is to show the existence of an  $\epsilon$ -net of small size.

We will be interested in the case where  $\mathcal{R}$  is derived from configurations of geometric objects. For example, consider the case where the base elements are a set  $P$  of  $n$  points in the plane, and the set system  $\mathcal{R}$  is the primal set system induced on  $P$  by disks. See the figure for an example with  $n = 16$  and a  $\frac{1}{4}$ -net consisting of 6 points. In this case, any disk containing at least  $\frac{1}{4} \cdot 16 = 4$  points must contain one of the six points of the  $\frac{1}{4}$ -net.



Note that there exist point sets where every  $\epsilon$ -net must have size  $\Omega(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$ . For example, arrange  $n$  points into groups of size  $\epsilon n$ , and place the points in each group within a small circle, and place these circles disjoint from each other. Clearly,  $N$  must contain at least one point from each circle, and there are  $\lfloor \frac{1}{\epsilon} \rfloor$  disjoint circles.

On the other hand, constructing  $N$  by simply arbitrarily picking one point from each circle is not sufficient, as there could exist a disk containing  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$ , but not completely containing any one circle, and so possibly not containing any point of  $N$ . See the figure.



Surprisingly, as we will see later, this lower-bound is asymptotically the right one!

For this section, we show  $O(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$ -sized  $\epsilon$ -nets for an easier set system.

**Theorem 1.1.** *Given a set  $P$  of  $n$  points in the plane, and a parameter  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $\epsilon$ -net of size  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$  for the primal set system induced by halfplanes in the plane.*

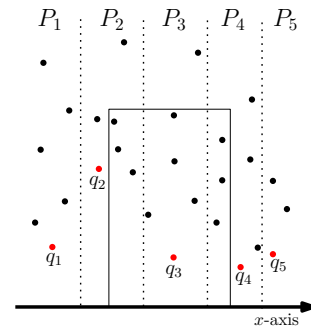
\* \* \*

Before considering this case, we examine some simpler set systems.

**Intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$ .** Given a set  $P$  of  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}$ , our goal is to pick an  $N \subseteq P$  such that any interval that contains at least  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$  contains some point of  $N$ . This is easy: sort the points of  $P$  by their coordinates and simply pick every  $\epsilon n$ -th point in this order. As each interval must contain a contiguous subset with respect to this ordering, it will be hit by  $N$ . The size of  $N$  is exactly  $\lfloor \frac{n}{\epsilon n} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{1}{\epsilon} \rfloor$ .

**Anchored rectangles in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .** Let  $P$  be a set of  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , each with a positive  $y$ -coordinate. We seek an  $\epsilon$ -net  $N$  for  $P$  with respect to rectangles anchored at the  $x$ -axis—in other words, any rectangle intersecting the  $x$ -axis and containing at least  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$  should be hit by  $N$ .

To construct  $N$ , assume the points of  $P = \{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$  are sorted by increasing  $x$ -coordinates. Partition  $P$  into  $t = \lceil \frac{3}{\epsilon} \rceil$  sets  $P_1, \dots, P_t$  of contiguous points, with each  $P_i$  containing  $\frac{\epsilon n}{3}$  points, except possibly the last set  $P_t$ . For each  $i$ , add the point with the lowest  $y$ -coordinate in  $P_i$ , say the point  $q_i \in P_i$ , to  $N$ . This is our  $\epsilon$ -net, of size at most  $\frac{3}{\epsilon}$ .



To see why  $N$  is an  $\epsilon$ -net, consider any anchored rectangle  $R$  containing at least  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$ . Then  $R$  must contain points from at least 3 sets in our partition, say the sets  $P_i, P_j$  and  $P_k$ , where  $i < j < k$ . And so  $R$  must contain the point  $q_j$  with the lowest  $y$ -coordinate in  $P_j$ .

**Half-spaces in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .** We prove the following theorem.

**Theorem 1.1.** *Given a set  $P$  of  $n$  points in the plane, and a parameter  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $\epsilon$ -net of size  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$  for the primal set system induced by halfplanes in the plane.*

*Proof.* First consider the easier case where  $P$  is in convex position. Then note that any half-space must contain a contiguous subset of  $P$  with respect to the order in which the points

appear on the convex-hull. As before, picking every  $\epsilon n$ -th point along the convex-hull gives an  $\epsilon$ -net of size  $\lfloor \frac{1}{\epsilon} \rfloor$ .

Otherwise, if  $P$  is not in convex position, then we'll first map the points in  $P$  to a set  $P'$  which is in convex position, construct an  $\epsilon$ -net  $N'$  for  $P'$  as before, and from  $N'$  reconstruct an  $\epsilon$ -net  $N$  for  $P$ .

Pick any point lying in the convex-hull,  $\text{conv}(P)$ , of  $P$ . Say we pick  $o \in P$ . For each  $p_i \in P$ , trace a ray from  $o$  through  $p_i$  till this ray intersects the boundary of  $\text{conv}(P)$  in some point, say the point  $p'_i$ . Map  $p_i$  to  $p'_i$ ; if  $p_i$  was on  $\text{conv}(P)$ , then  $p'_i = p_i$ .

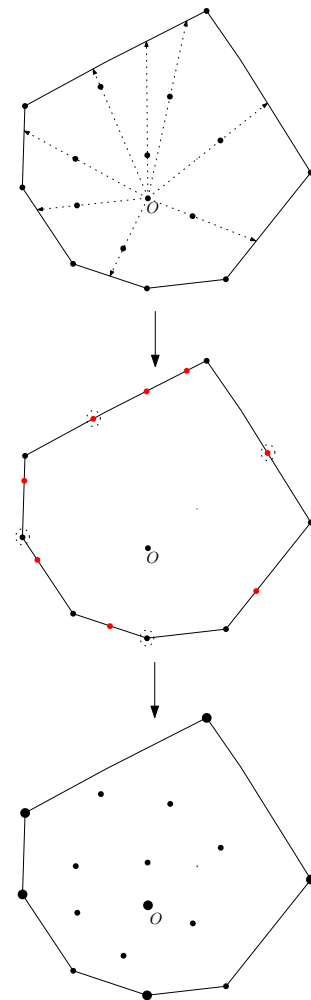
Let  $P'$  be the resulting set of  $n - 1$  points, now in convex position. Pick an  $\epsilon$ -net  $N'$  for  $P'$ , of size  $\frac{1}{\epsilon}$ .

Now we show how to construct an  $\epsilon$ -net  $N$  from  $N'$ . Take a point  $p'_i \in N'$ . If  $p'_i = p_i$ , i.e.,  $p_i$  was already on  $\text{conv}(P)$ , then add  $p_i$  to  $N$ . Otherwise,  $p'_i$  lies on some edge of  $\text{conv}(P)$  that is spanned by some two points of  $P^\dagger$ . Add both these points to  $N$ . Finally, add the point  $o$  to  $N$ .

Clearly

$$|N| \leq 1 + 2 \cdot |N'| = 1 + 2 \left\lfloor \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right\rfloor.$$

We claim that  $N$  is an  $\epsilon$ -net. Consider any half-space  $H$  containing at least  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$ . If it contains  $o$ , we're done as  $o \in N$ . Otherwise, by construction, we have the property that if  $p_i \in H$ , then the corresponding point  $p'_i$  also lies in  $H$ . So  $H$  contains at least  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P'$ . Therefore  $H$  contains a point  $p'_i \in N'$ , and so it must contain at least one of the two points of the edge of  $\text{conv}(P)$  on which  $p'_i$  lies.  $\square$



<sup>†</sup>Or  $p'_i$  lies on a point of  $P$  forming a vertex of  $\text{conv}(P)$ , in which case we replace  $p'_i$  with this point instead.

**Bibliography and discussion.** The proof for halfplanes in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  was invented here for didactic purposes; the different original proof is in [1].

- [1] J. Komlós, J. Pach, and G. J. Woeginger. Almost tight bounds for epsilon-nets. *Discrete & Computational Geometry*, 7:163–173, 1992.

## 1.2 Probabilistic

Given a set system  $(X, \mathcal{R})$ , first observe that, regardless of the structure of  $\mathcal{R}$ , one can always get the following bound.

**Theorem 1.2.** *Let  $(X, \mathcal{R})$  be a set system with  $|X| = n$  and  $|\mathcal{R}| = m$ . Then given a parameter  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $\epsilon$ -net  $N$  for  $\mathcal{R}$  of size  $O\left(\frac{\ln m}{\epsilon}\right)$ .*

There are several (essentially equivalent) ways of viewing its proof. Note that for our purposes, assume that each set in  $\mathcal{R}$  has size at least  $\epsilon n$ . Let  $\mathcal{R} = \{R_1, \dots, R_m\}$  be the  $m$  sets of  $\mathcal{R}$ .

**Iterative view.** Set  $\mathcal{R}_1 = \mathcal{R}$ . Pick an element of  $X$  that hits the maximum number of sets of  $\mathcal{R}_1$ , say  $p_1 \in X$ . Add  $p_1$  to  $N$ , remove the sets hit by  $p_1$  from  $\mathcal{R}_1$  to get  $\mathcal{R}_2$ . Now re-iterate this procedure on  $\mathcal{R}_2$ .

Let  $\mathcal{R}_i$  be the unhit sets after  $i - 1$  iterations, and let  $p_i \in X$  be the point added to  $N$  in the  $i$ -th iteration.

At the  $i$ -th iteration, by the pigeonhole principle, there exists an element hitting at least

$$\frac{\sum_{R \in \mathcal{R}_i} |R|}{n} \geq \frac{\sum_{R \in \mathcal{R}_i} \epsilon n}{n} = \epsilon \cdot |\mathcal{R}_i|$$

sets of  $\mathcal{R}_i$ . Remove any  $\epsilon |\mathcal{R}_i|$  such sets from  $\mathcal{R}_i$  to get  $\mathcal{R}_{i+1}$ . Thus for any  $i \geq 1$ , we have

$$|\mathcal{R}_{i+1}| = (1 - \epsilon) |\mathcal{R}_i| = (1 - \epsilon)^2 |\mathcal{R}_{i-1}| = \dots = (1 - \epsilon)^i \cdot |\mathcal{R}_1|.$$

At the  $i$ -th iteration, we have added  $i$  elements to  $N$ , and there are

$$m(1 - \epsilon)^i \leq m e^{-\epsilon i}$$

unhit sets remaining. For  $i = \Theta\left(\frac{\ln m}{\epsilon}\right)$ , this becomes some constant, after which one can just add one element from each remaining unhit set to  $N$ . Therefore, we can hit all sets with  $O\left(\frac{\ln m}{\epsilon}\right)$  elements.

**Combinatorial view.** Note that the pigeonholing in the proof above is essentially stating that, on average, each element of  $X$  hits  $\epsilon m$  sets of  $\mathcal{R}$ . Of course, this average goes down with the number of iterations, which is what results in the extra logarithmic factor. This can also be viewed succinctly combinatorially, for an integer  $t$  we will fix later:

count the number of subsets of  $X$  of size  $t$  that do not hit all sets of  $\mathcal{R}$ .

For each set  $R \in \mathcal{R}$ , there are at most  $\binom{n-\epsilon n}{t}$  subsets of size  $t$  that do not hit  $R$ , and so there are at most

$$\sum_{R \in \mathcal{R}} (\# \text{ of } t\text{-sized subsets } Q \text{ with } Q \cap R = \emptyset) \leq m \cdot \binom{n-\epsilon n}{t}$$

subsets of  $X$  that do not hit at least one set of  $\mathcal{R}$ . If this is less than the total number of subsets of size  $t$ , then clearly there exists a set of size  $t$  that hits all sets of  $\mathcal{R}$ . A simple calculation shows this for  $t = \frac{\ln(m+1)}{\epsilon}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{m \cdot \binom{n-\epsilon n}{t}}{\binom{n}{t}} &= m \cdot \frac{(n-t)!}{(n-\epsilon n-t)!} \cdot \frac{(n-\epsilon n)!}{n!} = m \cdot \frac{(n-t)(n-t-1) \cdots (n-\epsilon n+1-t)}{n(n-1) \cdots (n-\epsilon n+1)} \\ &= m \cdot \frac{(n-t)}{n} \cdots \frac{(n-\epsilon n+1-t)}{(n-\epsilon n+1)} = m \cdot \left(1 - \frac{t}{n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{t}{n-1}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{t}{n-\epsilon n+1}\right) \\ &\leq m \cdot \left(1 - \frac{t}{n}\right)^{\epsilon n} \leq m \cdot e^{-\frac{t\epsilon n}{n}} = m \cdot e^{-\ln(m+1)} < 1. \end{aligned}$$

**Probabilistic view.** Perhaps the simplest view is the probabilistic one: consider picking a random sample

$S$ : uniform random sample of  $X$  of size  $t$ .

Then

$$\Pr[\text{a fixed set } R \in \mathcal{R} \text{ is not hit by } S] = \left(1 - \frac{|R|}{n}\right)^t \leq (1 - \epsilon)^t \leq e^{-t\epsilon}.$$

So the probability that at least one of the sets of  $\mathcal{R}$  is not hit by  $S$  is at most  $me^{-\epsilon t}$ . For  $t = \frac{\ln(m+1)}{\epsilon}$ , this is less than 1. In particular there is a non-zero probability that  $S$  will hit all sets. Therefore, there has to exist at least one such set—in fact, many of them.

If the  $m$  sets can be arbitrary, then it is easy to see that asymptotically one cannot do much better than the above bound. For example, take  $\mathcal{R}$  to be the power set of  $X$ , i.e.,  $m = 2^n$ . Then, for  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}$ , any  $\epsilon$ -net must have size at least  $\frac{n}{2}$ , while the above bound gives a  $O(n)$ -sized net. Obviously, set systems derived from geometry have considerable restrictions. We now show that, by a simple observation, one can actually get smaller  $\epsilon$ -nets for a wide class of geometric set systems.

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## AXIS-PARALLEL RECTANGLES IN THE PLANE

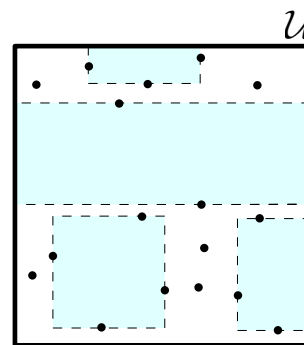
Let  $P$  be a set of  $n$  points in the plane, and  $\mathcal{R} = \{P_1, \dots, P_m\}$  the set system defined by containment by axis-parallel rectangles. In other words,  $P_i \in \mathcal{R}$  if and only if there exists an axis-parallel rectangle  $R$  such that  $P_i = R \cap P$ . We now prove the existence of an  $\epsilon$ -net for  $(P, \mathcal{R})$  of size  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ .

For technical reasons, let  $\mathcal{U}$  be a large-enough axis-parallel rectangle containing all points in  $P$ .

The key notion is that of a *canonical rectangle* spanned by a set of points.

A canonical rectangle spanned by  $Q \subset \mathcal{U}$  is a rectangle whose each bounding edge either passes through some point of  $Q$  or lies on  $\partial\mathcal{U}$ .

We remark that there are four types of canonical rectangles, namely those ‘fixed’ by 4, 3, 2 or 1 points. See the figure. For the rest of the proof, we only consider canonical rectangles fixed by 4 points; the other cases are similar.



There are  $O(n^4)$  canonical rectangles spanned by any set of  $n$  points in the plane. This implies that  $|\mathcal{R}| = O(n^4)$ , as an arbitrary rectangle can always be ‘shrunk’ to get a canonical rectangle, containing precisely the points of the original rectangle.

As before, choose a random sample  $S$  by picking each point independently with probability  $p$ . The earlier analysis considered the probability that a set  $P_i \in \mathcal{R}$  is not hit by  $S$ , and then we used the union over *all* sets of  $\mathcal{R}$  to upper-bound the probability that there exists some set in  $\mathcal{R}$  that is not hit by  $S$ . This gave the bound  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log |\mathcal{R}|\right)$ .

The trick here is to consider the *empty canonical rectangles* spanned by the points of  $S$ . Namely those canonical rectangles such that the point on each of its edges belongs to  $S$ , and that contain no point of  $S$  in their interior. Here is the new observation, using packing properties of Euclidean space.

**Claim 1.3.** If each empty canonical rectangle spanned by  $S$  has less than  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$ , then  $S$  is an  $\epsilon$ -net.

*Proof.* For contradiction, assume that there exists a rectangle  $R$  containing greater than  $\epsilon n$  points that is not hit by  $S$ . Then expand  $R$  by moving its left, right, top and bottom edges to transform it to an empty canonical rectangle  $R'$  spanned by  $S$ . But we assumed  $R'$  contained less than  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$ , a contradiction.  $\square$

Let’s do a rough calculation similar to the probabilistic proof of the general case. Say we add each point of  $P$ , independently with probability  $p$ , to  $S$ . Then we have  $E[|S|] = np$ , and so there are an expected  $O(|S|^4) = O((np)^4)$  canonical rectangles spanned by the



points of  $S$ . For a fixed such rectangle  $R$ , if it contains at least  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$ , then the probability that it does not contain any point of  $S$  is  $(1-p)^{|R|} \leq (1-p)^{\epsilon n}$ . By the union bound, the probability that there exists some canonical rectangle spanned by  $S$  that does not contain any point of  $S$  is at most

$$|S|^4 (1-p)^{\epsilon n} \leq (np)^4 e^{-p\epsilon n}.$$

To make it less than 1, we set  $p = \frac{5}{\epsilon n} \ln \frac{1}{\epsilon}$  and so

$$= n^4 \left( \frac{5 \ln \frac{1}{\epsilon}}{\epsilon n} \right)^4 e^{-5 \ln \frac{1}{\epsilon}} = \frac{1}{\epsilon^4} \left( 5 \ln \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right)^4 \epsilon^5 \ll 1.$$

Thus, there exists a set  $S$ , of expected size  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ , such that all canonical rectangles spanned by  $S$  either contain less than  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$  or are hit by  $S$ . This implies that each *empty* canonical rectangle spanned by  $S$  contains less than  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$ . We are done by Claim 1.3:  $S$  is an  $\epsilon$ -net, of expected size  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ .

Of course, the above proof is technically incorrect for the following reason: we are calculating the probability that a canonical rectangle spanned by the points of  $S$  is empty of points of  $S$ ! Instead, the correct way is to argue that, with non-zero probability, *no* canonical rectangle

- (i) spanned by the points of  $P$ , and
- (ii) containing at least  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$

ends up as an empty canonical rectangle spanned by the points of  $S$ .

Fix a canonical rectangle  $R$  spanned by four points of  $P$ . It ends up as an empty canonical rectangle in  $S$  if and only if

- (i) the four points defining  $R$  are picked into  $S$ , and
- (ii) none of the points contained in  $R$  are picked into  $S$ .

Let  $\mathcal{E}_R$  be the event that  $R$  ends up as an empty canonical rectangle spanned by  $S$ . As each point of  $P$  was picked independently into  $S$ , we have

$$\Pr[\mathcal{E}_R] = p^4 \cdot (1-p)^{|R \cap P| - 4}.$$

Using the union bound over all possible  $O(n^4)$  canonical rectangles spanned by points of  $P$ , the probability that at least one such rectangle containing greater than  $\epsilon n$  points ends up as an empty canonical rectangle in  $S$  is

$$\Pr\left[\bigcup_R \mathcal{E}_R\right] \leq \sum_R \Pr[\mathcal{E}_R] = \sum_R p^4 \cdot (1-p)^{|R \cap P| - 4} \leq n^4 \cdot p^4 \cdot (1-p)^{\epsilon n - 4} \leq \frac{1}{6},$$

for  $p = \frac{12}{\epsilon n} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ .

Similarly, one can show that the probability that there exists an empty canonical rectangle defined by 3 points is less than  $\frac{1}{6}$ , and identically for the canonical rectangles defined by 2 points. Therefore, with probability at least  $\frac{1}{2}$ , each empty canonical rectangle spanned by  $S$  has less than  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$ .

By Claim 1.3,  $S$  is an  $\epsilon$ -net, of expected size

$$\mathbb{E}[|S|] = np = \frac{12}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}.$$

By Chernoff bounds, the size of  $S$  is very sharply concentrated around its expectation. So the probability that  $|S| \geq 2 \mathbb{E}[|S|]$  is less than  $\frac{1}{2}^\dagger$ . Then with non-zero probability,  $S$  is an  $\epsilon$ -net of size  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ .

\* \* \*

The reader will notice that the only property of axis-aligned rectangles that is used in the proof is the concept of canonical rectangles—that a canonical rectangle  $R$  is ‘fixed’ by 4 points of  $P$  (or 3, 2, 1 points), and that  $R$  is spanned by  $S$  if and only if these points are picked. This is a very general idea, and we next give another example of its use.

## DISKS IN THE PLANE

Let  $(P, \mathcal{R})$  be defined by disks in the plane, i.e.,  $P_i \in \mathcal{R}$  if and only if there exists a disk  $D$  in the plane such that  $P_i = P \cap D$ . We now show that a similar method of analysis also shows the existence of an  $\epsilon$ -net of size  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ .

We again have the notion of a canonical disk.

A canonical disk spanned by  $Q \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  is either a disk passing through three points of  $Q$ , or a halfplane whose bounding line passes through two points of  $Q$  (such a halfplane can be seen as disk of infinite radius).

Then observe the following.

**Claim 1.4.** Let  $Q \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  be a finite set of points, and  $D$  a disk not containing any point of  $Q$ . Then  $D$  lies in the union of at most *two* empty canonical disks spanned by  $Q$ .

*Proof.* Assume a disk  $D$  does not contain any point of  $Q$ , and has center  $c$ . Keeping the

<sup>†</sup>To avoid this very minor technical annoyance, often the sampling is done with a different distribution, by picking  $S$  uniformly from  $P$  over all subsets of size  $t = \Theta\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ . Then we avoid having to do this, though then the probability calculation for a set being hit by  $S$  is slightly different. We get the same result, though.

center fixed, increase the radius of  $D$  until it touches some point, say  $q_1$ , of  $Q$ . Then, move  $c$  in the direction  $\vec{q_1c}$ , away from  $q_1$ , while increasing the radius so that it still touches  $q_1$ . Eventually, the disk will touch another point, say  $q_2 \in Q$ .

Note that  $c$  now lies on the perpendicular bisector of the segment  $q_1q_2$ . Now by moving  $c$  along this bisector in both directions, one can get two canonical disks, say  $D_1$  and  $D_2$ , such that  $D \subset D_1 \cup D_2$ .  $\square$

Pick a random sample by adding each point of  $P$ , independently with probability  $p$ , to  $S$ . The above claim implies that a sample  $S$  would be an  $\epsilon$ -net if one can ensure that each empty canonical disk spanned by  $S$  contains less than  $\frac{\epsilon n}{2}$  points of  $P$ .

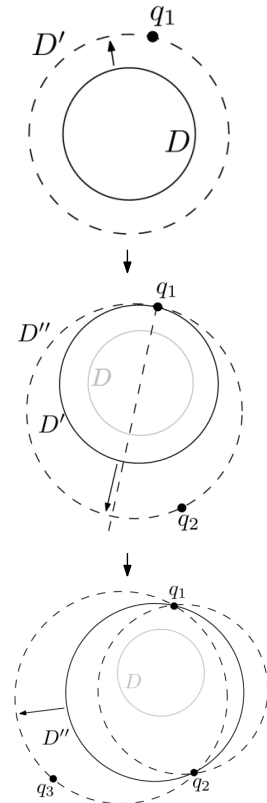
A disk  $D$  spanned by three points of  $P$  is an empty canonical disk spanned by  $S$  if and only if the three points are present in  $S$ , and no point of  $S$  lies inside  $D$ . The probability of this is

$$p^3 (1 - p)^{|D \cap P| - 3}.$$

There are  $O(n^3)$  canonical disks spanned by  $P$ . Thus by the union bound, the probability that a canonical disk containing greater than  $\frac{\epsilon n}{2}$  points of  $P$  ends up as an empty canonical disk spanned by  $S$  is at most

$$n^3 \cdot p^3 (1 - p)^{\frac{\epsilon n}{2} - 3}.$$

Setting  $p = \frac{12}{\epsilon n} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ , the above probability becomes less than  $\frac{1}{2}$ . As before, this implies the existence of an  $\epsilon$ -net of size  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ .



**Bibliography and discussion.** The idea of analyzing random samples using canonical structures is taken from the seminal paper of Clarkson [1].

[1] K. L. Clarkson. New applications of random sampling in computational geometry. *Discrete & Computational Geometry*, 2:195–222, 1987.

## 2.1 Linear-sized nets for Disks in $\mathbb{R}^2$

We now show that the bound of  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$  can be further improved in several cases by a fairly general idea. Specifically, for the previously considered range spaces obtained by disks and rectangles in the plane, one can get  $o\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$  bounds.

The main theorem of this chapter is the following.

**Theorem 2.1.** *Let  $P$  be a set of  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Then there exists an  $\epsilon$ -net  $N$ , of size  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ , for the set system induced on  $P$  by disks in the plane.*

**Intuitive idea.** Recall the probabilistic argument for the existence of an  $\epsilon$ -net of size  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$  for disks. We took a uniform random sample  $S \subseteq P$  by choosing each point of  $P$  independently with probability  $p = \Theta\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon n} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ . We used this geometric property:

if every empty canonical disk spanned by  $S$  has less than  $\frac{\epsilon n}{2}$  points of  $P$ , then  $S$  is an  $\epsilon$ -net for disks for  $P$ .

Since the total possible number of disks that could end up as empty canonical disks spanned by  $S$  is, naively counting, at most  $O(n^3)$ , and the probability of each such disk  $D$  ending up as an empty canonical disk induced by  $S$  is at most  $p^3 \cdot (1-p)^{\frac{\epsilon n}{2}}$ , the expected number of empty canonical disks in the random sample  $S$  can be upper-bounded by

$$O(n^3) \cdot p^3 \cdot (1-p)^{\frac{\epsilon n}{2}}.$$

To make this less than one, we set  $p = \frac{10}{\epsilon n} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}[|S|] = np = \Theta\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$  and we're done.

The first new idea is to observe that the above analysis is imprecise: the probability of a canonical disk  $D$  ending up as an empty canonical disk spanned by  $S$  is equal to  $p^3 (1-p)^{|D \cap P|}$ . Therefore, if  $|D \cap P|$  is much larger than  $\frac{\epsilon n}{2}$ , this probability becomes considerably smaller, in fact decreasing exponentially with  $|D \cap P|$ . Thus the 'hard case' is considering disks containing  $\Theta(\epsilon n)$  points.

Fortunately, the number of possible canonical disks containing  $\Theta(\epsilon n)$  points is considerably smaller than the naive bound of  $O(n^3)$ —more generally, the number of canonical disks containing at most  $k$  points of  $P$  is at most  $O(nk^2)$ .

As an example, we compute the expected number of disks, each containing  $c \cdot \epsilon n$  points for some fixed constant  $c > 1$ , that end up as empty canonical disks spanned by a random sample  $S$  constructed by picking each point of  $P$  independently with probability  $\frac{1}{\epsilon n}$ .

There are  $O(n(c\epsilon n)^2)$  such canonical disks, and each ends up in the sample with probability  $p^3 (1-p)^{c\epsilon n}$ . So the expected number of such disks that will end up as empty canonical

disks spanned by  $S$  is

$$\Theta \left( n (c\epsilon n)^2 \cdot p^3 (1-p)^{c\epsilon n} \right) = O \left( n (c^2 \epsilon^2 n^2) \cdot \frac{1}{\epsilon^3 n^3} \cdot e^{-c} \right) = O \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right).$$

This is bad news, since we had hoped to get no such disks. Now unfortunately,  $S$  need not be an  $\epsilon$ -net: an arbitrary disk  $D'$  containing at least  $\epsilon n$  points could contain  $\frac{\epsilon n}{2}$  points from one such canonical disk  $D$ , containing  $c\epsilon n$  points, that has ended up as an empty canonical disk spanned by  $S$ .

Here is the second new idea: take these  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$  expected number of disks, each containing roughly  $c\epsilon n$  points, that have ended up as empty canonical disks spanned by  $S$ . For each such disk  $D$ , construct a  $\left(\frac{1}{2c}\right)$ -net, say  $S_D$ , for the set  $D \cap P$ . If we use the sub-optimal  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$  bound from last lecture, we have

$$|S_D| = O(2c \log 2c).$$

Now any disk containing greater than  $\frac{1}{2c} \cdot c\epsilon n = \frac{\epsilon n}{2}$  points from  $D \cap P$  would be hit by  $S_D$ ! Therefore, the set  $S' = S \cup \bigcup_D S_D$  is an  $\epsilon$ -net, with expected size

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}[|S|] + \mathbb{E} \left[ \# \text{ of empty canonical disks } D, |D \cap P| \approx c\epsilon n, \text{ spanned by } S \right] \cdot O(2c \log 2c) \\ &= np + O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right) \cdot O(2c \log 2c) = O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right) + O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \cdot 2c \log 2c\right) = O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right). \end{aligned}$$

So while it is true that there could be  $\Theta\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$  empty canonical disks spanned by  $S$  containing  $c\epsilon n$  points of  $P$ , for each disk, we can add some  $O(1)$  additional points such that a disk containing  $\frac{\epsilon n}{2}$  points from any such disk would be hit by them.

It remains to take care of all canonical disks containing at least  $\epsilon n$  points. Note that while the number of disks containing at most  $k$  points increases polynomially with  $k$ —as  $O(nk^2)$ , the probability of each ending up as an empty canonical disk decreases exponentially with  $k$ , i.e., as  $p^3(1-p)^k$ . So essentially the worst case is the above one. We now do the above calculation for all  $k$ , and then sum up to get the size of the final  $\epsilon$ -net.

## PROOF OF THEOREM 2.1.

Set  $p = \frac{1}{\epsilon n}$ , and add each point of  $P$ , independently with probability  $p$ , to  $S$ . We now add additional points to  $S$  to get our final net  $N$ .

For each empty canonical disk  $D$  induced by  $S$ , do the following. Let  $i$  be the index such that

$$2^{i-1} \cdot \epsilon n < |D \cap P| \leq 2^i \cdot \epsilon n.$$

We will add to  $N$  an  $\epsilon_i$ -net  $S_D$  for the set system induced by disks on  $D \cap P$ , where we set  $\epsilon_i$  such that any disk containing at least  $\frac{\epsilon n}{2}$  points from  $D \cap P$  would be hit by  $S_D$ . In other words, we want

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\epsilon n}{2} &\geq \epsilon_i \cdot |D \cap P| \\ \implies \epsilon_i &\leq \frac{\epsilon n}{2|D \cap P|}, \end{aligned}$$

which is satisfied if we set  $\epsilon_i = \frac{1}{2^{i+1}}$ .<sup>†</sup>

**Claim 2.2.**

$$N = S \cup \bigcup_{\substack{D \text{ empty canonical} \\ \text{disk induced by } S}} S_D \quad \text{is an } \epsilon\text{-net for } (P, \mathcal{R}).$$

*Proof.* Let  $D'$  be any disk in the plane containing at least  $\epsilon n$  points of  $P$ . Then either it is hit by  $S$ , or it contains at least  $\frac{\epsilon n}{2}$  points from an empty canonical disk induced by  $S$ , say disk  $D$ . Then  $D'$  is hit by  $S_D$ .  $\square$

It simply remains to do the required calculations and sum up to bound the size of the final  $\epsilon$ -net  $N$ .

For a canonical disk  $D$  induced by  $P$ , let  $I_D$  be the indicator random variable which is 1 if  $D$  ends up as an empty canonical disk spanned by  $S$ , and 0 otherwise. Then, the expected number of additional points added are

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{\text{Disks } D} I_D \cdot |S_D| \right] &= \sum_D |S_D| \cdot \mathbb{E}[I_D] = \sum_D |S_D| \cdot \Pr[D \text{ is an empty canonical disk}] \\ &= \sum_D |S_D| \cdot p^3 (1-p)^{|D \cap P|} \\ &= \sum_i \sum_{2^i \epsilon n < |D \cap P| \leq 2^{i+1} \epsilon n} |S_D| \cdot p^3 (1-p)^{|D \cap P|} \\ &\leq \sum_i |\{D: 2^i \epsilon n < |D \cap P| \leq 2^{i+1} \epsilon n\}| \cdot (2^{i+1} \log 2^{i+1}) \cdot p^3 (1-p)^{2^i \epsilon n} \\ &\leq \sum_i n (2^{i+1} \epsilon n)^2 \cdot (2^{i+1} \log 2^{i+1}) \cdot p^3 e^{-p 2^i \epsilon n} \\ &= \sum_i n (2^{2i+2} \epsilon^2 n^2) \cdot (2^{i+1} (i+1)) \cdot \frac{1}{\epsilon^3 n^3} e^{-2^i} \\ &= \frac{1}{\epsilon} \sum_i \frac{2^{3i+3} (i+1)}{e^{2^i}} \end{aligned}$$

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<sup>†</sup>As  $\frac{1}{2^{i+1}} \leq \frac{\epsilon n}{2(2^i \epsilon n)}$ .

$$= O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right), \text{ since the summation is a decreasing geometric series.}$$

The expected size of  $S$  is  $np = \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ , and so  $S$  together with  $\bigcup_D S_D$  forms an  $\epsilon$ -net of expected size  $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ .

**Bibliography and discussion.** The idea of sampling and refinement was first used to construct optimal-sized cuttings by Chazelle and Friedman [3]. The proof of optimal  $\epsilon$ -net for disks given above was constructed ex post facto for didactic purposes. A more precise construction and analysis giving  $\epsilon$ -nets of size at most  $\frac{13.4}{\epsilon}$  for the set system induced by disks in the plane was given in [2]. This sampling refinement idea can also be done for dual set systems, and was first done in [4], and improved in [1].

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