# Computing the Diameter of a Point Set 

Grégoire Malandain and Jean-Daniel Boissonnat

INRIA, 2004 route des lucioles, BP 93, 06902 Sophia-Antipolis Cedex, France
\{gregoire.malandain, jean-daniel.boissonnat\}@sophia.inria.fr


#### Abstract

Given a finite set of points $\mathcal{P}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, the diameter of $\mathcal{P}$ is defined as the maximum distance between two points of $\mathcal{P}$. We propose a very simple algorithm to compute the diameter of a finite set of points. Although the algorithm is not worst-case optimal, it appears to be extremely fast for a large variety of point distributions.


## 1 Introduction

Given a set $\mathcal{P}$ of $n$ points in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, the diameter of $\mathcal{P}$ is the maximum Euclidean distance between any two points of $\mathcal{P}$.

Computing the diameter of a point set has a long history. By reduction to set disjointness, it can be shown that computing the diameter of $n$ points in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ requires $\Omega(n \log n)$ operations in the algebraic computation-tree model [PS90]. A trivial $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ upper-bound is provided by the brute-force algorithm that compares the distances between all pairs of points. In dimensions 2 and 3, better solutions are known. In the plane, it is easy to solve the problem optimally in $O(n \log n)$ time. The problem becomes much harder in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. Clarkson and Shor gave a randomized $O(n \log n)$ algorithm [CS89]. This algorithm involves the computation of the intersection of $n$ balls (of the same radius) in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ and the fast location of points with respect to this intersection. This makes the algorithm less efficient in practice than the brute-force algorithm for almost any data set. Moreover this algorithm is not efficient in higher dimensions since the intersection of $n$ balls of the same radius has size $\Theta\left(n^{\left\lfloor\frac{d}{2}\right\rfloor}\right)$. Recent attempts to solve the 3-dimensional diameter problem led to $O\left(n \log ^{3} n\right)$ [AGR94,Ram97b] and $O\left(n \log ^{2} n\right)$ deterministic algorithms [Ram97a,Bes98]. Finally Ramos found an optimal $O(n \log n)$ deterministic algorithm [Ram00]. All these algorithms use complex data structures and algorithmic techniques such as 3 -dimensional convex hulls, intersection of balls, furthest-point Voronoi diagrams, point location search structures or parametric search. We are not aware of any implementation of these algorithms. We suspect that they are very slow in practice compared to the brute-force algorithm, even for large data sets.

Some of these algorithms could be extended in higher dimensions. However, this is not worth trying since the data structures they use have sizes that depend exponentially on the dimension: e.g. the size of the convex hull of $n$ points of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ can be as large as $\Omega\left(n^{\left\lfloor\frac{d}{2}\right\rfloor}\right)$.

Our algorithm works in any dimension. Moreover, it does not construct any complicated data structure; in particular, it does not require that the points are
in convex position and therefore does not require to compute the convex hull of the points. The only numerical computations are dot product computations as in the brute-force algorithm.

The algorithm is not worst-case optimal but appears to be extremely fast under most circumstances, the most noticeable exception occuring when the points are distributed on a domain of constant width, e.g. a sphere. We also propose an approximate algorithm.

Independently, Har-Peled has designed an algorithm which is similar in spirit to our algorithm [Har01]. We compare both methods and also show that they can be combined so as to take advantage of the two.

## 2 Definitions, notations and geometric preliminaries

We denote by $n$ the number of points of $\mathcal{P}$, by $h$ the number of vertices of the convex hull of $\mathcal{P}$, and by $D$ the diameter of $\mathcal{P}$. $\delta(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes the Euclidean distance, and $\delta^{2}(\cdot, \cdot)$ the squared Euclidean distance.

A pair of points of $\mathcal{P}$ is called a segment. The length of a segment $p q$ is the euclidean distance $\delta(p, q)$ between $p$ and $q$. A segment of length $D$ is called maximal.

For $p \in \mathcal{P}, F P(p)$ denotes the subset of the points of $\mathcal{P}$ that are at maximal distance from $p$. The segment joining two points $p$ and $q$ is called a double normal if $p \in F P(q)$ and $q \in F P(p)$. If $p q$ is a maximal segment, $p q$ is a double normal. The converse is not necessarily true.

Observe that the endpoints of a maximal segment or of a double normal belong to the convex hull of $\mathcal{P}$. Observe also that, if the points are in general position, i.e. there are no two pairs of points at the same distance, the number of double normals is at most $h / 2$.
$B(p, r)$ denotes the ball of radius $r$ centered at $p, \Sigma(p, r)$ its bounding sphere. The ball with diameter $p q$ is denoted by $B[p q]$ and its boundary by $\Sigma[p q]$.

Since the distance between any two points in $B[p q]$ is at most $\delta(p, q)$, we have:

Lemma 1 If $p, q \in \mathcal{P}$ and if $p q$ is not a maximal segment, any maximal segment must have at least one endpoint outside $B[p q]$.

As a corollary, we have:
Lemma 2 If $p, q \in \mathcal{P}$ and if $\mathcal{P} \backslash B[p q]=\emptyset, p q$ is a maximal segment of $\mathcal{P}$ and $\delta(p, q)$ is the diameter of $\mathcal{P}$.

## 3 Computation of a double normal

Algorithm 1 below repeatidly computes a furthest neighbour of a point of $\mathcal{P}$ until a double normal $D N$ is found. To find a furthest neighbour of $p \in \mathcal{P}$, we simply compare the distances between $p$ and all the other points in $\mathcal{P}$ ( $F P$ scan). Point $p$ is then removed from $\mathcal{P}$ and won't be considered in further computations.

```
procedure DoubleNormal \((p, \mathcal{P}) \quad / / p\) is a point of \(\mathcal{P}\)
\(\Delta_{0}^{2} \leftarrow 0 \quad i \leftarrow 0\)
repeat //FP scan
    increment \(i\)
    \(\Delta_{i}^{2} \leftarrow \Delta_{i-1}^{2}\)
    \(\mathcal{P} \leftarrow \mathcal{P} \backslash\{p\} \quad / /\) remove \(p\) from \(\mathcal{P}\) from any further computation
    find \(q \in F P(p)\), i.e. one of the furthest neighbours of \(p\)
    if \(\delta^{2}(p, q)>\Delta_{i}^{2}\) then
        \(\Delta_{i}^{2} \leftarrow \delta^{2}(p, q)\) and \(D N \leftarrow p q\)
        \(p \leftarrow q\)
until \(\left(\Delta_{i}^{2}=\Delta_{i-1}^{2}\right)\)
return \(D N\)
```

Algorithm 1: Computes a double normal.

## Lemma 3 Algorithm 1 terminates and returns a double normal.

Proof. $\Delta_{i}$ can only take a finite number of different values and strictly increases: this ensures that the algorithm terminates. After termination (after $I$ iterations) we have $q \in F P(p)$ and all the points of $\mathcal{P}$ belong to $B(p, \delta(p, q))$. Since $\Delta_{I-1}=\delta(p, q)$, all the points of $\mathcal{P}$ belong also to $B(q, \delta(p, q))$ and therefore $p \in F P(q)$.

After termination of Algorithm 1, the original set $\mathcal{P}$ has been replaced by a strictly subset $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ since some points have been removed from $\mathcal{P}$ (line 6 of algorithm 1). By construction, the returned segment $p q$ is a double normal of the reduced set $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ (lemma 3), and it is also a double normal of the original set $\mathcal{P}$.

Lemma 4 The only numerical operations involved in Algorithm 1 are comparisons of squared distances.

Lemma 5 Algorithm 1 performs at most $h$ FP scans and takes $\Theta(n h)$ time.

Proof. The upper bound is trivial since all the points $q$ that are considered by Algorithm 1 belong to the convex hull of $\mathcal{P}$ and all points $q$ are distinct. As for the lower bound, we give an example in the plane, which is sufficient to prove the bound. Consider a set of $2 n+1$ points $p_{0}, \ldots, p_{2 n}$ placed at the vertices of a regular polygon $P$ (in counterclockwise order). For $i>0$, we slightly move the $p_{i}$ outside $P$ along the ray $O p_{i}$ by a distance $\varepsilon^{i}$ for some small $\varepsilon<1$. Let $p_{i}^{\prime}$ be the perturbed points It is easy to see that the farthest point from $p_{i}^{\prime}$ is always $p_{i+n \bmod (2 n+1)}^{\prime}$ except for $p_{n+1}^{\prime}$. Therefore, the algorithm will perform $F P$ scans starting successively at $p_{\sigma_{0}}, \ldots, p_{\sigma_{2 n+1}}$ where $\sigma_{i}=i \times n($ modulo $2 n+1)$.

Although tight in the worst-case, the bound in lemma 5 is very pessimistic for many point distributions. This will be corroborated by experimental results.

## 4 Iterative computation of double normals

Assume that Algorithm 1 has been run and let $\mathcal{Q}=\mathcal{P} \backslash B[p q]$. If $\mathcal{Q}=\emptyset, p q$ is a maximal segment and $\delta(p, q)$ is the diameter of $\mathcal{P}$ (lemma 2). Otherwise, we have to determine whether $p q$ is a maximal segment or not. Towards this goal, we try to find a better (i.e. longer) double normal by running Algorithm 1 again, starting at a point in $\mathcal{Q}$ rather than in $\mathcal{P}$, which is sufficient by lemma 1. Although any point in $\mathcal{Q}$ will be fine, experimental evidence has shown that choosing the furthest point from $\Sigma[p q]^{1}$ is usually better.

Algorithm 2 below repeats this process further until either $\mathcal{Q}$ becomes empty or the current maximal distance $\Delta$ does not increase.

```
\(\Delta^{2} \leftarrow 0 \quad\) stop \(\leftarrow 0\)
pick a point \(m \in \mathcal{P}\)
repeat //DN scan
    Doublenormal \((m, \mathcal{P})\) // yields a double normal \(p q\) of length \(\delta(p, q)\)
    if \(\delta^{2}(p, q)>\Delta^{2}\) then
        \(\Delta^{2} \leftarrow \delta^{2}(p, q)\) and \(D N \leftarrow p q\)
        \(\mathcal{Q} \leftarrow \mathcal{P} \backslash B[p q]\)
        if \(\mathcal{Q} \neq \emptyset\) then
            find \(m \in \mathcal{Q}\) a furthest point from \(\Sigma[p q]\)
    else
        stop \(\leftarrow 1 \quad / /\) terminates with \(\mathcal{Q} \neq \emptyset\).
until \(\mathcal{Q}=\emptyset\) or stop \(=1\)
return \(D N \leftarrow p q, \Delta^{2} \leftarrow \delta^{2}(p, q)\)
```

Algorithm 2: Iterated search for double normals.

Lemma 6 Algorithm 2 can be implemented so that the only numerical computations are comparisons of dot products of differences of points.

Lemma 7 Algorithm 2 performs $O(h) D N$ scans. Its overall time-complexity is $O(n h)$.

Proof. The first part of the lemma comes from the fact that the algorithm enumerates (possibly all) double normals by strictly increasing lengths.

Let us prove now the second part of the lemma. Each time Algorithm 1 performs a $F P$ scan starting at a point $p$ (loop 3-11), $p$ is removed from further consideration (line 6). Moreover, except for the first point $p$ to be considered, all these points belong to the convex hull of $\mathcal{P}$. It follows that the total number of $F P$ scans is at most $h+1$. Since each $F P$ scan takes $O(n)$ time, we have proved the lemma.

[^0]
## 5 Diameter computation

Assume that Algorithm 2 terminates after $I$ iterations. Since, at each iteration, a new double normal is computed, the algorithm has computed $I$ double normals, noted $p_{i} q_{i}, i=1, \ldots, I$, and we have $\delta\left(p_{1}, q_{1}\right)<\ldots<\delta\left(p_{I-1}, q_{I-1}\right)$. . Each time Algorithm 1 is called, some points are removed from the original data set. We rename the original data set $\mathcal{P}^{(0)}$ and denote by $\mathcal{P}^{(j)}$ the set of points that remain after the $j$-th iteration, i.e. the one that computes $p_{j} q_{j}$. Hence set $\mathcal{P}^{(i)}$ is strictly included in $\mathcal{P}^{(i-1)}$. Moreover, each segment $p_{i} q_{i}$ is a double normal for all the sets $\mathcal{P}^{(j)}, j=i-1, \ldots, I^{2}$.

It is easily seen that, at each iteration $j$, the length of the computed double normal $p_{j} q_{j}$ is strictly greater than the distances $\delta(x, F P(x))$ computed so far, or equivalently, than the lengths of all the segments in $\mathcal{P} \backslash \mathcal{P}^{(j)} \times \mathcal{P}$ since Algorithm 1 removed the corresponding $x$ from $\mathcal{P}$.

When Algorithm 2 terminates, we are in one of the two following cases :
Case $1: \delta\left(p_{I}, q_{I}\right)>\delta\left(p_{I-1}, q_{I-1}\right)$ and $\mathcal{Q}=\mathcal{P}^{(I)} \backslash B\left[p_{I} q_{I}\right]=\emptyset$.
In this case, $p_{I} q_{I}$ is a maximal segment of $\mathcal{P}$ : by lemma 2 , it is a maximal segment of $\mathcal{P}^{(I)}$, and, as mentionned above, no segment with an endpoint in $\mathcal{P} \backslash \mathcal{P}^{(I)}$ can be longer.
Case 2: $\delta\left(p_{I}, q_{I}\right) \leq \delta\left(p_{I-1}, q_{I-1}\right)$.
In this case, $\mathcal{P}^{(I-1)} \backslash B\left[p_{I-1} q_{I-1}\right]$ was not empty before the computation of [ $p_{I}, q_{I}$ ]. We have to determine whether $p_{I-1} q_{I-1}$ is a maximal segment or not. Thanks to lemma 1, if a longer double normal exists, one of its endpoints lies in $\mathcal{P}^{(I)} \backslash B\left[p_{I-1} q_{I-1}\right]$. If this last set is empty, which is checked by Algorithm 3, $p_{I-1} q_{I-1}$ is a maximal segment of $\mathcal{P}$.

```
Required: \(\mathcal{P}^{(I)}\) and \(p_{I-1} q_{I-1}\) (provided by Algorithm 2)
    \(\mathcal{Q} \leftarrow \mathcal{P}^{(I)} \backslash B\left[p_{I-1} q_{I-1}\right]\)
    if \(\mathcal{Q}=\emptyset\) then
        \(p_{I-1} q_{I-1}\) is a maximal segment of \(\mathcal{P}\)
```

Algorithm 3: Checks whether $\mathcal{Q}=\mathcal{P}^{(I)} \backslash B\left[p_{I-1} q_{I-1}\right]=\emptyset$.

If $\mathcal{Q}=\mathcal{P}^{(I)} \backslash B\left[p_{I-1} q_{I-1}\right] \neq \emptyset$, we have to check whether there exists a maximal segment with an endpoint in this set. To search for such maximal segments, we propose two methods. For clarity purpose, we will write $\mathcal{P}$ instead $\mathcal{P}^{(I)}$ in the following.

### 5.1 Exhaustive search over $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{P}$

The first method (Algorithm 4) simply considers all segments in $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{P}$.

[^1]```
Required: \(\Delta^{2}\) (provided by Algorithm 2) and \(\mathcal{Q}\) (provided by Algorithm 3)
    if \(\mathcal{Q} \neq \emptyset\) then \(/ /\) Exhaustive search with an endpoint in \(\mathcal{Q}\)
        for all points \(p_{i} \in \mathcal{Q}\) do
            for all points \(p_{j} \in \mathcal{P}\) do
                if \(\delta^{2}\left(p_{i}, p_{j}\right)>\Delta^{2}\) then
                    \(\Delta^{2} \leftarrow \delta^{2}\left(p_{i}, p_{j}\right)\)
    return \(\Delta^{2}\)
```

Algorithm 4: Exhaustive search over $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{P}$.

### 5.2 Reduction of $\mathcal{Q}$

As it might be expected and is confirmed by our experiments, the observed total complexity is dominated by the exhaustive search of the previous section. It is therefore important to reduce the size of $\mathcal{Q}$. For that purpose, we propose to reuse all the computed segments $p_{i} q_{i}, i=1, \ldots, I-2$, and $p_{I} q_{I}$.

Principle Assume that we have at our disposal an approximation $\Delta$ of the diameter of set $\mathcal{P}$ and a subset $\mathcal{Q} \subset \mathcal{P}$ that contains at least one endpoint of each maximal segment longer than $\Delta$ (plus possibly other points). To identify such endpoints in $\mathcal{Q}$ (i.e. to find the maximal segments longer than $\Delta$ ), we may, as in Algorithm 4, exhaustively search for a maximal segment over $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{P}$. The purpose of this section is to show how this search can be reduced.

Under the assumption that the diameter of $\mathcal{P}$ is larger than $\Delta$, we know, from lemma 1 , that any maximal segment will have at least one endpoint outside any ball of radius $\Delta / 2$.

Consider such a ball $B^{\prime}$ of radius $\Delta / 2$. The exhaustive search over $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{P}$ can then be reduced to two exhautive searches associated to a partition of $\mathcal{Q}$ into $\mathcal{Q} \cap B^{\prime}$ and $\mathcal{Q} \backslash B^{\prime}$. More precisely, if $p \in \mathcal{Q}$, searching for a point $q$ such that $\delta(p, q)>\Delta$ reduces to searching $q$ in $\mathcal{P} \backslash \mathcal{Q} \backslash B^{\prime}$ if $p$ belongs to $B^{\prime}$, and searching $q$ in $\mathcal{P}$ otherwise.

This way, instead of searching over $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{P}$, we search over $\left(\mathcal{Q} \cap B^{\prime}\right) \times(\mathcal{P} \backslash$ $\left.\mathcal{Q} \backslash B^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left(\mathcal{Q} \backslash B^{\prime}\right) \times \mathcal{P}$, therefore avoiding searching a maximal segment in $\left(\mathcal{Q} \cap B^{\prime}\right) \times\left(\mathcal{P} \cap B^{\prime}\right)$.
$B^{\prime}$ should be chosen so as to maximize the number of points in $\mathcal{P} \cap B^{\prime}$, which reduces the cost of searching over $\left(\mathcal{Q} \cap B^{\prime}\right) \times\left(\mathcal{P} \backslash \mathcal{Q} \backslash B^{\prime}\right)$. The idea is to reuse the already found segments $p_{i} q_{i}$ (which are double normals of $\mathcal{P}$ ) and to iteratively center the balls of radius $\Delta / 2$ at the points $\frac{p_{i}+q_{i}}{2}$.

Algorithm Assume that Algorithm 2 terminates under case 2, yielding the segment $p_{\max } q_{\max }$ (i.e. $\left.p_{I-1} q_{I-1}\right)$ of length $\Delta=\delta\left(p_{\max }, q_{\max }\right)$ which is considered as an estimation of the diameter. Moreover, we assume that the set $\mathcal{Q}$ computed by Algorithm 3 is not empty.

All the double normals $p_{i} q_{i}$ that have been found by Algorithm 2, except $p_{I-1} q_{I-1}$, are collected into a set $\mathcal{S}$.

```
Required: \(\Delta^{2}=\delta^{2}\left(p_{\max }, q_{\text {max }}\right)\) and \(\mathcal{S}\) provided by Algorithm 2
Required: \(\mathcal{Q}^{(0)}=\mathcal{Q}\) provided by Algorithm 3
    for all segments \(p_{i} q_{i} \in \mathcal{S}, i=1 \ldots|S|\) do
        \(B^{\prime} \leftarrow B\left(\frac{p_{i}+q_{i}}{2}, \Delta / 2\right)\)
        \(d^{2} \leftarrow \max \delta^{2}(p, q) \quad(q, p) \in\left(\mathcal{Q}^{(i-1)} \cap B^{\prime}\right) \times\left(\mathcal{P} \backslash \mathcal{Q}^{(i-1)} \backslash B^{\prime}\right)\)
        if \(d^{2}>\Delta^{2}\) then \(/ / \mathrm{A}\) better diameter estimation was found
            \(\Delta^{2} \leftarrow d^{2}\)
            Add segment \(p q\) to set \(\mathcal{S}\)
        \(\mathcal{Q}^{(i)} \leftarrow \mathcal{Q}^{(i-1)} \backslash B^{\prime} \quad / /\) new set \(\mathcal{Q}\)
        if \(\mathcal{Q}^{(i)}=\emptyset\) then
        return \(\Delta^{2} \quad / /\) diameter has been found
```

Algorithm 5: Iterative reduction of $\mathcal{Q}$ by successive examination of all segments $p_{i} q_{i}$.

If Algorithm 5 terminates with $\mathcal{Q}^{(|S|)} \neq \emptyset$, one still must run Algorithm 4 with $\mathcal{Q}=\mathcal{Q}^{(|S|)}$, i.e. the exhaustive search over $\mathcal{Q}^{(|S|)} \times \mathcal{P}$.

## 6 Diameter approximation

Our algorithm provides a lower bound $\Delta \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \Delta_{\min }$ on the diameter. It also provides an upper bound $\Delta_{\max }=\Delta_{\min } \sqrt{3}$. Indeed, let $p q$ be the double normal whose length is $\Delta_{\text {min }}$. All the points of $\mathcal{P}$ belong to the intersection of the two balls of radius $\Delta_{\min }$ centered at $p$ and $q$.

With only slight modifications, our algorithm can also be used to compute a better approximation of the diameter. More precisely, for any given $\varepsilon$, we provide an interval $\left[\Delta_{\min }, \Delta_{\max }\right.$ ] of length $\leq \varepsilon$ that contains the true diameter.

Since the algorithm provides a lower bound $\Delta$, we simply need to ensure that $\Delta+\varepsilon$ is an upper bound of the true diameter.

We will just indicate where the necessary modifications must take place.
First, during the iterative search of double normals (line 9 in Algorithm 2) the ball centered at $\frac{p+q}{2}$ and passing through the furthest point $m$ contains all the points of $\mathcal{P}$. The diameter $\Delta_{\text {max }}$ of that ball is given by

$$
\Delta_{\max }^{2}=4 \overrightarrow{m p} \cdot \overrightarrow{m q}+\Delta^{2}
$$

where $\Delta=\delta(p, q)$. Therefore, when $\Delta_{\max }^{2} \leq(\Delta+\varepsilon)^{2}$, we have found an $\varepsilon$ approximation of the diameter and we stop.

Second, the intermediate step (Algorithm 3) checks if $\mathcal{P}^{(I)}$ contains the endpoint of some potential maximal segment. Here the set $\mathcal{Q}$ has to be replaced by $\mathcal{P}^{(I)} \backslash B\left(\frac{p_{I-1}+q_{I-1}}{2}, \frac{\Delta+\varepsilon}{2}\right)$.

A better estimate than $\Delta+\varepsilon$ of the upper bound $\Delta_{\max }$ is then obviously

$$
2 \times \max _{q \in \mathcal{R}} \delta\left(\frac{p_{I-1}+q_{I-1}}{2}, q\right)
$$

with $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{P}^{(I)} \cap\left\{B\left(\frac{p_{I-1}+q_{I-1}}{2}, \frac{\Delta+\varepsilon}{2}\right) \backslash B\left(\frac{p_{I-1}+q_{I-1}}{2}, \frac{\Delta}{2}\right)\right\}$.
If $\mathcal{Q}$ is empty, we stop.
The exhaustive search over $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{P}$ described in Algorithm 4 will possibly update both $\Delta$ and $\Delta_{\text {max }}$.

```
Required: \(\Delta^{2}\) provided by algorithm 2,
Required: \(\mathcal{Q}, \Delta_{\max }^{2}\) and provided by modified algorithm 3
    if \(\mathcal{Q} \neq \emptyset\) then // Exhaustive search with an endpoint in \(\mathcal{Q}\)
        for all points \(p_{i} \in \mathcal{Q}\) do
            for all points \(p_{j} \in \mathcal{P}\) do
                if \(\delta^{2}\left(p_{i}, p_{j}\right)>\Delta^{2}\) then
                    \(\Delta^{2} \leftarrow \delta^{2}\left(p_{i}, p_{j}\right)\)
                    if \(\delta^{2}\left(p_{i}, p_{j}\right)>\Delta_{\text {max }}^{2}\) then
                    \(\Delta_{\text {max }}^{2} \leftarrow \delta^{2}\left(p_{i}, p_{j}\right)\)
    return \(\Delta^{2}\) and \(\Delta_{\text {max }}^{2}\)
```

Algorithm 6: Modified exhaustive search over $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{P}$.

Finally, in Algorithm 5 (line 2), we will use $\Delta_{\max }$ instead of $\Delta$ and update both $\Delta^{2}$ and $\Delta_{\max }^{2}$ when necessary (lines 4-6).

## 7 Experiments

We conduct experiments with different point distributions in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ :
Volume based distributions: in a cube, in a ball, and in sets of constant width (only in 2D);
Surface based distributions: on a sphere, and on ellipsoids;
and with real inputs ${ }^{3}$ The interested reader will find detailed results and discussion in [MB01] for our own method.

## 8 Comparison with Har-Peled's method

The most comparable approach to ours is the one developed very recently by S. Har-Peled [Har01]. Although it is similar in spirit, Har-Peled's algorithm is quite different from ours. We first summarize his method and then compare experimentally the two methods. Since the two methods have different advantages and drawbacks, it is worth combining them, leading to good hybrid algorithms with more stable performances.

[^2]In his approach, Har-Peled recursively computes pairs of boxes (each enclosing a subset of the points). He throws away pairs that cannot contain a maximal segment.

To avoid maintaining too many pairs of boxes, Har-Peled does not decompose a pair of boxes if both contain less than $n_{\min }$ points (initially set to 40 in HarPeled's implementation). Instead, he computes the diameter between the two corresponding subsets using the brute-force method. Moreover, if the number of pairs of boxes becomes too large during the computation (which may be due to a large number of points or to the high dimension of the embedding space), $n_{\text {min }}$ can be doubled: however, doubling $n_{\text {min }}$ increases the computing time.

Differently from our method, Har-Peled's algorithm depends on the coordinate axes (see table 2).

We provide an experimental comparison of both approaches, using the original Har-Peled's implementation ${ }^{4}$ which only works for 3D inputs. In order to be able to deal with inputs in higher dimensions, we have re-implemented his algorithm, following the same choices that were made in the original implementation.

### 8.1 Hybrid methods

It should be first notice that both methods can easily be modified to compute the diameter between two sets, i.e. the segment of maximal length with one endpoint in the first set and the other in the second set.

Both methods have quadratic parts. Ours with the final computation over $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{P}$, and Har-Peled's one when computing the diameter for a pair of small boxes.

We have implemented two hybrid methods that combines Har-Peled's method and ours. We first modified Har-Peled's algorithm by replacing each call to the brute-force algorithm by a call to our algorithm. We also tested another hybrid method where we modified our algorithm by replacing the final call to the bruteforce algorithm by a call to the first hybrid method. The two hybrid methods can be tuned by setting several parameters. The experimental results presented here have been obtained with the same values of the parameters.

The results show that the hybrid methods are never much worse than the best method. Moreover, their performances are more stable and less sensitive to the point distribution.

## 9 Discussion

Our method is based on the computation of double normals. Computing a double normal appears to be extremely fast under any practical circumstances and in any dimension (despite the quadratic lower bound of lemma 5). Moreover, the reported double normal is very often the true maximal segment. This is not too

[^3]|  | Running time in seconds |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | 3D Volume Based distributions |  |  |  |  |  |
| Inputs | Cube | Cube | Cube | Ball | Ball | Ball |
| Points | 10,000 | 100,000 | $1,000,000$ | 10,000 | 100,000 | 200,000 |
| Our method | 0.01 | 0.19 | 0.53 | 0.04 | 0.79 | 1.20 |
| HPM - original | 0.01 | 0.18 | 1.96 | 0.31 | 18.16 | 53.88 |
| HPM - our implementation | 0.02 | 0.18 | 1.92 | 0.20 | 5.12 | 20.57 |
| hybrid method \#1 | 0.01 | 0.18 | 2.00 | 0.13 | 2.25 | 5.26 |
| hybrid method \#2 | 0.02 | 0.35 | 1.50 | 0.07 | 1.05 | 3.29 |

Table 1. CPU times for 3D volume based synthetic distributions.

|  | Running time in seconds <br> 3D Surface Based distributions |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Inputs | Ellipsoid (regular) | Ellipsoid | Ellipsoid (rotated) | Sphere | Sphere | Sphere |
| Points | 1,000,000 | 1,000,000 | 1,000,000 | 10,000 | 100,000 | 200,000 |
| our method | 1.34 | 2.02 | 1.61 | 1.08 | 358.21 | not computed |
| HPM - original | 1.78 | 3.84 | 37.70 | 2.13 | 95.49 | 328.90 |
| HPM - our implementation | 1.81 | 3.51 | 23.88 | 0.63 | 39.97 | 166.26 |
| hybrid method \#1 | 1.82 | 3.38 | 6.38 | 0.33 | 6.99 | 16.75 |
| hybrid method \#2 | 2.30 | 3.10 | 1.79 | 0.44 | 8.58 | 19.75 |

Table 2. CPU times for 3D surface based synthetic distributions. The points sets in the second and the third columns are identical up to a 3D rotation.
much surprising since, on a generic surface, the number of double normals is finite and small. In any case, having a double normal provides a $\sqrt{3}$-approximation of the diameter in any dimensions.

However, even if the reported double normal is a maximal segment $s$, it may be costly to verify that this is indeed the case. A favourable situation is when the point set is contained in the ball $B$ of diameter $s$. The bad situation occurs when there are many points in set $\mathcal{P} \backslash B$ since we verify that none of these points is the endpoint of a maximal segment. This case occurs with sets of constant width but also with some real models: e.g. bunny, dragon and buddha (see tables [MB01].

For these three cases, the first double normal found by the algorithm was the maximal segment. The second found double normal was shorter. After Algorithm $3, \mathcal{Q}$ contains respectively 1086,2117 , and 2659 points for the bunny, dragon, and buddha models. For both the bunny and the buddha, the second double normal was very close to the first one, then very few points were removed from $\mathcal{Q}$ (respectively 7 and 36 ), and most of the points of $\mathcal{Q}$ will undergo the final quadratic search. This explains why there is a so little difference between our method with and without the reduction of $\mathcal{Q}$ for these two models [MB01].

|  | Running time in seconds |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Inputs | Bunny | Hand | Dragon | Buddha | Blade |
| Points | 35,947 | 327,323 | 437,645 | 543,652 | 882,954 |
| our method | 5.73 | 0.29 | 8.51 | 172.91 | 0.49 |
| Har-Peled's method (HPM) - original | 0.08 | 0.45 | 0.90 | 0.72 | 1.00 |
| HPM - our implementation | 0.07 | 0.43 | 0.89 | 0.69 | 0.94 |
| hybrid method \#1 | 0.07 | 0.41 | 0.86 | 0.67 | 0.90 |
| hybrid method \#2 | 0.10 | 0.32 | 1.37 | 1.09 | 0.50 |

Table 3. CPU times on real inputs.

For the dragon model, the second double normal is quite different from the first one, hence the noticeable improvement of our method with the reduction of $\mathcal{Q}$.

Har-Peled's method does not suffer from this drawback. However, it depends on the coordinate axes (since the boxes are aligned with the axes) and on the dimension $d$ of the embedding space.

The first hybrid method compensates for the quadratic search between small boxes (boxes containing less than $n_{\min }$ points), i.e. one major drawback of original Har-Peled's method.

The second hybrid method compensates for the major drawback of our method, by building pairs of boxes from $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{P}$.

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|  | Running time in seconds |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | volume distributions |  | surface distributions |  |  |
| Inputs |  |  | Regular Ellipsoid | Ellipsoid | Sphere |
| Points | 100,000 | 100,000 | 100,000 | 100,000 | 100,000 |
|  | Dimension $=6$ |  |  |  |  |
| our method | 0.31 | 36.95 | 0.11 | 0.33 | t computed |
| HPM - our implementation | 0.85 | 466.44 | 0.97 | 0.87 | 465.08 |
| hybrid method \#1 | 0.67 | 77.20 | 0.79 | 0.73 | 118.06 |
| hybrid method \#2 | 0.66 | 63.31 | 0.19 | 0.65 | 142.38 |
|  | Dimension $=9$ |  |  |  |  |
| our method | 0.89 | 128.02 | 0.51 | 0.52 | not computed |
| HPM - our implementation | 139.23 | 568.99 | 264.96 | 590.14 | 569.08 |
| hybrid method \#1 | 17.42 | 135.90 | 44.54 | 67.27 | 232.39 |
| hybrid method \#2 | 1.21 | 121.91 | 1.25 | 16.03 | 302.86 |
|  | Dimension $=12$ |  |  |  |  |
| our method | 3.87 | 445.03 | 1.08 | 7.88 | not computed |
| HPM - our implementation | 629.37 | 651.56 | 648.88 | 650.98 | 647.74 |
| hybrid method \#1 | 44.45 | 354.14 | 58.53 | 56.11 | 511.41 |
| hybrid method \#2 | 19.72 | 380.41 | 13.00 | 24.62 | 745.60 |
|  | Dimension $=15$ |  |  |  |  |
| our method | 10.99 | 798.66 | 7.26 | 20.31 | not computed |
| HPM - our implementation | 734.69 | 735.26 | 731.76 | 733.70 | 737.51 |
| hybrid method \#1 | 64.49 | 610.70 | 69.11 | 90.35 | 701.18 |
| hybrid method \#2 | 44.37 | 782.20 | 21.30 | 70.41 | 1120.57 |

Table 4. CPU times for synthetic distributions in higher dimensions.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ This point is the furthest point from $\frac{p+q}{2}$ outside $B[p q]$.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ Strictly speaking, as $p_{i}$ and $q_{i}$ do not belong to $\mathcal{P}^{(j)}$, we should say that $p_{i} q_{i}$ is a double normal for all the sets $\mathcal{P}^{(j)} \cup\left\{p_{i}, q_{i}\right\}, j=i-1, \ldots, I$.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Large Geometric Models Archive, http://www.cs.gatech.edu/projects/large_models/, Georgia Institute of Technology.

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ Available at http://www.uiuc.edu/~sariel/papers/00/diameters/diam_prog.html.

