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▶ To cite this version:

Edouard Bonnet, Panos Giannopoulos, Eun Jung Kim, Pawel Rzążewski, Florian Sikora. QPTAS and Subexponential Algorithm for Maximum Clique on Disk Graphs. SoCG 2018, Jun 2018, Budapest, Hungary. 10.4230/LIPIcs. hal-01991635

HAL Id: hal-01991635

https://hal.science/hal-01991635

Submitted on 23 Jan 2019

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QPTAS and Subexponential Algorithm for Maximum Clique on Disk Graphs

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- Abstract -

A (unit) disk graph is the intersection graph of closed (unit) disks in the plane. Almost three decades ago, an elegant polynomial-time algorithm was found for MAXIMUM CLIQUE on unit disk graphs [Clark, Colbourn, Johnson; Discrete Mathematics '90]. Since then, it has been an intriguing open question whether or not tractability can be extended to general disk graphs. We show the rather surprising structural result that a disjoint union of cycles is the complement of a disk graph if and only if at most one of those cycles is of odd length. From that, we derive the first QPTAS and subexponential algorithm running in time $2^{\tilde{O}(n^{2/3})}$ for MAXIMUM CLIQUE on disk graphs. In stark contrast, MAXIMUM CLIQUE on intersection graph of filled ellipses or filled triangles is unlikely to have such algorithms, even when the ellipses are close to unit disks. Indeed, we show that there is a constant ratio of approximation which cannot be attained even in time $2^{n^{1-\varepsilon}}$, unless the Exponential Time Hypothesis fails.

1998 ACM Subject Classification G.2.2 Graph Theory, F.2.2 Nonnumerical Algorithms and Problems

Keywords and phrases disk graph, maximum clique, computational complexity

Digital Object Identifier 10.4230/LIPIcs...

1 Introduction

An intersection graph of geometric objects has one vertex per object and an edge between every pair of vertices corresponding to intersecting objects. Intersection graphs for many different families of geometric objects have been studied due to their practical applications and their rich structural properties [9, 31]. Among the most studied ones are disk graphs, which are intersection graphs of closed disks in the plane, and their special case, unit disk graphs, where all the radii are the same. Their applications range from sensor networks to map labeling [20], and many standard optimization problems have been studied on disk graphs, see for example [36] and references therein. In this paper, we study MAXIMUM CLIQUE on general disk graphs.

Known results.

Recognizing unit disk graphs is NP-hard [10], and even ∃ℝ-complete [24]. Clark et al. [18] gave a polynomial-time algorithm for MAXIMUM CLIQUE on unit disk graphs with a geo-

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metric representation. The core idea of their algorithm can actually be adapted so that the geometric representation is no longer needed [34]. The complexity of the problem on general disk graphs is unfortunately still unknown. Using the fact that the transversal number for disks is 4, Ambühl and Wagner [4] gave a simple 2-approximation algorithm for MAXIMUM CLIQUE on general disk graphs. They also showed the problem to be APX-hard on intersection graphs of ellipses and gave a $9\rho^2$ -approximation algorithm for filled ellipses of aspect ratio at most ρ . Since then, the problem has proved to be elusive with no new positive or negative results. The question on the complexity and further approximability of MAXIMUM CLIQUE on general disk graphs is considered as folklore [6], but was also explicitly mentioned as an open problem by Fishkin [20], Ambühl and Wagner [4] and Cabello [12, 13].

A closely related problem is MAXIMUM INDEPENDENT SET, which is known to be W[1]-hard (even on unit disk graphs [30]) and to admit a subexponential exact algorithm [2] and PTAS [16, 19] on disk graphs.

Results and organization.

In Section 2, we mainly prove that the disjoint union of two odd cycles is not the complement of a disk graph. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first structural property that general disk graphs do not inherit from strings or from convex objects. We provide an infinite family of forbidden induced subgraphs, an analogue to the recent work of Atminas and Zamaraev on unit disk graphs [5]. In Section 3, we show how to use this structural result to approximate and solve Maximum Independent Set on complements of disk graphs, hence Maximum Clique on disk graphs. More precisely, we present the first quasi-polynomial-time approximation scheme (QPTAS) and subexponential-time algorithm for Maximum Clique in disk graphs, even without the geometric representation of the graph. In Section 4, we highlight how those algorithms contrast with the situation for ellipses or triangles, where there is a constant $\alpha > 1$ for which an α -approximation running in subexponential time is highly unlikely (in particular, ruling out at once QPTAS and subexponential-time algorithm). We conclude in Section 5 with a few open questions.

Definitions and notations.

For two integers $i \leq j$, we denote by [i,j] the set of integers $\{i,i+1,\ldots,j-1,j\}$. For a positive integer i, we denote by [i] the set of integers [1,i]. If S is a subset of vertices of a graph, we denote by N(S) the set of neighbors of S deprived of S, and we denote by N[S] the set $N(S) \cup S$. The 2-subdivision of a graph G is the graph G beta by subdividing each edge of G exactly twice. If G has G vertices and G edges, then G has G vertices and G edges. The co-2-subdivision of G is the complement of G. Hence it has G vertices and G edges. The co-degree of a graph is the maximum degree of its complement. We sometimes call co-disk a graph which is the complement of a disk graph.

For two distinct points x and y of the plane, we denote by $\ell(x,y)$ the unique line going through x and y, and by seg(x,y) the closed straight-line segment whose endpoints are x and y. If s is a segment with positive length, then we denote by $\ell(s)$ the unique line containing s. We denote by d(x,y) the euclidean distance between points x and y. We will often define disks and elliptical disks by their boundary (circles and ellipses). Mainly, we will use the following basic facts about circles and ellipses. There are two circles which cross a given point with a given tangent at this point, and a given radius; one if we further specify on which side of the tangent the circle is. There is one circle which crosses two points with a given tangent at one of the two points, provided the other point is not on this tangent.

There is one (not necessarily unique) ellipse which passes through two given points with two given tangents at those points.

The Exponential Time Hypothesis (ETH) is a conjecture by Impagliazzo et al. asserting that there is no $2^{o(n)}$ -time algorithm for 3-SAT on instances with n variables [23]. The ETH, together with the sparsification lemma [23], even implies that there is no $2^{o(n+m)}$ -time algorithm solving 3-SAT.

2 Disk graphs with co-degree 2

In this section, we fully characterize the degree-2 complements of disk graphs. We show the following theorem:

▶ **Theorem 1.** A disjoint union of paths and cycles is the complement of a disk graph if and only if the number of odd cycles is at most one.

We split the theorem into two. In a first subsection, we show that the union of two disjoint odd cycles is not the complement of a disk graph. This is the part of Theorem 1 which will be algorithmically useful. As disk graphs are closed by induced subgraphs, it implies that in the complement of a disk graph two vertex-disjoint odd cycles have to be linked by at least one edge. This will turn out useful when solving MAXIMUM INDEPENDENT SET in the complement of the graph (to solve MAXIMUM CLIQUE on the original graph). In a second subsection, we show how to represent the complement of the disjoint union of even cycles and exactly one odd cycle. Although this result is not needed for the forthcoming algorithmic section, it nicely highlights the singular role that parity plays, as well as it exposes the complete set of disk graphs of co-degree 2.

2.1 The disjoint union of two odd cycles is not co-disk

We call positive distance between two non-intersecting disks the minimum of d(x, y) where x is in one disk and y is in the other. If the disks are centered at c_1 and c_2 with radius r_1 and r_2 , respectively, then this value is $d(c_1, c_2) - r_1 - r_2$. We call negative distance between two intersecting disks the length of the straight-line segment defined as the intersection of three objects: the two disks and the line joining their center. This value is $r_1 + r_2 - d(c_1, c_2)$, which is positive.

We call *proper representation* a disk representation where every edge is witnessed by a proper intersection of the two corresponding disks; namely, the interior of the two disks intersects. It is easy to transform a disk representation into a proper representation (of the same graph).

▶ Lemma 2. If a graph has a disk representation, then it has a proper representation.

Proof. If two disks intersect non-properly, we increase the radius of one of them by $\varepsilon/2$ where ε is the smallest positive distance between two disks.

In order not to have to discuss about the corner case of three aligned centers in a disk representation, we show that such a configurations is never needed to represent a disk graph.

▶ Lemma 3. If a graph has a disk representation, it has a proper representation where no three centers are aligned.

Figure 1 Disk realization of a $K_{2,2}$. As the centers are positioned, it is impossible that the two non-edges are between the disks 2 and 3, and between the disks 1 and 4 (or between the disks 1 and 3, and between the disks 2 and 4).

Proof. By Lemma 2, we have or obtain a proper representation. Let ε be the minimum between the smallest positive distance and the smallest negative distance. As the representation is proper, $\varepsilon > 0$. If three centers are aligned, we move one of them to any point which is not lying in a line defined by two centers in a ball of radius $\varepsilon/2$ centered at it. This decreases by at least one the number of triple of aligned centers, and can be repeated until no three centers are aligned.

From now on, we assume that every disk representation is proper and without three aligned centers. We show the folklore result that in a representation of a $K_{2,2}$ which sets the four centers in convex position, both non-edges have to be diagonal.

▶ **Lemma 4.** In a disk representation of $K_{2,2}$ with the four centers in convex position, the non-edges are between vertices corresponding to opposite centers in the quadrangle.

Proof. Let c_1 and c_2 be the centers of one non-edge, and c_3 and c_4 the centers of the other non-edge. Let r_i be the radius associated to center c_i for $i \in [4]$. It should be that $d(c_1, c_2) > r_1 + r_2$ and $d(c_3, c_4) > r_3 + r_4$ (see Figure 1). Assume c_1 and c_2 are consecutive on the convex hull formed by $\{c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4\}$, and say, without loss of generality, that the order is c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4 . Let c be the intersection of $seg(c_1, c_3)$ and $seg(c_2, c_4)$. It holds that $d(c_1, c_3) + d(c_2, c_4) = d(c_1, c) + d(c, c_3) + d(c_2, c) + d(c, c_4) = (d(c_1, c) + d(c, c_2)) + (d(c_3, c) + d(c, c_4)) > d(c_1, c_2) + d(c_3, c_4) > r_1 + r_2 + r_3 + r_4 = (r_1 + r_3) + (r_2 + r_4)$. Which implies that $d(c_1, c_3) > r_1 + r_3$ or $d(c_2, c_4) > r_2 + r_4$; a contradiction.

We derive a useful consequence of the previous lemma, phrased in terms of intersections of lines and segments.

▶ Corollary 5. In any disk representation of $K_{2,2}$ with centers c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4 with the two non-edges between the vertices corresponding to c_1 and c_2 , and between c_3 and c_4 , it should be that $\ell(c_1, c_2)$ intersects $seg(c_3, c_4)$ or $\ell(c_3, c_4)$ intersects $seg(c_1, c_2)$.

Proof. Either the disk representation has the four centers in convex position. In that case, by Lemma 4, $seg(c_1, c_2)$ and $seg(c_3, c_4)$ are the diagonals of a convex quadrangle. Hence they intersect, and a fortiori, $\ell(c_1, c_2)$ intersects $seg(c_3, c_4)$ ($\ell(c_3, c_4)$ intersects $seg(c_1, c_2)$, too).

Or the disk representation has one center, say without loss of generality, c_1 , in the interior of the triangle formed by the other three centers. In that case, $\ell(c_1, c_2)$ intersects $seg(c_3, c_4)$. If instead a center in $\{c_3, c_4\}$ is in the interior of the triangle formed by the other centers, then $\ell(c_3, c_4)$ intersects $seg(c_1, c_2)$.

We can now prove the main result of this section thanks to the previous corollary, parity arguments, and *some elementary properties of closed plane curves*, namely Property I and Property III of the eponymous paper [35].

▶ **Theorem 6.** The complement of the disjoint union of two odd cycles is not a disk graph.

Proof. Let s and t be two positive integers and $G = \overline{C_{2s+1} + C_{2t+1}}$ the complement of the disjoint union of a cycle of length 2s+1 and a cycle of length 2t+1. Assume that G is a disk graph. Let C_1 (resp. C_2) be the cycle embedded in the plane formed by 2s+1 (resp. 2t+1) straight-line segments joining the consecutive centers of disks along the first (resp. second) cycle. Observe that the segments of those two cycles correspond to the non-edges of G. We number the segments of C_1 from C_1 from C_2 and the segments of C_2 , from C_2 from

For the *i*-th segment S_i of C_1 , let a_i be the number of segments of C_2 intersected by the line $\ell(S_i)$ prolonging S_i , let b_i be the number of segments S_j' of C_2 such that the prolonging line $\ell(S_j')$ intersects S_i , and let c_i be the number of segments of C_2 intersecting S_i . For the second cycle, we define similarly a_j' , b_j' , c_j' . The quantity $a_i + b_i - c_i$ counts the number of segments of C_2 which can possibly represent a $K_{2,2}$ with S_i according to Corollary 5. As we assumed that G is a disk graph, $a_i + b_i - c_i = 2t + 1$ for every $i \in [2s + 1]$. Otherwise there would be at least one segment S_j' of C_2 such that $\ell(S_i)$ does not intersect S_j' and $\ell(S_j')$ does not intersect S_i .

Observe that a_i is an even integer since C_2 is a closed curve. Also, $\Sigma_{i=1}^{2s+1}a_i+b_i-c_i=(2t+1)(2s+1)$ is an odd number, as the product of two odd numbers. This implies that $\Sigma_{i=1}^{2s+1}b_i-c_i$ shall be odd. $\Sigma_{i=1}^{2s+1}c_i$ counts the number of intersections of the two closed curves C_1 and C_2 , and is therefore even. Hence, $\Sigma_{i=1}^{2s+1}b_i$ shall be odd. Observe that $\Sigma_{i=1}^{2s+1}b_i=\Sigma_{j=1}^{2t+1}a_j'$ by reordering and reinterpreting the sum from the point of view of the segments of C_2 . Since the a_j' are all even, $\Sigma_{i=1}^{2s+1}b_i$ is also even; a contradiction.

2.2 The disjoint union of cycles with at most one odd is co-disk

We only show the following part of Theorem 1 to emphasize that, rather unexpectedly, parity plays a crucial role in disk graphs of co-degree 2. It is also amusing that the complement of any odd cycle is a *unit* disk graph while the complement of any even cycle of length at least 8 is not [5]. Here, the situation is somewhat reversed when complements of even cycles are *easier* to represent than complements of odd cycles. We defer the proof of the following theorem to the appendix.

▶ **Theorem 7.** The complement of the disjoint union of even cycles and one odd cycle is a disk graph.

Theorem 6 and Theorem 7, together with the fact that disk graphs are closed by taking induced subgraphs prove Theorem 1.

3 Algorithmic consequences

Now we show how to use the structural results from Section 2 to obtain algorithms for Maximum Clique in disk graphs. A clique in a graph G is an independent set in \overline{G} . So, leveraging the result from Theorem 1, we will focus on solving Maximum Independent Set in graphs without two vertex-disjoint odd cycles as an induced subgraph.

3.1 QPTAS

The odd cycle packing number ocp(H) of a graph H is the maximum number of vertex-disjoint odd cycles in H. Unfortunately, the condition that \overline{G} does not contain two vertex-disjoint odd cycles as an induced subgraph is not quite the same as saying that the odd cycle

packing number of \overline{G} is 1. Otherwise, we would immediately get a PTAS by the following result of Bock et al. [7].

▶ Theorem 8 (Bock et al. [7]). For every fixed $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a polynomial $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for MAXIMUM INDEPENDENT SET for graphs H with n vertices and $ocp(H) = o(n/\log n)$.

The algorithm by Bock et al. works in polynomial time if $ocp(H) = o(n/\log n)$, but it does not need the odd cycle packing explicitly given as an input. This is important, since finding a maximum odd cycle packing is NP-hard [25]. We start by proving a structural lemma, which spares us having to determine the odd cycle packing number.

▶ **Lemma 9.** Let H be a graph with n vertices, whose complement is a disk graph. If $ocp(H) > n/\log^2 n$, then H has a vertex of degree at least $n/\log^4 n$.

Proof. Consider a maximum odd cycle packing \mathcal{C} . By the assumption, \mathcal{C} contains more than $n/\log^2 n$ vertex-disjoint cycles. By the pigeonhole principle, there must be a cycle $C \in \mathcal{C}$ of size at most $\log^2 n$. Now, by Theorem 6, H has no two vertex-disjoint odd cycles with no edges between them. Therefore there must be an edge from C to every other cycle of \mathcal{C} , there are at least $n/\log^2 n$ such edges. Let v be a vertex of C with the maximum number of edges to other cycles in \mathcal{C} , by the pigeonhole principle its degree is at least $n/\log^4 n$.

Now we are ready to construct a QPTAS for MAXIMUM CLIQUE in disk graphs.

▶ Theorem 10. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, MAXIMUM CLIQUE can be $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximated in time $2^{O(\log^5 n)}$, when the input is a disk graph with n vertices.

Proof. Let G be the input disk graph and let \overline{G} be its complement, we want to find a $(1+\varepsilon)$ -approximation for MAXIMUM INDEPENDENT SET in \overline{G} . We consider two cases. If \overline{G} has no vertex of degree at least $n/\log^4 n$, then, by Lemma 9, we know that $\operatorname{ocp}(\overline{G}) \leq n/\log^2 n = o(n/\log n)$. In this case we run the PTAS of Bock et al. and we are done.

In the other case, \overline{G} has a vertex v of degree at least $n/\log^4 n$ (note that it may still be the case that $\operatorname{ocp}(\overline{G}) = o(n/\log n)$). We branch on v: either we include v in our solution and remove it and all its neighbors, or we discard v. The complexity of this step is described by the recursion $F(n) \leq F(n-1) + F(n-n/\log^4 n)$ and solving it gives us the desired running time. Note that this step is exact, i.e., we do not lose any solutions.

3.2 Subexponential algorithm

Now we will show how our structural result can be used to construct a subexponential algorithm for MAXIMUM CLIQUE in disk graphs. The *odd girth* of a graph is the size of a shortest odd cycle. An *odd cycle cover* is a subset of vertices whose deletion makes the graph bipartite. We will use a result by Györi et al. [22], which says that graphs with large odd girth have small odd cycle cover. In that sense, it can be seen as relativizing the fact that odd cycles do not have the Erdős-Pósa property. Bock et al. [7] turned the non-constructive proof into a polynomial-time algorithm.

▶ Theorem 11 (Györi et al. [22], Bock et al. [7]). Let H be a graph with n vertices and no odd cycle shorter than δn (δ may be a function of n). Then there is an odd cycle cover X of size at most $(48/\delta) \ln(5/\delta)$ Moreover, X can be found in polynomial time.

Let us start with showing three variants of an algorithm.

▶ Theorem 12. Let G be a disk graph with n vertices. Let Δ be the maximum degree of \overline{G} and c be the odd girth of \overline{G} (they may be functions of n). MAXIMUM CLIQUE has a branching or can be solved, up to a polynomial factor, in time:

(i) $2^{\overline{O}(n/\Delta)}$ (branching), (ii) $2^{\overline{O}(n/c)}$ (solved), (iii) $2^{O(c\Delta)}$ (solved).

Proof. Let G be the input disk graph and let \overline{G} be its complement, we look for a maximum independent set in \overline{G} .

To prove (i), consider a vertex v of degree Δ in \overline{G} . We branch on v: either we include v in our solution and remove N[v], or discard v. The complexity is described by the recursion $F(n) \leq F(n-1) + F(n-(\Delta+1))$ and solving it gives (i). Observe that this does not give an algorithm running in time $2^{\tilde{O}(n/\Delta)}$ since the maximum degree might drop. Therefore, we will do this branching as long as it is $good\ enough$ and then finish with the algorithms corresponding to (ii) and (iii).

For (ii) and (iii), let C be the cycle of length c, it clearly can be found in polynomial time. By application of Theorem 11 with $\delta = c/n$, we find an odd cycle cover X in \overline{G} of size $\tilde{O}(n/c)$ in polynomial time (see for instance [3]). Next we exhaustively guess in time $2^{\tilde{O}(n/c)}$ the intersection I of an optimum solution with X and finish by finding a maximum independent set in the bipartite graph $\overline{G} - (X \cup N(I))$, which can be done in polynomial time. The total complexity of this case is $2^{\tilde{O}(n/c)}$, which shows (ii).

Finally, observe that the graph $\overline{G} - N[C]$ is bipartite, since otherwise \overline{G} contains two vertex-disjoint odd cycles with no edges between them. Moreover, since every vertex in \overline{G} has degree at most Δ , it holds that $|N[C]| \leq c(\Delta - 1) \leq c\Delta$. Indeed, a vertex of C can only have $c(\Delta - 2)$ neighbors outside C. We can proceed as in the previous step: we exhaustively guess the intersection of the optimal solution with N[C] and finish by finding the maximum independent set in a bipartite graph (a subgraph of $\overline{G} - N[C]$), which can be done in total time $2^{O(c\Delta)}$, which shows (iii).

Now we show how the structure of G affect the bounds in Theorem 12.

- ▶ Corollary 13. Let G be a disk graph with n vertices. MAXIMUM CLIQUE can be solved in time:
- (a) $2^{\tilde{O}(n^{2/3})}$,
- (b) $2^{\tilde{O}(\sqrt{n})}$ if the maximum degree of \overline{G} is constant,
- (c) polynomial, if both the maximum degree and the odd girth of \overline{G} are constant.

Proof. Δ and c can be computed in polynomial time. Therefore, knowing what is faster among cases (i), (ii), and (iii) is tractable. For case (a), while there is a vertex of degree at least $n^{1/3}$, we branch on it. When this process stops, we do what is more advantageous between cases (ii) and (iii). Note that $\min(n/\Delta, n/c, c\Delta) \leq n^{2/3}$ (the equality is met for $\Delta = c = n^{1/3}$). For case (b), we do what is best between cases (ii) and (iii). Note that $\min(n/c, c) \leq \sqrt{n}$ (the equality is met for $c = \sqrt{n}$). Finally, case (c) follows directly from case (iii) in Theorem 12.

Observe that case (b) is typically the hardest one for Maximum Clique. Moreover, the winwin strategy of Corollary 13 can be directly applied to solve Maximum Weighted Clique, as finding a maximum weighted independent set in a bipartite graph is still polynomial-time solvable. On the other hand, this approach cannot be easily adapted to obtain a subexponential algorithm for Clique Partition (even Clique p-Partition with constant p), since List Coloring (even List 3-Coloring) has no subexponential algorithm for bipartite graphs, unless the ETH fails (see [27], the bound can be obtained if we start reduction from a sparse instance of 1-in-3-Sat instead of Planar 1-in-3-Sat).

4 Other intersection graphs and limits

In this section, we discuss the impossibility of generalizing our results to related classes of intersection graphs.

4.1 Filled ellipses and filled triangles

A natural generalization of a disk is an *elliptical disk*, also called *filled ellipse*, i.e., an ellipse plus its interior. The simplest convex set with non empty interior is a filled triangle (a triangle plus its interior). We show that our approach developed in the two previous sections, and actually every approach, is bound to fail for filled ellipses and filled triangles.

APX-hardness was shown for MAXIMUM CLIQUE in the intersection graphs of (non-filled) ellipses and triangles by Ambühl and Wagner [4]. Their reduction also implies that there is no subexponential algorithm for this problem, unless the ETH fails. Moreover, they claim that their hardness result extends to filled ellipses since "intersection graphs of ellipses without interior are also intersection graphs of filled ellipses". Unfortunately, this claim is incorrect. In the appendix, we show:

ightharpoonup Theorem 14. There is a graph G which has an intersection representation with ellipses without their interior, but has no intersection representation by convex sets.

This error and the confusion between filled ellipses and ellipses without their interior has propagated to other more recent papers [26]. Fortunately, we show that the hardness result does hold for filled ellipses (and filled triangles) with a different reduction. Our construction can be seen as streamlining the ideas of Ambühl and Wagner [4]. It is simpler and, in the case of (filled) ellipses, yields a somewhat stronger statement.

▶ Theorem 15. There is a constant $\alpha > 1$ such that for every $\varepsilon > 0$, MAXIMUM CLIQUE on the intersection graphs of filled ellipses has no α -approximation algorithm running in subexponential time $2^{n^{1-\varepsilon}}$, unless the ETH fails, even when the ellipses have arbitrarily small eccentricity and arbitrarily close value of major axis.

This is in sharp contrast with our subexponential algorithm and with our QPTAS when the eccentricity is 0 (case of disks). For any $\varepsilon > 0$, if the eccentricity is only allowed to be at most ε , a subexponential algorithm or a QPTAS are very unlikely. This result subsumes [15] (where NP-hardness is shown for connected shapes contained in a disk of radius 1 and containing a concentric disk of radius $1 - \varepsilon$ for arbitrarily small $\varepsilon > 0$) and corrects [4]. We show the same hardness for the intersection graphs of filled triangles.

▶ Theorem 16. There is a constant $\alpha > 1$ such that for every $\varepsilon > 0$, MAXIMUM CLIQUE on the intersection graphs of filled triangles has no α -approximation algorithm running in subexponential time $2^{n^{1-\varepsilon}}$, unless the ETH fails.

We first show this lower bound for Maximum Weighted Independent Set on the class of all the 2-subdivisions, hence the same hardness for Maximum Weighted Clique on all the co-2-subdivisions. It is folklore that from the PCP of Moshkovitz and Raz [33], which roughly implies that Max 3-SAT cannot be $7/8 + \varepsilon$ -approximated in subexponential time under the ETH, one can derive such inapproximability in subexponential time for many hard graph and hypergraph problems; see for instance [8].

The following inapproximability result for MAXIMUM INDEPENDENT SET on bounded-degree graphs was shown by Chlebík and Chlebíková [17]. As their reduction is almost linear, the PCP of Moshkovitz and Raz boosts this hardness result from ruling out polynomial-time up to ruling out subexponential time $2^{n^{1-\varepsilon}}$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$.

▶ Theorem 17 ([17, 33]). There is a constant $\beta > 0$ such that MAXIMUM INDEPENDENT SET on graphs with n vertices and maximum degree Δ cannot be $1 + \beta$ -approximated in time $2^{n^{1-\varepsilon}}$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$, unless the ETH fails.

We could actually state a slightly stronger statement for the running time but will settle for this for the sake of clarity. We are now equipped to show the following:

▶ Theorem 18. There is a constant $\alpha > 1$ such that for any $\varepsilon > 0$, MAXIMUM INDEPENDENT SET on the class of all the 2-subdivisions has no α -approximation algorithm running in subexponential time $2^{n^{1-\varepsilon}}$, unless the ETH fails.

Proof. Let G be a graph with maximum degree a constant Δ , with n vertices v_1, \ldots, v_n and m edges e_1, \ldots, e_m , and let H be its 2-subdivision. Recall that to form H, we subdivided every edge of G exactly twice. These 2m vertices in $V(H) \setminus V(G)$, representing edges, are called edge vertices and are denoted by $v^+(e_1), v^-(e_1), \ldots, v^+(e_m), v^-(e_m)$, as opposed to the other vertices of H, which we call original vertices. If $e_k = v_i v_j$ is an edge of G, then $v^+(e_k)$ (resp. $v^-(e_k)$) has two neighbors: $v^-(e_k)$ and v_i (resp. $v^+(e_k)$ and v_j).

Observe that there is a maximum independent set S which contains exactly one of $v^+(e_k), v^-(e_k)$ for every $k \in [m]$. Indeed, S cannot contain both $v^+(e_k)$ and $v^-(e_k)$ since they are adjacent. On the other hand, if S contains neither $v^+(e_k)$ nor $v^-(e_k)$, then adding $v^+(e_k)$ to S and potentially removing the other neighbor of $v^+(e_k)$ which is v_i (with $e_k = v_i v_j$) can only increase the size of the independent set. Hence S contains m edge vertices and $s \leq n$ original vertices, and there is no larger independent set in H.

We observe that the s original vertices is S form an independent set in G. Indeed, if $v_i v_j = e_k \in E(G)$ and $v_i, v_j \in S$, then neither $v^+(e_k)$ nor $v^-(e_k)$ could be in S.

Now, assume there is an approximation with ratio $\alpha:=1+\frac{2\beta}{(\Delta+1)^2}$ for MAXIMUM INDEPENDENT SET on 2-subdivisions running in subexponential time, where $1+\beta>1$ is a ratio which is not attainable for MAXIMUM INDEPENDENT SET on graphs of maximum degree Δ according to Theorem 17. On instance H, this algorithm would output a solution with m' edge vertices and s' original vertices. As we already observed this solution can be easily (in polynomial time) transformed into an at-least-as-good solution with m edge vertices and s'' original vertices forming an independent set in G. Further, we may assume that $s'' \geqslant n/(\Delta+1)$ since for any independent set of G, we can obtain an independent set of H consisting of the same set of original vertices and m edge vertices. Since $m \leqslant n\Delta/2$ and $s'' \geqslant n/(\Delta+1)$, we obtain $m \leqslant s''\Delta(\Delta+1)/2$ and $2m/(\Delta+1)^2 \leqslant s''\Delta/(\Delta+1)$. From $\frac{m+s}{m+s''} \leqslant \alpha$ and $\Delta \geqslant 3$, we have

$$s \leqslant m \cdot \frac{2\beta}{(\Delta+1)^2} + s'' \cdot (1 + \frac{2\beta}{(\Delta+1)^2}) \leqslant s''(\frac{\Delta\beta}{\Delta+1} + 1 + \frac{2\beta}{(\Delta+1)^2}) \leqslant s''(1+\beta)$$

This contradicts the inapproximability of Theorem 17. Indeed, note that the number of vertices of H is only a constant times the number of vertices of G (recall that G has bounded maximum degree, hence m = O(n)).

Recalling that independent set is a clique in the complement, we get the following.

▶ Corollary 19. There is a constant $\alpha > 1$ such that for any $\varepsilon > 0$, MAXIMUM CLIQUE on the class of all the co-2-subdivisions has no α -approximation algorithm running in subexponential time $2^{n^{1-\varepsilon}}$, unless the ETH fails.

For exact algorithms the subexponential time that we rule out under the ETH is not only $2^{n^{1-\varepsilon}}$ but actually any $2^{o(n)}$.

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Now, to Theorem 15 and Theorem 16, it is sufficient to show that intersection graphs of (filled) ellipses or of (filled) triangles contain all co-2-subdivisions. We start with (filled) triangles since the construction is straightforward.

▶ Lemma 20. The class of intersection graphs of filled triangles contains all co-2-subdivisions.

Proof. Figure 2 is a proof by picture. The corresponding words can be found in the appendix.

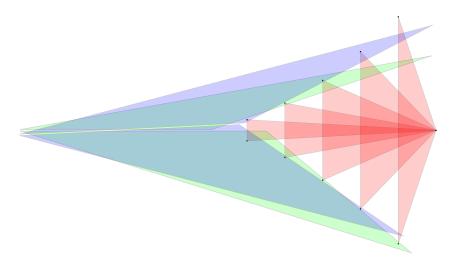


Figure 2 A co-2-subdivision of a graph with 5 vertices (in red) represented with triangles. We only represented two edges: one between vertices 1 and 4 (in green), and one between vertices 2 and 3 (in blue). We only represented the points p_1 to p_5 and q_1 to q_5 , and q_5 .

We use the same ideas for the construction with filled ellipses. The two important sides of a triangle encoding an edge of the initial graph G become two tangents of the ellipse.

▶ Lemma 21. The class of intersection graphs of filled ellipses contains all co-2-subdivisions.

Proof. Let G be any graph with n vertices v_1, \ldots, v_n and m edges e_1, \ldots, e_m , and H be its co-2-subdivision. We start with the convex monotone chain $p_0, p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_{n-1}, p_n, p_{n+1}$, only the gap between p_i and p_{i+1} is chosen very small compared to the positive y-coordinate of p_0 . This requirement is for the disks \mathcal{D}_i encoding the vertices $v_i \in G$ to form a clique. We also take p_0 with a large x-coordinate. For $i \in [0, n+1], q_i$ is the symmetric of p_i with respect to the x-axis. For each $i \in [n]$, we define \mathcal{D}_i as the disk whose boundary is the unique circle which goes through p_i and q_i , and whose tangent at p_i has the direction of $\ell(p_{i-1}, p_{i+1})$. It can be observed that, by symmetry, the tangent of \mathcal{D}_i at q_i has the direction of $\ell(q_{i-1}, q_{i+1})$.

Let us call τ_i^+ (resp. τ_i^-) the tangent of \mathcal{D}_i at p_i (resp. at q_i) very slightly translated upward (resp. downward). The tangent τ_i^+ (resp. τ_i^-) intersects every disks $\mathcal{D}_{i'}$ but \mathcal{D}_i (see Figure 3). Let denote by p_i' (resp. q_i') be the projection of p_i (resp. q_i) onto τ_i^+ (resp. onto τ_i^-) For each $k \in [m]$, let ℓ_k be the line crossing the origin O = (0,0) and forming with the horizontal an angle εk , where εk is smaller than the angle formed by $\ell(p_0,p_1)$ with the horizontal. Let ℓ_k^+ (resp. ℓ_k^-) be ℓ_k very slightly translated upward (resp. downward). To encode an edge $e_k = v_i v_j$, we have two filled ellipses \mathcal{E}_k^+ and \mathcal{E}_k^- . The ellipse \mathcal{E}_k^+ (resp. \mathcal{E}_k^-) is defined as being tangent with τ_i^+ at p_i' (resp. with τ_j^- at q_j') and tangent at ℓ_k^+ (resp. ℓ_k^-)

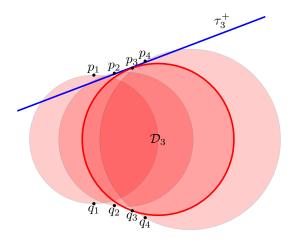


Figure 3 The blue line intersects every red disk but the third one.

at the point of x-coordinate 0 (thus very close to O), where $e_k = v_i v_j$. The proof that the intersection graph of $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i \in [n]} \cup \{\mathcal{E}_k^+, \mathcal{E}_k^-\}_{k \in [m]}$ is H is similar to the case of filled triangles.

Again, no ellipse is fully contained in another ellipse. Hence, this construction works for both filled ellipses and ellipses without their interior.

Now, let us place p_0 at $P := (\sqrt{3}/2, 1/2)$ and still make the distance between p_i and p_{i+1} very small compared to 1. All the points p_i are very close to P and all the points q_i are very close to $Q := (\sqrt{3}/2, -1/2)$. This makes the radius of all the disks \mathcal{D}_i arbitrarily close to 1. We also chose the convex monotone chain p_0, \ldots, p_{n+1} so that $\ell(p_0, p_1)$ forms a 60-degree angle with the horizontal. We have the chain strictly convex but very close to a straight-line, so that $\ell(p_0, p_1) \approx \ell(p_n, p_{n+1}) \approx \ell(p_i, p_{i+1}) \approx \ell(p_i, p_{i+2})$. By that, we mean that all those lines almost cross P and make an angle of roughly 60-degree with the horizontal. The same holds for the points q_i . For the choice of an elliptical disk tangent to the x-axis at Q and to a line with a 60-degree slope at P (resp. at Q), we can take a disk of radius 1 centered at (0,1) (resp. at (0,-1)); see Figure 4.

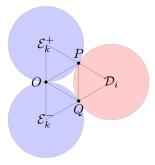


Figure 4 The layout of the disks \mathcal{D}_i , and the elliptical disks \mathcal{E}_k^+ and \mathcal{E}_k^- .

The acute angle formed by ℓ_1 and ℓ_m (incident in O) is made arbitrarily small so that, by continuity of the elliptical disk defined by two tangents at two points, the filled ellipses \mathcal{E}_k^+ and \mathcal{E}_k^- have eccentricity arbitrarily close to 0 and major axis arbitrarily close to 1.

In the construction, we made *both* the eccentricity of the (filled) ellipses arbitrarily close to 0 and the ratio between the largest and the smallest major axes arbitrarily close to 1. We know that this construction is very unlikely to work for the extreme case of unit disks,

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since a polynomial algorithm is known for MAX CLIQUE. It is interesting to note that even with disks of arbitrary radii, our Theorem 6 unconditionally proves that the construction does fail. Indeed the co-2-subdivision of $C_3 + C_3$ is the complement of $C_9 + C_9$, hence not a disk graph.

4.2 Homothets of a convex polygon

Another natural direction of generalizing a result on disk intersection graphs is to consider $pseudodisk\ intersection\ graphs$, i.e., intersection graphs of collections of closed subsets of the plane (regions bounded by simple Jordan curves) that are pairwise in a pseudodisk relationship (see Kratochvíl [28]). Two regions A and B are in pseudodisk relation if both differences $A \setminus B$ and $B \setminus A$ are arc-connected. It is known that P_{hom} graphs, i.e., intersection graphs of homothetic copies of a fixed polygon P, are pseudodisk intersection graphs [1]. As shown by Brimkov $et\ al.$, for every convex k-gon P, a P_{hom} graph with n vertices has at most n^k maximal cliques [11]. This clearly implies that MAXIMUM CLIQUE, but also CLIQUE p-Partition for fixed p is polynomially solvable in P_{hom} graphs. Actually, the bound on the maximum number of maximal cliques from [11] holds for a more general class of graphs, called k_{DIR} -CONV, which admit a intersection representation by convex polygons, whose every side is parallel to one of k directions.

Moreover, we observe that Theorem 7 cannot be generalized to P_{hom} graphs or k_{DIR} -CONV graphs. Indeed, consider the complement $\overline{P_n}$ of an n-vertex path P_n . The number of maximal cliques in $\overline{P_n}$, or, equivalently, maximal independent sets in P_n is $\Theta(c^n)$ for $c \approx 1.32$, i.e., exponential in n [21]. Therefore, for every fixed polygon P (or for every fixed k) there is n, such that $\overline{P_n}$ is not a P_{hom} (k_{DIR} -CONV) graph.

5 Perspectives

We presented the first QPTAS and subexponential algorithm for Maximum Clique on disk graphs. Our subexponential algorithm extends to the weighted case and yields a polynomial algorithm if both the degree Δ and the odd girth c of the complement graph are constant. Indeed, our full characterization of disk graphs with co-degree 2, implies a backdoor-to-bipartiteness of size $c\Delta$ in the complement.

We have also paved the way for a potential NP-hardness construction. We showed why the versatile approach of representing complements of even subdivisions of graphs forming a class on which MAXIMUM INDEPENDENT SET is NP-hard fails if the class is *general graphs*, planar graphs, or even any class containing the disjoint union of two odd cycles. This approach was used by Middendorf for some string graphs [32] (with the class of all graphs), Cabello et al. [14] to settle the then long-standing open question of the complexity of MAXIMUM CLIQUE for segments (with the class of planar graphs), in Section 4 of this paper for ellipses and triangles (with the class of all graphs). Determining the complexity of MAXIMUM INDEPENDENT SET on graphs without two vertex-disjoint odd cycles as an induced subgraph is a valuable first step towards settling down the complexity of MAXIMUM CLIQUE on disks.

Another direction is to try and strengthen our QPTAS in one of two ways: either to obtain a PTAS for MAXIMUM CLIQUE in disk graphs, or to obtain a QPTAS (or PTAS) for MAXIMUM WEIGHTED CLIQUE in disk graphs. It is interesting to note that Bock et al. [7] showed a PTAS for MAXIMUM WEIGHTED INDEPENDENT SET for graphs G with $ocp(G) = O(\log n/\log\log n)$. However, this bound is too weak to use a win-win approach similar to Theorem 10.

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Acknowledgments

Partially supported by the project ESIGMA (ANR-17-CE23-0010).

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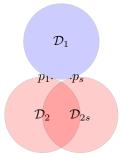
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6 Appendix

6.1 Proof of Theorem 7

We start with a disk representation of the complement of one even cycle C_{2s} . Again, this construction is not possible with unit disks for even cycles of length at least 8. We assume that the vertices of the cycle C_{2s} are $1, 2, \ldots, 2s$ in this order. For each $i \in [2s]$, the disk \mathcal{D}_i encodes the vertex i. We start by fixing the disks \mathcal{D}_1 , \mathcal{D}_2 , and \mathcal{D}_{2s} . Those three disks have the same radius. We place \mathcal{D}_2 and \mathcal{D}_{2s} side by side: their centers have the same y-coordinate. They intersect and the distance between their center is $\varepsilon > 0$. We define \mathcal{D}_1 as the disk above \mathcal{D}_2 and \mathcal{D}_{2s} tangent to those two disks and sharing the same radius. We denote by p_1 its intersection with \mathcal{D}_2 and by p_s its intersection with \mathcal{D}_{2s} . We then slightly shift \mathcal{D}_1 upward so that it does not touch (nor does it intersect) \mathcal{D}_2 and \mathcal{D}_{2s} anymore. While we do this translation, we imagine that the points p_1 and p_s remain fixed at the boundary of \mathcal{D}_2 and \mathcal{D}_{2s} respectively (see Figure 5a). Let $p_2, p_3, \ldots, p_{s-1}$ points in the interior of \mathcal{D}_1 and below the line $\ell(p_1, p_s)$ such that $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_{s-1}, p_s$ form an x-monotone convex chain (see Figure 5b).





(b) Zoom where \mathcal{D}_1 almost touches \mathcal{D}_2 and \mathcal{D}_{2s} .

(a) Three important disks with the same size \mathcal{D}_1 , \mathcal{D}_2 , \mathcal{D}_{2s} .

Figure 5 The disks \mathcal{D}_1 , \mathcal{D}_2 , \mathcal{D}_{2s} and the convex chain p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_s . The curvature of the boundary of \mathcal{D}_1 is exaggerated in the zoom for the sake of clarity.

Now, we define the disks $\mathcal{D}_4, \mathcal{D}_6, \dots, \mathcal{D}_{2s-2}$. For each $i \in \{4, 6, \dots, 2s-2\}$, let \mathcal{D}_i be the unique disk with the same radius as \mathcal{D}_2 and such that the boundary of \mathcal{D}_i crosses $p_{i/2}$ and is below its tangent $\tau_{i/2}$ at this point which has the direction of $\ell(p_{i/2-1}, p_{i/2+1})$.

It should be observed that the only disk with even index i which contains $p_{i/2}$ is \mathcal{D}_i . We can further choose the convex chain $\{p_i\}_{i\in[s]}$ such that one co-tangent $\tau_{i,i+1}$ to \mathcal{D}_{2i} and \mathcal{D}_{2i+2} has a slope between the slopes of τ_i and τ_{i+1} . Finally we define the disks $\mathcal{D}_3, \mathcal{D}_5, \ldots, \mathcal{D}_{2s-1}$. For each $i \in \{3, 5, \ldots, 2s-1\}$, let \mathcal{D}_i be tangent to $\tau_{i,i+1}$ at the point of x-coordinate the mean between the x-coordinates of $p_{\frac{i-1}{2}}$ and $p_{\frac{i+1}{2}}$. Moreover, \mathcal{D}_i is above $\tau_{i,i+1}$ and has a radius sufficiently large to intersect every disk with even index which are not \mathcal{D}_{i-1} and \mathcal{D}_{i+1} . It is easy to see that the disks \mathcal{D}_i with even index (resp. odd index) form a clique. By construction, the disk \mathcal{D}_i with odd index greater than 3 intersects every disk with even index except \mathcal{D}_{i-1} and \mathcal{D}_{i+1} since \mathcal{D}_i is on the other side of $\tau_{i,i+1}$ than those two disks. As the line $\tau_{i,i+1}$ intersects every other disk with even index, there is a sufficiently large radius so that \mathcal{D}_i does so, too. The particular case of \mathcal{D}_1 has been settled at the beginning of the construction. This disk avoids \mathcal{D}_2 and \mathcal{D}_{2s} and contains $p_2, p_3, \ldots, p_{s-1}$, so intersects all the other disks with even index.

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We now explain how to stack even cycles. We make the distance ε between the center of \mathcal{D}_2 and \mathcal{D}_{2s} a thousandth of their common radius. Note that this distance does not depend on the value of s. We identify the small region (point) where the disk \mathcal{D}_1 intersects with the disks of even index, between two different complements of cycles. We then rotate from this point one representation by a small angle (see Figure 6 for multiple complements of even cycles stacked).

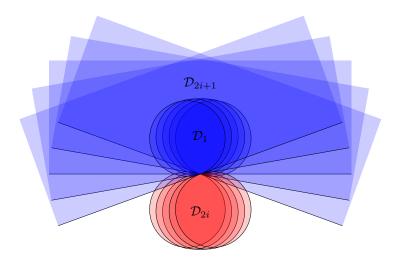


Figure 6 A disk realization of the complement of the disjoint union of an arbitrary number of even cycles. The rectangles symbolize the large disks; the ones with odd index except \mathcal{D}_1 .

The reason why there are indeed all the edges between two complements of cycles is intuitive and depicted in Figure 7 and more specifically Figure 7b. We superimpose all the complements of even cycles in a way that the maximum rotation angle between two complements of cycles is small (see for instance Figure 10).

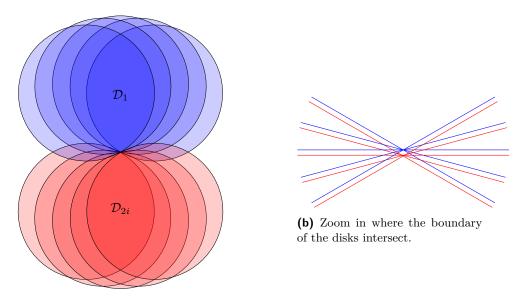
Finally, we need to add one disjoint odd cycle in the complement. There is a nice representation of a complement of an odd cycle by unit disks in the paper of Atminas and Zamaraev [5] (see Figure 8).

We will use a different and non-unit representation for the next step to work. Let 2s+1 be the length of the cycle. We use a similar construction as for the complement of an even cycle. We denote the disks $\mathcal{D}'_1, \mathcal{D}'_2, \ldots, \mathcal{D}'_{2s+1}$. The difference is that we separate \mathcal{D}'_1 away from \mathcal{D}'_2 but not from \mathcal{D}'_{2s} . Then, we represent all the disks with odd index but \mathcal{D}'_{2s+1} as before. The disk \mathcal{D}'_{2s+1} is chosen as being cotangent to \mathcal{D}'_1 and \mathcal{D}'_{2s} and to the left of them. Then we very slighlty move \mathcal{D}'_{2s+1} to the left so that it does not intersect those two disks anymore. The disk \mathcal{D}'_{2s} have the rightmost center among the disks with even index. Therefore \mathcal{D}'_{2s+1} still intersects all the other disks of even index.

Moreover, the disks with even index form a clique and the disks with odd index form a clique minus an edge between the vertex 1 and the vertex 2s + 1. Hence, the intersection graph of those disks is indeed the complement of C_{2s+1} (see Figure 9).

This representation of $\overline{C_{2s+1}}$ can now be put on top of complements of even cycles. We identify the small region (point) where the disk \mathcal{D}_1 intersects the disks of even index (in complements of even cycles) with the small region (point) where the disk \mathcal{D}'_1 intersects the disks of even index (in the one complement of odd cycle). We make the disk \mathcal{D}'_1 significantly smaller than \mathcal{D}_1 and rotate the representation of $\overline{C_{2s+1}}$ by a sizable angle, say 60 degrees (see Figure 10).

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(a) The only potential non-edges are between two disks represented almost tangent.

Figure 7 Zoom in where the disk \mathcal{D}_1 of the several complements of even cycles intersects all the \mathcal{D}_{2i} of the other cycles.

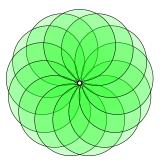


Figure 8 A disk realization of the complement of an odd cycle with unit disks as described by Atminas and Zamaraev [5]. Unfortunately, we cannot use this representation.

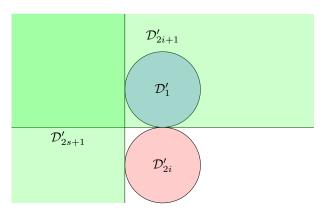


Figure 9 A disk realization of the complement of an odd cycle of length 2s + 1.

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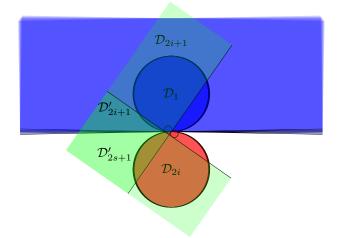


Figure 10 Placing the complement of odd cycle on top of the complements of even cycles.

It is easy to see that the disks of the complement of the odd cycle intersect all the disks of the complements of even cycles. A good sanity check is to observe why we cannot stack representations of complements of odd cycles, with the same rotation scheme. In Figure 11, the rotation of two representations of the complement of an odd cycle leaves disks \mathcal{D}_1' and $\mathcal{D}_{2s'+1}''$ far apart when they should intersect.

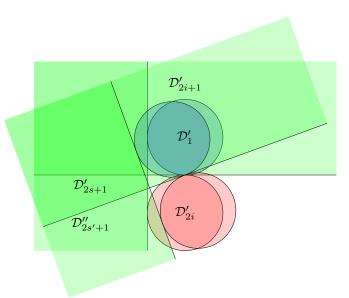


Figure 11 Sanity check: trying to stack the complements of two odd cycles fails. The disks \mathcal{D}'_1 and $\mathcal{D}''_{2s'+1}$ do not intersect.

6.2 Proof of Theorem 14

The argument is similar to the one used by Brimkov et al. [11], which was in turn inspired by the construction by Kratochvíl and Matoušek [29]. Consider the graph G in Figure 12 (containing what we will henceforth call *black*, gray and white vertices), and observe that c and d are two non-adjacent vertices with the same neighborhoods.

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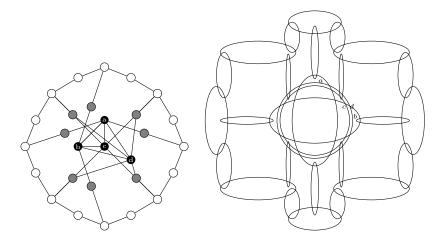


Figure 12 A graph G and its representation with empty ellipses.

Suppose G can be represented by intersecting convex sets. For a vertex v, let R_v be the convex set representing v. The union of representatives of the white vertices contains a closed Jordan curve, that we will call the outer circle. Let us choose the outer circle in such a way that it intersects the representatives of all gray vertices. It divides the plane into two faces – an interior and an exterior.

The outer circle cannot be crossed by the representative of any black vertex. Moreover, as black vertices form a connected subgraph, they have to be represented in the same face F (with respect to the outer circle). Thus, along this circle the representatives of gray vertices appear in a prescribed ordering (note that they form an independent set). This implies the ordering in which some part of representatives of the black vertices occur.

First, observe that the representatives of the gray neighbors of a, b, and c intersect the outer circle in the following ordering: $a_1, c_1, b_1, c_2, a_2, c_3, b_2, c_4$ (where each z_i for $z \in \{a, b, c\}$ is a distinct gray neighbor of z).

Clearly, each gray neighbor of a must intersect R_a outside $R_a \cap (R_b \cup R_c)$, each gray neighbor of b must intersect R_b outside $R_b \cap (R_a \cup R_c)$, and each gray neighbor of c must intersect R_c outside $R_c \cap (R_a \cup R_b)$. Thus, some parts of R_a , R_b , and R_c are exposed (i.e., outside the intersection with the union of representatives of remaining two vertices) in the ordering: a, c, b, c, a, c, b, as we move along the boundary of $R_a \cup R_b \cup R_c$. Note that this implies that $R_a \cap R_b \cap R_c \neq \emptyset$, since all sets are convex.

For any $z \in \{a, b, c\}$ and any i, the set R_{z_i} contains a segment $s(z_i)$, whose one end is on the boundary of R_z and the other end is on the outer circle (recall that all representatives are convex). For $z \in \{a, b\}$ and $i \in \{1, 2\}$, by $s'(z_i)$ we denote the segment joining the endpoint of $s(z_i)$ on the boundary of R_z to the closest point in $R_z \cap R_c$. Now we observe that the set $\bigcup_{z \in \{a, b\}, i \in \{1, 2\}} s(z_i) \cup s'(z_i)$ partitions $F \setminus R_c$ into four disjoint regions Q_1, Q_2, Q_3, Q_4 . Let Q_1 be the region adjacent to $s(a_1)$ and $s(b_1)$, Q_2 be the region adjacent to $s(b_1)$ and $s(a_2)$, Q_3 be the region adjacent to $s(a_2)$ and $s(b_2)$, and $s(b_2)$, and $s(b_3)$. Note that one of these regions may be unbounded, if $s(b_3)$ is the unbounded face of the outer circle.

For every $i \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, the set $R_{c_i} \setminus R_c$ is contained in Q_i . For $i = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, let p_i be a point in $R_d \cap R_{c_i}$, such a point exist, since d is adjacent to c_i . By convexity of R_d , the segment p_1p_2 is contained in R_d . On the other hand, it crosses the curve $s(b_1) \cup s'(b_1)$, let q_1 be the intersection point. Since R_d is disjoint with R_{b_1} , clearly $q_1 \in s'(b_1) \subseteq R_b$. In

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the analogous way we define q_2 to be the crossing point of p_2p_3 and $s(a_2) \cup s'(a_2)$, q_3 to be the crossing point of p_3p_4 and $s(b_2) \cup s'(b_2)$, and q_4 to be the crossing point of p_4p_1 and $s(a_1) \cup s'(a_1)$. We observe that $q_2 \in s'(a_2) \subseteq R_a$, $q_3 \in s'(b_2) \subseteq R_b$, and $q_4 \in s'(a_1) \subseteq R_a$. Let us consider the segment q_1q_3 . It must intersect either $s(c_2) \cup R_c$ or $s(c_4) \cup R_c$. Without loss of generality, we assume that it intersects $s(c_2) \cup R_c$. Let q' be this intersection point. By convexity, $q' \in R_d$ and $q' \in R_b$. If $q' \in s(c_2)$, we get the contradiction with the fact that b and c_2 are non-adjacent. On the other hand, if $q' \in R_c$, we get the contradiction with the fact that d and c are non-adjacent.

Finally, it is easy to represent G with empty ellipses (see Fig. 12 right).

6.3 Proof of Lemma 20

Let G be any graph with n vertices v_1, \ldots, v_n and m edges e_1, \ldots, e_m , and H be its co-2-subdivision. We start with n+2 points $p_0, p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n, p_{n+1}$ forming a convex monotone chain. Those points can be chosen as $p_i := (i, p(i))$ where p is the equation of a positive parabola taking its minimum at (0,0). For each $i \in [0,n+1]$, let q_i be the reflection of p_i by the line of equation y = 0. Let x := (n+1,0). For each vertex $v_i \in V(G)$ the filled triangle $\delta_i := p_i q_i x$ encodes v_i . Observe that the points $p_0 = q_0, p_{n+1}$, and q_{n+1} will only be used to define the filled triangles encoding edges.

To encode an edge $e_k = v_i v_j$, we have two filled triangles Δ_k^+ and Δ_k^- . The triangle Δ_k^+ (resp. Δ_k^-) has an edge which is supported by $\ell(p_{i-1}, p_{i+1})$ (resp. $\ell(q_{j-1}, q_{j+1})$) and is prolonged so that it crosses the boundary of each $\delta_{i'}$ but δ_i (resp. but δ_j). A second edge of Δ_k^+ and Δ_k^- are parallel and make with the horizontal a small angle εk , where $\varepsilon > 0$ is chosen so that εm is smaller than the angle formed by $\ell(p_0, p_1)$ with the horizontal line. Those almost horizontal edges intersect for each pair $\Delta_{k'}^+$ and $\Delta_{k''}^-$ with $k' \neq k''$ intersects close to the same point. Filled triangles Δ_k^+ and Δ_k^- do not intersect. See Figure 2 for the complete picture.

It is easy to check that the intersection graph of $\{\delta_i\}_{i\in[n]} \cup \{\Delta_k^+, \Delta_k^-\}_{k\in[m]}$ is H. The family $\{\delta_i\}_{i\in[n]}$ forms a clique since they all contain for instance the point x. The filled triangle Δ_k^+ (resp. Δ_k^-) intersects every other filled triangles except Δ_k^- (resp. Δ_k^+) and δ_i (resp. δ_i) with $e_k = v_i v_i$.

One may observe that no triangle is fully included in another triangle. So the construction works both as the intersection graph of filled triangles and triangles without their interior. The edge of a Δ_k^+ or a Δ_k^- crossing the boundary of all but one δ_i , and the almost horizontal edge can be arbitrary prolonged to the right and to the left respectively. Thus, the triangles can all be made isosceles.