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Measuring the quality of maximin space-filling designs

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Abstract

We present here a new index for measuring the quality of maximin space-filling design for computer experiments. This index is based on a very accurate approximation of the distribution of the minimum distance for uniform designs. Expressions are explicitly given in terms of closed polynomial forms for any L_p distances, including L_2 , L_1 and L_∞ distances. When the size of the design or the dimension of the space is large, approximations through extreme value theory are exhibited. Some illustrations of our index are presented on simulated data and on a real problem.

Keywords : maximin, space-filling design, computer experiments, quality, extreme value theory.

AMS Classification: Primary 62K99

1 Introduction

Some of the major challenges for the automotive industry are the reduction of the greenhouse gas emissions, the fossil fuel dependency and the local pollution. In many cases, phenomenological models are not predictive enough, and these objectives rely on engine calibration which consists in determining experimentally the optimal set of parameters which satisfies some given requirements. Indeed, in order to get a usable description of the engine under study, automotive industrials launch experimental studies on test benches. Once the design is selected and the responses observed, the usual approach is to approximate the relation between the inputs and the output by means of a metamodel [Sacks et al. \[1989\]](#), which can then be viewed as the physical process (see [Santner et al. \[2003\]](#) and [Fang et al. \[2005\]](#) for designing, modeling and analyzing physical experiments). An application of these principles is done for instance in [Magand et al. \[2011\]](#) where the goal is to meet european Euro 5 emission regulations.

Since the physical model is unknown, the quality of the approximation obtained through the metamodel depends strongly on the points of simulations, which should spread points evenly throughout the experimental region to cover all the input space ([Johnson et al. \[1990\]](#)). This is called the *space-filling* property.

However, simple random sampling for small samples in high-dimensional regions often exhibits clustering and poorly covered areas, as remarked in [Fang et al. \[2005\]](#). In practice, LHD (namely Latin Hypercube Design) are very commonly performed because of their ease of use and since they guarantee that the points will be evenly spaced when projecting onto each factor separately in the experimental region. But LHD is not necessarily *space-filling*.

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Thus, additional criteria are necessary to select *good* space-filling. A review can be explored in [Pronzato and Müller \[2012\]](#). Two main kinds of criteria fit the purpose of improving the design. A first family is based on the distances between points, a design will be regarded as being of good quality if all points are far from each other. [Johnson et al. \[1990\]](#) have proposed two well known algorithms for distance based design:

- *maximin* distance: designs that maximize smallest distance between any two points in the design.
- *minimax* distance: designs that minimize the largest distance between any point in the experimental region and the design.

Another family of criteria, called *discrepancy* criteria, attempts to quantify the deviation from the uniform distribution. We refer for instance to [Niederreiter \[1987\]](#), [Hickernell \[1998\]](#) and [Fang et al. \[2005\]](#). A design will be considered of good quality if the empirical cumulative distribution function is close to the uniform cumulative distribution function, i.e. if its discrepancy is low.

The aim of this paper is to assess the quality of a design through the *maximin criterion*, since it is very commonly used in practice, through a normalized index of quality which will work whatever the dimension of the space (number of factors) and the size of the design (the number of points in the design). This will allow comparisons between several designs. The user will then be helped in his decision to keep the design or to generate a better one.

Though (L_2) euclidean distance remains by far the most used in practice, (L_1) Manhattan and (L_∞) Chebyshev distance and more generally (L_p) Minkowsky distance will also be considered. A first motivation comes from the form of the experimental domain that is often hypercubic and that does not correspond specifically to euclidian distance. Secondly, in the field of computer experiments, gaussian process model remains the first choice, and the covariance structure is directly linked to the distance choice. For example L_1 corresponds to Ornstein-Uhlenbeck covariance function. Finally, the covariance structure is rarely isotropic by rotation, it then gives a special role to the axes.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides some probabilistic characteristics of the distance between two random vectors drawn independently from the uniform distribution in the unit hypercube. It appears that this distribution can be expressed in most situations as closed polynomial form. Considering then that the distances of pairs among N points are almost independent, Section 3 state the associated approximation for the distribution of the minimum distance. Even based on some closed forms, these distributions become untractable when the dimension of the space or the size of design increases. Some approximations are developed in Section 4. Taking profit of all this theoretical material, we introduce in Section 5 a new index of the quality of a maximin space-filling design. This new measure is more instructive than a distance since, obtained from the probability measure of a particular event, it is normalized in some sense. Finally in Section 6 we illustrate the performance of the index as a measure of quality through a simulation study and on an example of space-filling design in engine calibration.

2 Distance of a pair

Let d be an integer larger or equal to one. Denote by H_d the d -dimensional hypercube $[0, 1]^d$. Consider $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_d)$ and $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_d)$ two independent random vectors in H_d . Both vectors have independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) margins from the standard uniform distribution on $[0, 1]$. Let us denote by $D_{2,p} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d |X_i - Y_i|^p}$ and $D_{\infty,d} = \max_{i=1,d} |X_i - Y_i|$ the Minkowsky and the Chebyshev distance. With $p = 1$ and $p = 2$ we obtain the Manhattan and the usual Euclidean distance respectively between \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} .

Denote by $G_{p,d}$ and $g_{p,d}$ the cumulative distribution function (c.d.f.) and the probability density function (p.d.f.) of the random variable $D_{p,d}$, for $p = 1, 2, \dots, \infty$. In dimension

$d = 1$, the distributions are all the same with p.d.f. $g_{p,1}(x) = (2 - 2x)\mathbf{1}_{[0,1]}(x)$ and c.d.f. $G_{p,1}(x) = (2x - x^2)\mathbf{1}_{[0,1]}(x) + \mathbf{1}_{]1,\infty]}(x)$.

The aim of the next proposition is to give exact expressions for $G_{p,1}(x)$ on $[0, 1]$, for $p = 1, 2, \dots, \infty$. Under the distance L_p and for general values of d , the whole support of the distribution is $[0, d^{1/p}]$. On the restricted interval $[0, 1]$, expression of $G_{p,d}(x)$ can be exhibited in polynomial form.

Proposition 2.1 (Under the distance L_p). *The c.d.f. $G_{p,d}$ of the distance between two points from the hypercube H_d with i.i.d. uniform margins is polynomial on $[0, 1]$ and satisfies the following properties.*

- In dimension $d \geq 2$, under the L_p distance and for $x \in [0, 1]$, it has the general expression

$$G_{p,d}(x) = \sum_{\ell=d}^{2d} a_{p,d}^{(\ell)} x^\ell$$

where

$$a_{p,d}^{(\ell)} = (-1)^{\ell-d} \binom{d}{\ell-d} \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)^d \frac{\Gamma(1/p)^{2d-\ell} \Gamma(2/p)^{\ell-d}}{\Gamma(\ell/p + 1)}.$$

- In dimension $d \geq 1$, under the L_∞ distance and for $x \in [0, 1]$,

$$G_{\infty,d}(x) = (2x - x^2)^d.$$

- In dimension $d = 1$ and for $x \in [0, 1]$, the distribution of the distance is independent of the type of distance considered with c.d.f. $G_{p,1}(x) = (2x - x^2)$.

- In dimension $d \geq 2$, under the L_1 distance and for $x \in [0, 1]$

$$a_{1,d}^{(\ell)} = (-1)^{\ell-d} \binom{d}{\ell-d} \frac{2^d}{\ell!}.$$

- In dimension $d \geq 2$, under the L_2 distance and for $x \in [0, 1]$

$$a_{2,d}^{(\ell)} = (-1)^{\ell-d} \binom{d}{\ell-d} \frac{\pi^{(2d-\ell)/2}}{\Gamma(\ell/2 + 1)}.$$

Proof. These formula can be checked by recurrence. We focus on the general formula, available for any positive value of p and any $x \in [0, 1]$. Easy calculus gives $G_{p,1}(x) = 2(x - x^2)$.

Denoting $f_{p,d}$ the p.d.f. of the random variable $D_{p,d}^p$, we have for $d = 1$

$$f_{p,1}(x) = \frac{2}{p} \left(x^{1/p-1} - x^{2/p-1} \right)$$

and one can use the recurrence rule for higher values of d

$$f_{p,d}(x) = \int_0^x f_{p,d-1}(u) f_{p,1}(x-u) du .$$

The p.d.f. of $D_{p,d}$ is deduced from $g_{p,d}(x) = px^{p-1} f_{p,d}(x^p)$ and the c.d.f. as a primitive.

The formula for $a_{p,d}^{(\ell)}$ is easily checked for $d = 2$ since

$$G_{p,2}(x) = \frac{2}{p} B\left(\frac{1}{p}, \frac{1}{p}\right) x^2 - \frac{8}{3p} B\left(\frac{2}{p}, \frac{1}{p}\right) x^3 + \frac{1}{p} B\left(\frac{2}{p}, \frac{2}{p}\right) x^4 .$$

Assuming the formula is true until $d - 1$, and applying the recurrence rule, we have to evaluate

$$f_{p,d}(x) = \sum_{\ell=d-1}^{2(d-1)} \frac{\ell}{p} a_{p,d-1}^{(\ell)} \int_0^x u^{\ell/p-1} f_{p,1}(x-u) du.$$

The primitive of the $u^{\ell/p-1} f_{p,1}(x-u)$ are the beta functions. Finally, we obtain

$$f_{p,d}(x) = \sum_{\ell=d-1}^{2(d-1)} \frac{2\ell}{p^2} a_{p,d-1}^{(\ell)} \left(x^{\frac{\ell+1}{p}-1} B\left(\frac{\ell}{p}, \frac{1}{p}\right) - x^{\frac{\ell+2}{p}-1} B\left(\frac{\ell}{p}, \frac{2}{p}\right) \right).$$

Using the relations $B(x, y) = \frac{\Gamma(x)\Gamma(y)}{\Gamma(x+y)}$ and $\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$ and after some simplifications, we get the expected expression for $a_{p,d}^{(\ell)}$.

Comments.

- The expressions of $G_{p,d}(x)$ are generally not polynomial when $x \geq 1$. When $p = 2$, expressions of $G_{p,d}(x)$ involve trigonometric functions, as can be seen in Philip [2007] and Philip [2010] who gives detailed expressions until $d = 4$.
- Under L_1 distance, x varies on $[0, d]$, and $G_{1,d}(x)$ is piecewise polynomial on every interval $[i-1, i]$ for all i in $[1, d]$. Expressions for these polynomials can be found by recurrence from their p.d.f.. In dimension 1, we have $g_{1,1}(x) = 2(1-x)$ for $x \in [0, 1]$. In dimension d and for $i \in \{2, \dots, d-1\}$

$$g_{1,d}(x) = \begin{cases} \int_0^x g_{1,d-1}(u) g_{1,1}(x-u) du, & \text{if } x \in [0, 1], \\ \int_{x-1}^{i-1} g_{1,d-1}(u) g_{1,1}(x-u) du + \int_{i-1}^x g_{1,d-1}(u) g_{1,1}(x-u) du, & \text{if } x \in [i-1, i], \\ \int_{x-1}^d g_{1,d-1}(u) g_{1,1}(x-u) du, & \text{if } x \in [d-1, d]. \end{cases}$$

Even if the detailed results of this convolution are not shown here, exact calculations can be done with any symbolic manipulation software. In fact, exact expressions can also be numerically obtained for any L_p distances and any dimension d .

- The first term $a_{p,d}^{(d)} x^d$ in $G_{p,d}(x)$ is exactly the volume of a hypersphere of radius x in dimension d .

3 Smallest distance between any pair from a design of N points

Let $\mathbf{X}^{(1)} = (X_1^{(1)}, \dots, X_d^{(1)})$, \dots , $\mathbf{X}^{(N)} = (X_1^{(N)}, \dots, X_d^{(N)})$ be independent random points in the hypercube H_d , such that any margins have uniform distribution on $[0, 1]$. The set of N points $\mathbf{X}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{X}^{(N)}$ will represent the experimental design in Section 5 and 6.

As already explained in the introduction, from the theoretical point of view, the variable of interest is the smallest distance between any pair from the design. It has the general expression

$$\Delta_{p,N,d} := \min_{\substack{1 \leq i, j \leq N \\ i \neq j}} D_{p,d}(\mathbf{X}^{(i)}, \mathbf{X}^{(j)}).$$

Denote by $H_{p,N,d}$ and $h_{p,N,d}$ the cumulative probability function (c.d.f.) and the probability density function (p.d.f.) of the random variable $\Delta_{p,N,d}$, for $p = 1, 2, \dots, \infty$.

The distances $D_{p,d}(\mathbf{X}^{(i)}, \mathbf{X}^{(j)})$ are clearly not independent since each point contributes to $N - 1$ normalized distances. However, one can check that the independence assumption yields

a good approximation when taking the minimum as soon as the value of N is not too small and the dimension $d \geq 2$, e.g. $N = 30$ points in dimension $d = 10$. In other words, one can observe that the smallest distance satisfies for N large enough

$$H_{p,N,d}(x) \simeq 1 - (1 - G_{p,d}(x))^{N(N-1)/2} . \quad (1)$$

Note that in dimension $d = 1$, it is well known from the theory of uniform spacing that $H_{p,N,1}(x) = 1 - (1 - (N-1)x)^N$ (see David [1980]).

The independence approximation is illustrated in Figure 1. The probability density function $h_{p,N,d}$ are obtained from simulation based on 1000 runs of the random variable $\Delta_{p,N,d}$ for the two distance L_1 (left panel) and L_2 (right). The approximations from Equation (1) are plotted in terms of density, corresponding to

$$h_{p,N,d}(x) \simeq \frac{N(N-1)}{2} g_{p,d}(x) (1 - G_{p,d}(x))^{N(N-1)/2-1} .$$

For large N , this approximation is very accurate for any value of d : the dotted curves match very closely the solid lines. This would also be the case for other distances. However when N is small, differences are large enough to be noticed.

4 Approximations from extreme value theory

As the dimension increases, highest degree of polynomials involved in the expressions of Proposition 2.1 increase as well, thus making their evaluation numerically difficult. Some approximations that may prove useful are provided for large number d of factors, or large design size N . These approximations both rely on the independence approximation. Note also that when the dimension of the input space augments, it is natural to increase the number N of points in the space-filling design as well.

4.1 Weibull approximation

Let us start by the approximation of the distribution of the distance of a pair, already discussed in Section 2.

Proposition 4.1. *As x tends to zero, $G_{p,d}(x) = c_{p,d}x^d + o(x^d)$ with $c_{2,d} = \frac{\pi^{d/2}}{\Gamma(d/2 + 1)}$, $c_{1,d} = \frac{2^d}{d!}$, $c_{\infty,d} = 2^d$, and more generally*

$$c_{p,d} = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)^d \frac{\Gamma(1/p)^d}{\Gamma(d/p + 1)} .$$

Combining the independence approximation (1) and the expansions of $G_{p,d}$ at the point 0 from Proposition 4.1 leads to

$$\begin{aligned} H_{p,N,d} \left(\frac{x}{\left(\frac{N(N-1)}{2}\right)^{1/d}} \right) &\simeq 1 - \left(1 - G_{p,d} \left(\frac{x}{\left(\frac{N(N-1)}{2}\right)^{1/d}} \right) \right)^{N(N-1)/2} \\ &\simeq 1 - \left(1 - c_{p,d} \frac{x^d}{\frac{N(N-1)}{2}} \right)^{N(N-1)/2} \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \exp(-c_{p,d}x^d) \right) \mathbf{1}_{x>0} . \end{aligned}$$

The limit is the well-known Weibull distribution with shape and scale parameters respectively equal to d and $c_{p,d}^{-1/d}$. Consequently, as soon as N is large enough

$$H_{p,N,d}(x) \simeq \left(1 - \exp \left(-c_{p,d} \frac{N(N-1)}{2} x^d \right) \right) \mathbf{1}_{x>0} . \quad (2)$$

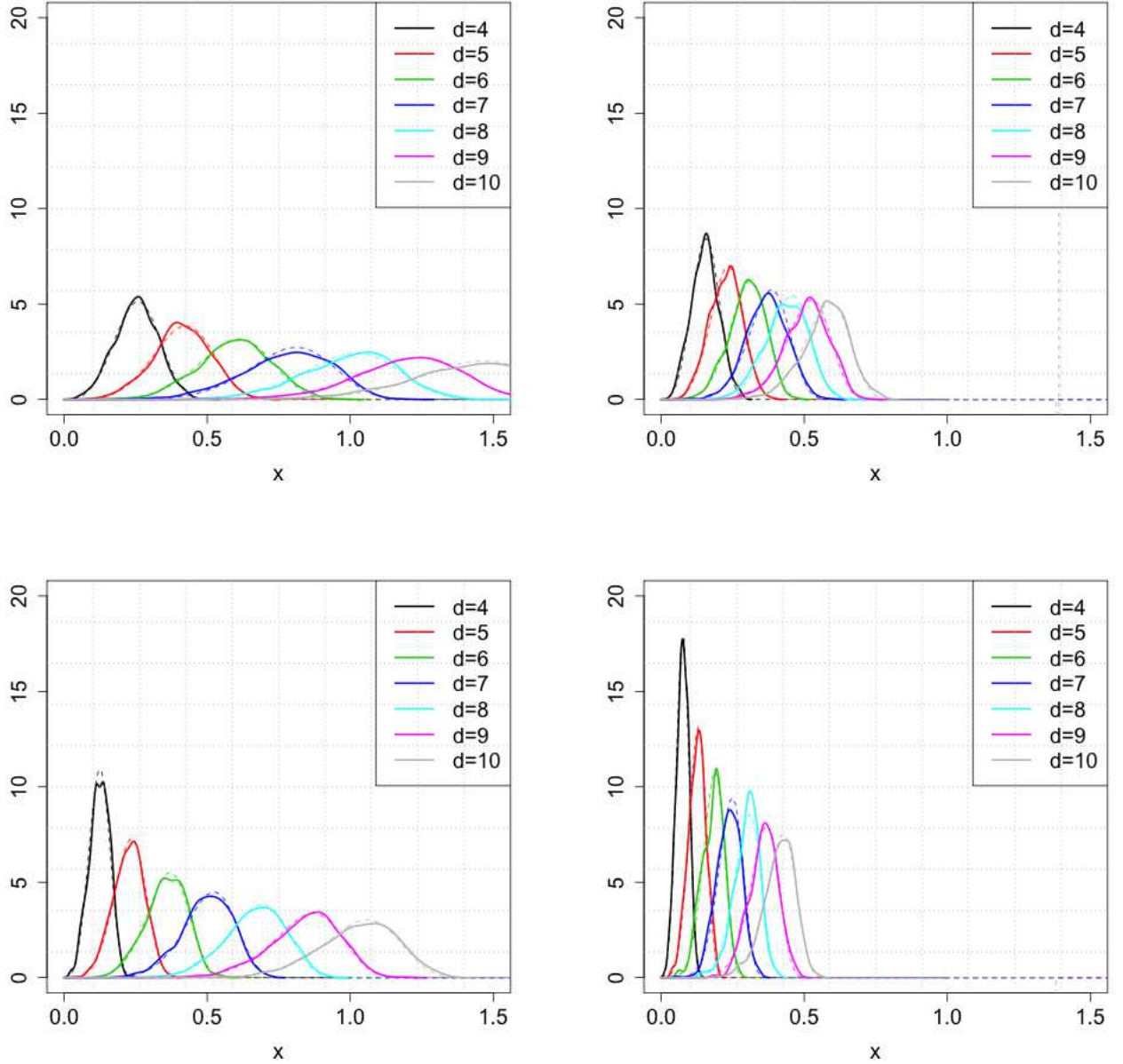


Figure 1: **Independence approximation.** Probability density function $h_{p,N,d}$ obtained from simulation (solid line) and its approximations from Equation (1) (dashed line). Distance L_1 (left) and distance L_2 (right). Number of points $N = 25$ (first line) and $N = 100$ (second line).

Figure 2 plots the density $h_{p,N,d}$ of the random variable $\Delta_{p,N,d}$ for $N = 100$ and $N = 1000$, with its approximation deduced from (2). Note that these approximations are more accurate for small values of x and large values of N . However, they remain a powerful tool since they only require the knowledge of one parameter, namely $c_{p,d}$, that is known for any values of d under the two distances under consideration.

4.2 Gumbel approximation

It is also possible to propose an approximation available when the dimension d becomes very large, and that is linked again to the extreme value distributions. We start by the application of the Central Limit Theorem on the distribution of a pair.

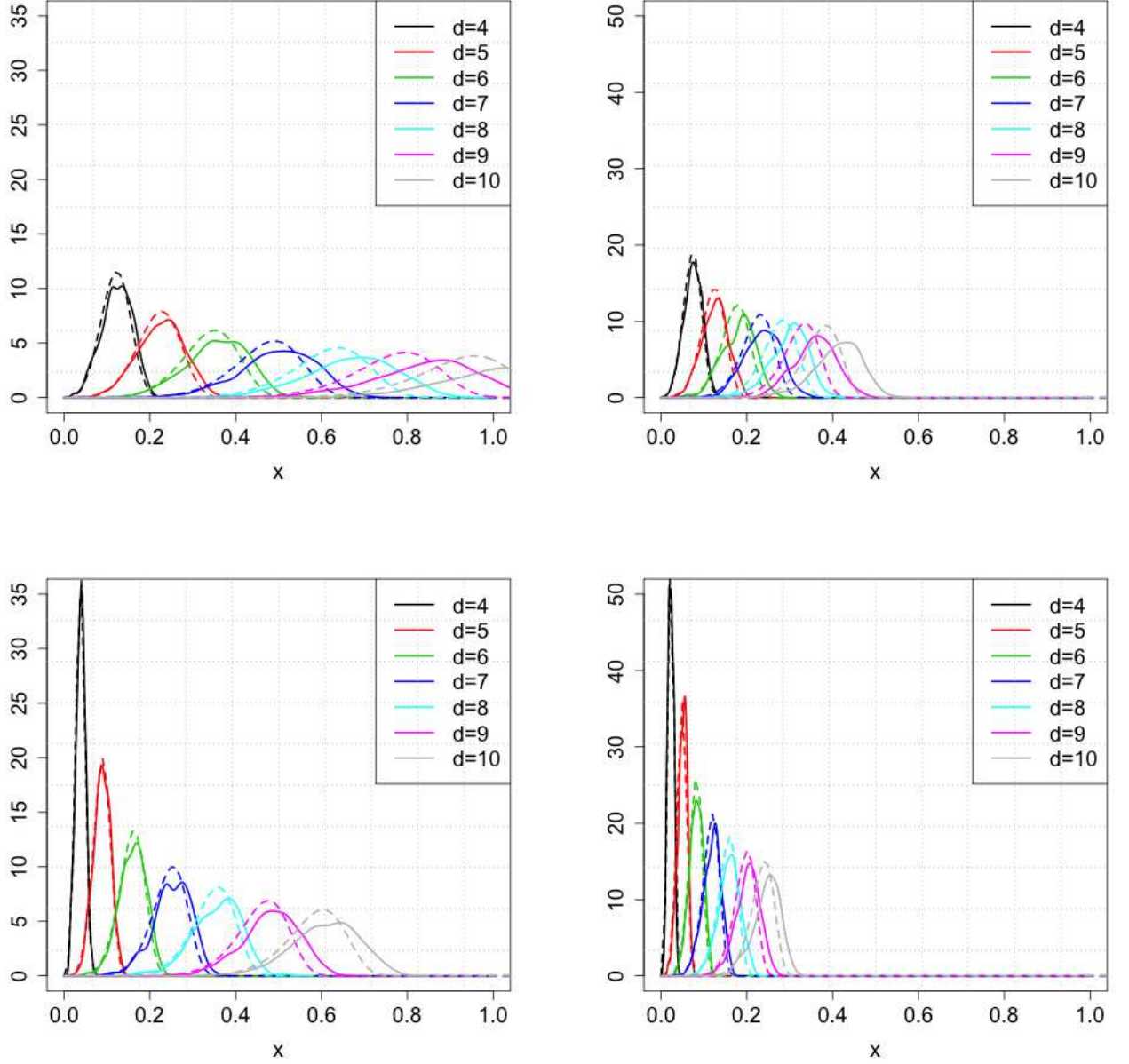


Figure 2: **Weibull approximation.** Probability density function $h_{p,N,d}$ obtained from simulation (solid line) and its approximations from Equation (2) (dashed line). Distance L_1 (left) and distance L_2 (right). Number of points $N = 100$ (first row) and $N = 1000$ (second row).

Proposition 4.2. Let Φ stands for the standard normal cumulative distribution function. From the application of the Central limit Theorem,

$$G_{1,d}(x) \sim_{d \rightarrow \infty} \Phi \left(\frac{x - d\mu_1}{\sqrt{d}\sigma_1} \right) \quad (3)$$

with $\mu_1 = 1/3$, $\sigma_1^2 = 1/18$ and

$$G_{2,d}(x) \sim_{d \rightarrow \infty} \Phi \left(\frac{\frac{x^2}{d} - \mu_2}{\sigma_2/\sqrt{d}} \right) \quad (4)$$

with $\mu_2 = 1/6$ and $\sigma_2^2 = 7/180$.

Figure 3 displays the performance of the Gaussian approximations (3) and (4). Note that the Central limit Theorem furnishes a more accurate expansion under the distance L_1 than under the distance L_2 . It is the main reason why we only present the Gumbel approximation under the distance L_1 .

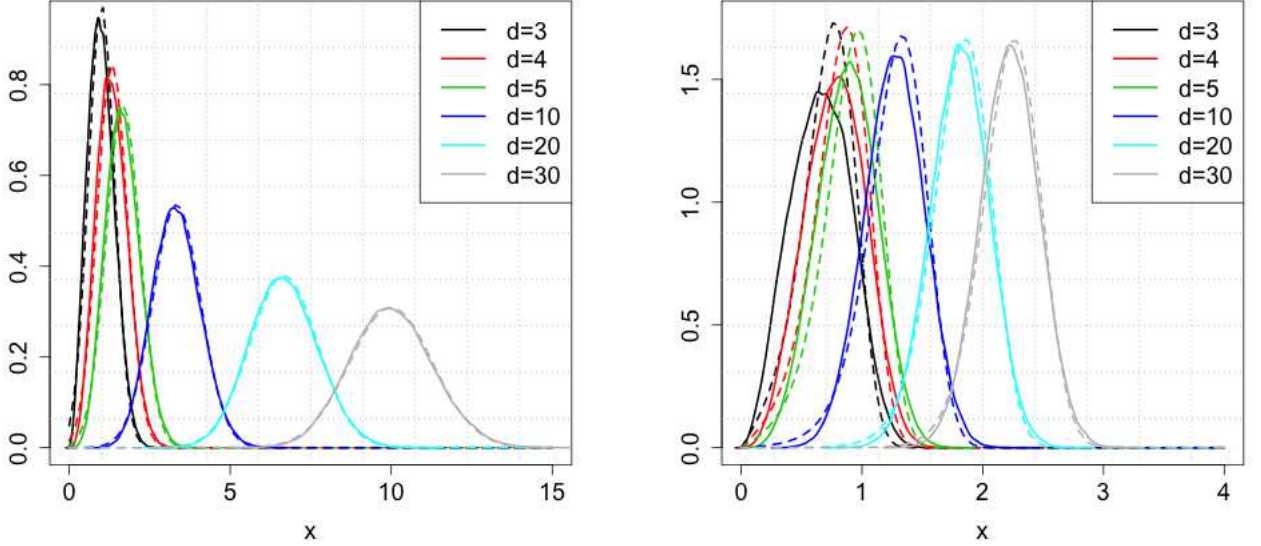


Figure 3: **TCL approximation.** Probability density function $g_{p,d}$ (solid line) and its approximations from the Central limit Theorem (dashed line). Distance L_1 (left) and distance L_2 (right).

First recall that if Z_1, \dots, Z_n are n independent and identically distributed random variables from the standard normal distribution, then $m_n = \min\{Z_1, \dots, Z_n\}$ satisfies

$$\mathbb{P}(a_n(m_n - b_n) \leq x) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 - \exp(-\exp(x))$$

for $a_n = (2 \log n)^{1/2}$ and $b_n = -a_n + \frac{\log \log n + \log(4\pi)}{a_n}$.

Recall now from Proposition 4.2 that for $\mu_1 = 1/3$ and $\sigma_1^2 = 1/18$ and under the Mahanttan distance

$$G_{1,d}(x) \sim_{d \rightarrow \infty} \Phi\left(\frac{x - d\mu_1}{\sqrt{d}\sigma_1}\right).$$

It follows that

$$H_{1,N,d}(x) \simeq \mathbb{P}\left(m_{\frac{N(N-1)}{2}} \leq \frac{x - d\mu_1}{\sqrt{d}\sigma_1}\right),$$

and consequently that

$$H_{1,N,d}(x) \simeq_{N,d \rightarrow \infty} 1 - \exp\left[-\exp\left\{a_{\frac{N(N-1)}{2}}\left(\frac{x - d\mu_1}{\sqrt{d}\sigma_1} - b_{\frac{N(N-1)}{2}}\right)\right\}\right]. \quad (5)$$

These approximations are illustrated on Figure 4. The expansion seems really informative for high values of d .

5 New measure for the quality of a design

Let $\mathbf{x} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$ be a deterministic experimental design in a d -dimensional space. Let us denote by $\delta_{\mathbf{x}} = \delta_{\mathbf{x}}(p, N, d)$ the smallest L_p distance between any pair from \mathbf{x} . Taking into account

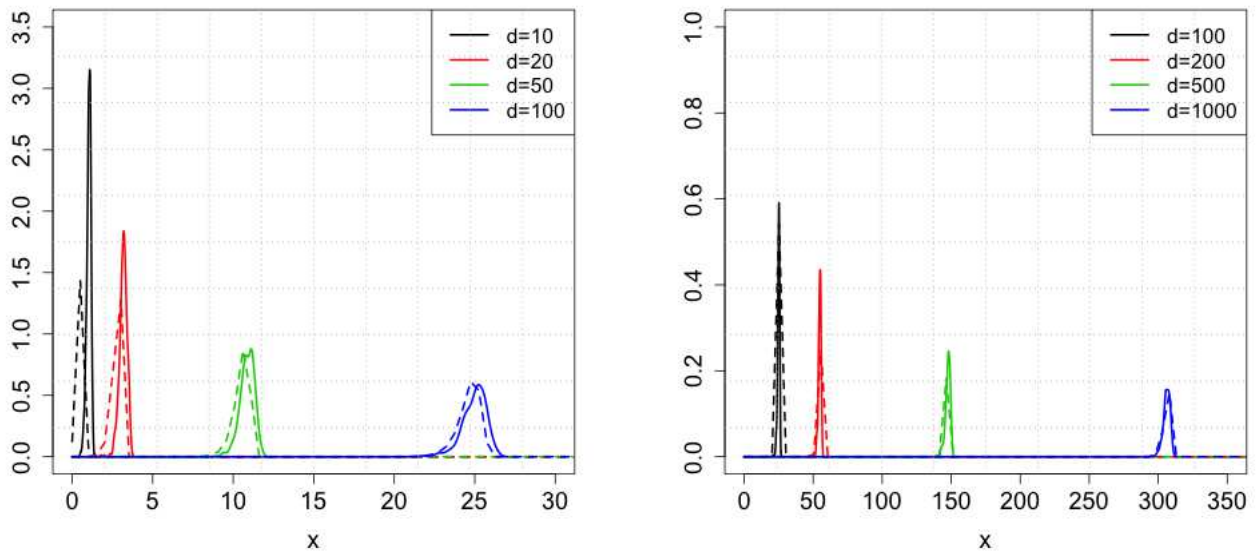


Figure 4: **Gumbel approximation.** Probability density function $h_{1,N,d}$ obtained from simulation (solid line) and its approximations from Equations (5) (dashed line). Distance L_1 only. Dimension $d \in \{10, 20, 50, 100\}$ (left) and $d \in \{100, 200, 500, 1000\}$ (right).

the motivation of space-filling methodology, the larger the value $\delta_{\mathbf{x}}$, the better the design. From what precedes, it is possible to define the following quantity $-\log_{10}(1 - H_{p,N,d}(\delta_{\mathbf{x}}))$ as a measure of the quality of the design.

Logarithmic expression is preferred since in many cases in maximin space-filling design $H_{p,N,d}(\delta_{\mathbf{x}})$ is very close to 1, while, for small values of $\delta_{\mathbf{x}}$, the index is still calculable, in the same way. Since the distribution $H_{p,N,d}$ is not completely known, we first use the independence approximation that has been illustrated in Section 3. Let us set the index as

$$\mathbb{I}_{p,N,d}(\mathbf{x}) := -\frac{N(N-1)}{2} \log_{10}(1 - G_{p,d}(\delta_{\mathbf{x}})) .$$

Note that this definition could be replaced by

$$\tilde{\mathbb{I}}_{p,N,d}(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{(\delta_{\mathbf{x}})^d N(N-1) c_{p,d}}{2 \ln(10)} ,$$

where $c_{p,d}$ is given in Proposition 4.1 when the size of the design N is large. This last expression comes directly from the main idea of the index and the expansions (2).

The maximin distance for a design is bounded (Van Dam et al. [2009]) and depends on both the number of points N and the dimension d . Moreover, this distance relies strongly on the type of design and the algorithm and is difficult to interpret, contrary to the proposed index, which is normalized in a certain way. Note however that the index depends on the type of distance used, so that indices for L_1 distance will not be equivalent to indices under L_2 or L_∞ .

Typical random sampling gives the curves displayed on Figure 5 where the dimension of the space varies between 2 and 10. As already noticed, the minimum distance increases with the dimension d . At the end of each curve, when the distance is sufficiently large, the c.d.f. is numerically equal to one, but the index remains calculable.

One could be interested by the behaviour of our index on more realistic designs. Indeed, the previous example was just based on the function *rand* in Matlab. The same exercise has been continued with the function *lhsdesign* from Matlab. In Matlab, *lhsdesign* outputs a latin

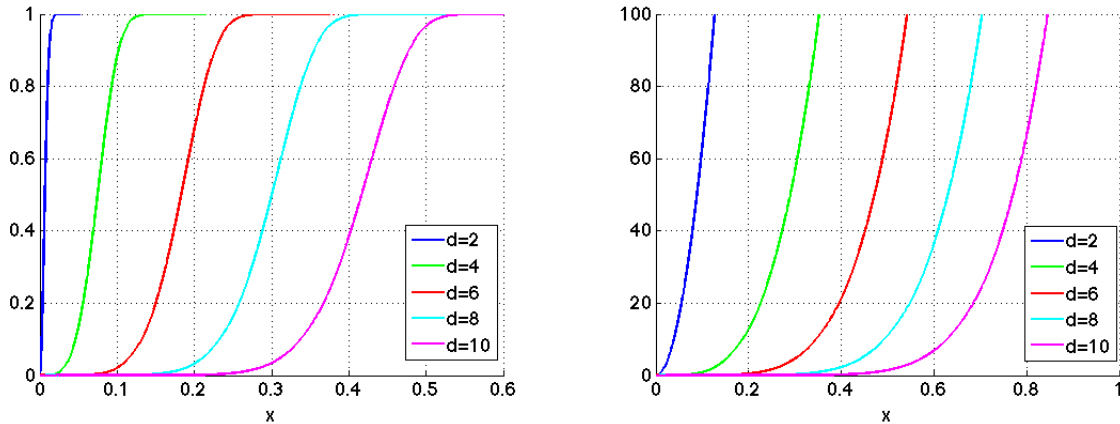


Figure 5: **Index representation under uniform designs.** Several c.d.f. $H_{2,100,d}$ (left panel) and corresponding index $I_{2,100,d}$ (right panel) for $N = 100$ points drawn uniformly in the unit hypercube when the dimension d varies from 2 to 10.

hypercube sample, chosen by default to maximize the minimum distance between the points of the design, by selecting the best response after a fixed number of iterations. *lhsdesign* is equivalent to *randomlhs* from the library *lhs* in R, both are based on the same algorithm and results are comparable.

However, special algorithms have been constructed, based on simulated annealing algorithm, to improve a first initial drawing, for instance *maximin-SA* in the package *DiceDesign* in R. In this case, the improvement clearly shows a big difference : for example, in dimension $d = 10$ and with a design containing $N = 100$ points, the mean minimum distance with *maximin-SA* is around 0.9074, which corresponds to an index of 166, while for *maximinlhs*, the mean minimum distance is around 0.4380 with an index of 0.4682. The results are presented in Figure 6 showing that the algorithm of the *maximin-SA* routine is much more efficient than *maximinlhs*. These observations are confirmed for other dimensions and numbers of points.

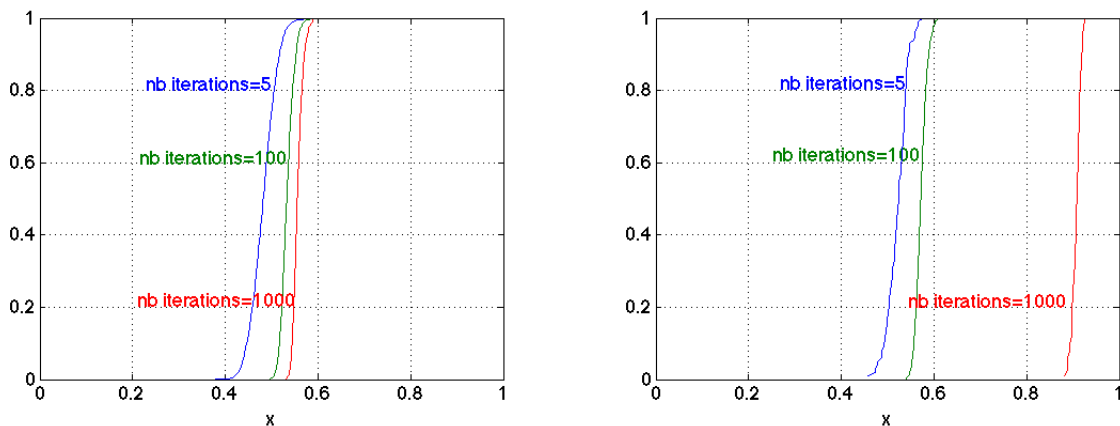


Figure 6: **Index representation under LHS.** On the left panel, 1000 runs of *lhsdesign* from Matlab have been performed and their minimum distances calculated with 5, 100 and 1000 iterations of the algorithm. The right panel is based on *maximin-SA* from *DiceDesign*.

Our new index is effective for design comparison whatever dimension and number of points. Moreover, since it is normalized, when considering a standalone design, our index gives an evaluation of the quality of the design without the need of interpreting distances.

6 Application

As already indicated in the introduction, we are motivated by a real example from automotive industry. Engine calibration consists in defining the optimal tuning of parameters used by engine control strategies, for example for achieving low consumption or low pollution. Due to the increasing number of these parameters, manual tuning of engine parameters is now replaced by mathematically assisted calibration process, that is based on design of experiments. The dimension of the input space for parameters is $d = 11$, among which we can find injection engine speed, load, air flow rate, injection parameters, as described in [Magand et al. \[2011\]](#). To avoid useless complications, all the parameters are supposed to vary between 0 and 1.

To prevent the engine from going in forbidden regions, some constraints (linear and non linear) have to be added, and the final experimental area is not any longer hypercubic. Design in constrained domains is still an active domain of research. [Stinstra et al. \[2003\]](#) and more recently [Auffray et al. \[2012\]](#) propose performing strategies in constrained regions based on simulated algorithm. [Petelet et al. \[2010\]](#) consider the case where linear constraints passing through the origin restrict the available domain.

Here we propose the following strategy to calculate the index. If we were calculating the volume of the constrained region by Monte-Carlo simulations, we would simply count the number N of points falling in the targeted region out of a total number of draws N_{tot} , and the volume would be $V = N/N_{tot}$. Conversely, N points uniformly drawn in the experimental area should correspond to N/V points in the unit hypercube where V is the volume of the constrained region. Then if $\delta_{\mathbf{x}}$ is the minimum distance obtained for the points in the experimental region, the probability that a random uniform design will have a minimum distance bigger than $\delta_{\mathbf{x}}$ in the unit hypercube is given by

$$P(\Delta_{p,N/V,d} > \delta_{\mathbf{x}}) = 1 - H_{p,N/V,d}(\delta_{\mathbf{x}}) = (1 - G_{p,d}(\delta_{\mathbf{x}}))^{\frac{N/V(N/V-1)}{2}}$$

where $G_{p,d}(x)$ is defined as in Section 3.

Under L_2 distance. Simulation of designs from the uniform distribution and selection of the points falling in the targeted region allows to estimate the volume of the constrained region around $V = 0.23$. With $N = 250$ points, the minimum L_2 distance between pairs of such design is around $\delta_{\mathbf{x}} = 0.33$, corresponding to an index of 1.06 calculated with an equivalent number equal to N/V points. As it is done in [Jin et al. \[2005\]](#) or [Petelet et al. \[2010\]](#), this first initial design can be improved by exchanging coordinates. After the application of this procedure, the minimum distance becomes $\delta_{\mathbf{x}} = 0.395$ and the index equals 6. As the cumulative distribution function is very stiff, this small change in the distance has an important impact on the index.

Under L_1 distance. The same calculations can be done with L_1 distances for maximin designed as in [Husslage \[2006\]](#). We find $\delta_{\mathbf{x}} = 0.52$ in the initial design and 0.98 after exchanging coordinates. These values correspond to an index of 0.006 for the initial design and 4 for the modified one. Note that these calculations are only indicative here, since maximin designs depend on the chosen distance.

Conclusion. In this paper, we propose a new index to measure the quality of space-filling designs, based on the probability distribution of the minimum distance of N points drawn uniformly in the unit hypercube of dimension d . This index depends on the chosen distance, the number of points and the dimension of the space. In most common situations, it can be very well approximated by polynomial form. When the number of points in the design is large or under high dimension, since formulas can become cumbersome to evaluate, we give some powerful approximations of the index.

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