

Kernel methods for uncertainty propagation and sensitivity analysis

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Foreword and acknowledgements

◆ Foreword

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About the French UQ community

◆ Main organizations and networks

- ❑ **GdR MASCOT-NUM** ↳ a French Research Group dealing with stochastic methods for the analysis of numerical codes
- ❑ **GIS LARTISSTE** ↳ a French Scientific Consortium about UQ @ Paris-Saclay
- ❑ **SINCLAIR AI Lab.** ↳ the Saclay INdustrial Collaborative Laboratory for Artificial Intelligence Research (SINCLAIR), gathering researchers from EDF, Thales and TotalEnergies
- ❑ **frENBIS** ↳ the French local network of the European Network for Business and Industrial Statistics (ENBIS)

◆ Main seminars and scientific events

- ❑ **UQSay seminars** ↳ series of seminars on the broad area of UQ, ML and related topics
- ❑ **ETICS Annual Research Schools** ↳ Thematic Research School on Uncertainty in Scientific Computing

Doing Research and Development @ EDF R&D

◆ Our research group

- ❑ Department ↳ “Performance, Industrial Risk, Monitoring for Maintenance and Operating” (~ 130 people)
- ❑ Group ↳ “Asset Management, Uncertainty Quantification and Statistical Learning” (~ 20 permanent researchers, 4 to 8 PhD students and Master students)



◆ The main tools we develop for UQ/ML

- ❑ OpenTURNS ↳ an open source library for UQ (Python / C++)
- ❑ Persalys ↳ a friendly GUI (open source) for performing UQ, data visualization, ...
- ❑ *sensitivity* ↳ R package for sensitivity analysis of model outputs
- ❑ *mistral* ↳ R package for structural reliability methods

Introduction

Industrial context and motivations

◆ A road trip through uncertainties!

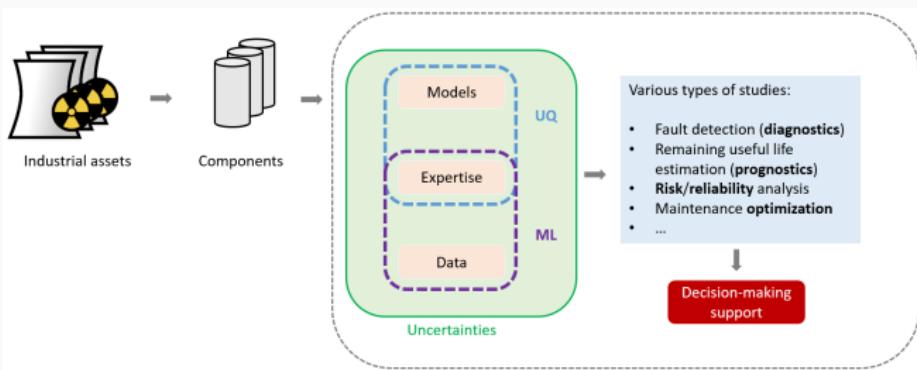


Figure 1: Dealing with uncertainties in an industrial process (©EDF).

☞ About UQ in industrial practice: [DRDT08, DR12]

Uncertainty Quantification in a nutshell!

◆ Verification, Validation & Uncertainty Quantification

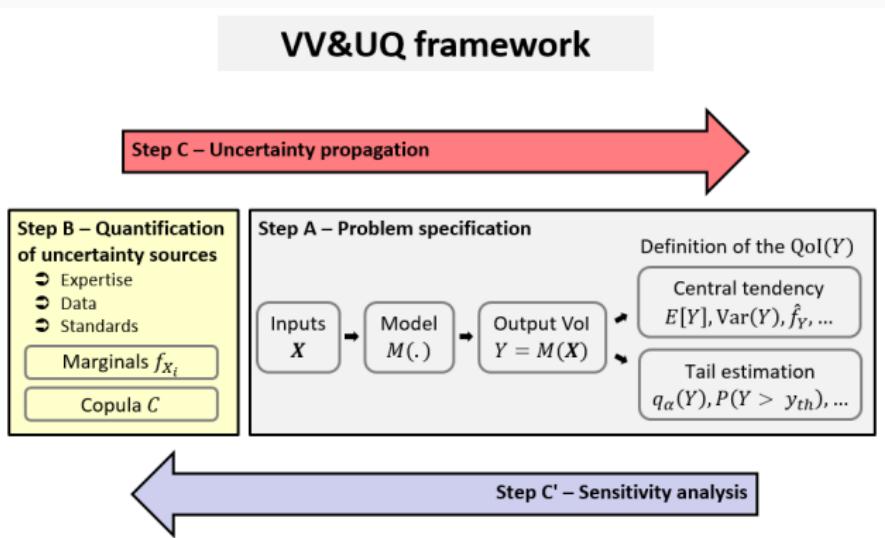


Figure 2: VV&UQ framework (©EDF).

- To go further into UQ in general: [Smi13, Sul15]
- To go further into Uncertainty Propagation: [MB15, DK22]
- To go further into Surrogate Modeling: [Bou18]
- To go further into SA: [SRA⁺08, DGIP21]

Supervised Machine Learning in a nutshell!

◆ Supervised Machine Learning ... (not that much different from UQ)

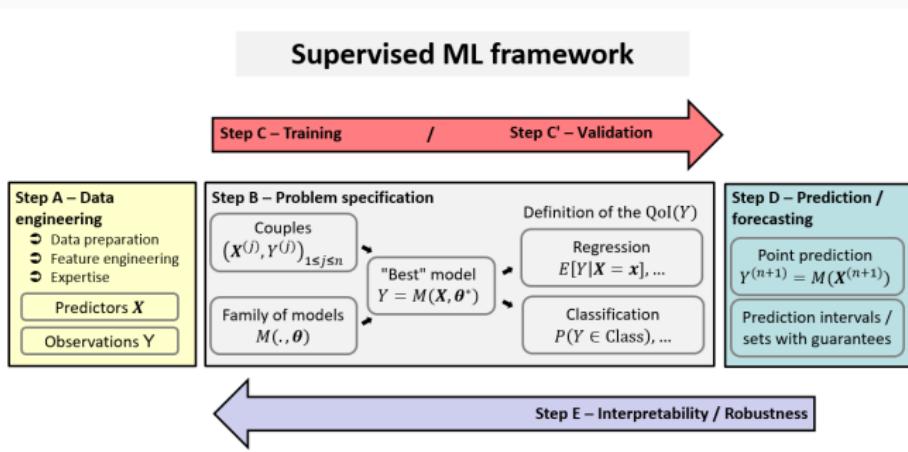


Figure 3: Supervised ML (©EDF).

- To further into ML in general: [Bis06, HTF09]
- To go further into the links between SQ (UQ) and Interpretability/Explainability (ML): [Mol22, ICT22]

Main objectives of this course

◆ What about the possible links between UQ and ML?

- Historically, people thought UQ and ML were two distinct disciplines:
 - UQ \Rightarrow dedicated to computer experiments, based on physical / numerical models
 - ML \Rightarrow dedicated to real data, no model available
- Recently (> 2008-2009), people tend to see more and more similarities between UQ and ML, e.g., in the fields of:
 - surrogate modeling \equiv supervised statistical learning
 - global sensitivity analysis \equiv explainability/interpretability
 - ...
- Even more recently (> 2015), people try more to adopt “hybrid approaches” by combining them!

Kernel methods

Kernel methods are one of the cornerstones between these two disciplines.

Main objectives of this course

◆ With this course, you probably will ...

- ✓ Have an overview about “why kernels are so popular?”
- ✓ Have a first glimpse about the mathematical foundations of these methods
- ✓ Have access to a panel of references to go further into some topics
- ✓ A good opportunity for discovering (only a few) kernel methods and to **use them for real!**
- ✓ Discover the (great) **OpenTURNS software!**

◆ With this course, you probably won't ...

- ✗ Be an expert in kernel methods
- ✗ Be able to solve all your complicated problems with kernel methods

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- 4. Kernel-based sensitivity analysis**

2. Mathematical background

Why should we play with “kernels”?

◆ A few motivations

- ❑ Imagine you have this 1D dataset with two different labels • and •



Figure 4: A 1D dataset (source: [Sut22]).

- You want to do some “ML stuff” in order to have a **good classification model!**
 - Assume a linear model: $f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ such that $\hat{y}(x) = \text{sign}(f(x))$
 - What do you typically obtain?

Why should we play with “kernels”?

- ◆ A few motivations (cont'd)



Figure 5: 1D dataset : a first classification model (source: [Sut22]).

- OK! That's clearly not a good model!
- Let's extend x such that:

$$f(x) = \beta^\top (1, x, x^2) = \beta^\top \psi(\mathbf{x})$$

- What do we obtain?

Why should we play with “kernels”?

◆ A few motivations (cont'd)

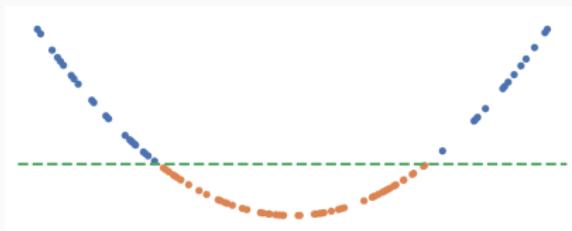


Figure 6: 1D dataset : a second classification model (source: [Sut22]).

- ❑ OK! The model does the job!
- ❑ **Kernels** are tools that enable to do this job with any (potentially) very complicated $\psi(\cdot)$ functions
- ❑ Kernels are used in modern (supervised and unsupervised) ML in order to treat very complicated data with, e.g., time series, images, graphs, text, videos, ...
- ❑ $\psi(\cdot)$ will leave in a specific mathematical space called a **reproducing kernel Hilbert space**

Which “kernels” are we talking about?

◆ The word “kernel” is widely used and can be misunderstood

- The concept treated in this course: “positive definite kernel”, “RKHS kernel”, (“Mercer kernel”)
- A semi-related concept: “kernel density estimation” or “kernel smoothing” (nonparametric statistics)
- Unrelated notions¹:
 - The kernel (null space) of a linear map (linear algebra)
 - The kernel of a convolution (image processing)
 - CUDA and Linux kernels
 - Popcorn kernels

¹This brilliant list is directly borrowed from the wonderful course given by Danica J. Sutherland, available here: <https://github.com/djsutherland/etics-kernels-22>.

Kernels: definition, properties and links to RKHSs

◆ What is a kernel? A first definition!

- Let \mathcal{Z} be a space of interest, e.g., such that $\mathcal{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$
- A function $K: \mathcal{Z} \times \mathcal{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be a **kernel** if it is **symmetric** and **positive definite** (pd):
 - **Symmetry:** $\forall z, z' \in \mathcal{Z}, K(z, z') = K(z', z)$
 - **Positive definiteness**²:

$$\forall n \geq 1, \forall z_1, \dots, z_n \in \mathcal{Z}, \forall c_1, \dots, c_n \in \mathbb{R}, \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n c_i c_j K(z_i, z_j) \geq 0$$

- Equivalently, the kernel function can be written following a “matrix viewpoint”:

$$\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{K}_n \mathbf{c} \geq 0 \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{K}_n := [K(z_i, z_j)]_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{c} := [c_i]_{1 \leq i \leq n}$$

- The matrix \mathbf{K}_n is usually called the **Gram matrix** (or **kernel matrix**)

²⚠ K is pd \Leftrightarrow all Gram matrices from K are positive semi-definite (psd).

A detour through Hilbert spaces

◆ What is an Hilbert space \mathcal{H} ?

- A **complete** (real or complex) **inner product space**
- **Inner product space** \Leftrightarrow a vector space with an **inner product**:

➤ **Linearity:** $\forall h_1, h_2, h_3 \in \mathcal{H}, \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}, \langle ah_1 + bh_2, h_3 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$

➤ **Symmetry:** $\forall h_1, h_2 \in \mathcal{H}, \langle h_1, h_2 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \langle h_2, h_1 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$

➤ **Positive definiteness:**

$$\forall h \in \mathcal{H}, \langle h, h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \geq 0 \text{ and } \langle h, h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = 0 \Rightarrow h = 0$$

- This inner product induces a **norm** on $\mathcal{H}:$ $\|h\|_{\mathcal{H}} := \sqrt{\langle h, h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}}$
- **Completeness** \Leftrightarrow “well-behaved” (i.e., any Cauchy sequence in \mathcal{H} converges and has a limit in \mathcal{H})

◆ Examples of well-known (and applications of) Hilbert spaces:

- Lebesgue spaces, Sobolev spaces, ...
- Applications in Quantum Physics, Signal Processing, Probability & Statistics, ML, Computational Engineering, ...

A detour through Hilbert spaces

◆ Do you have a map? Because I'm lost ...

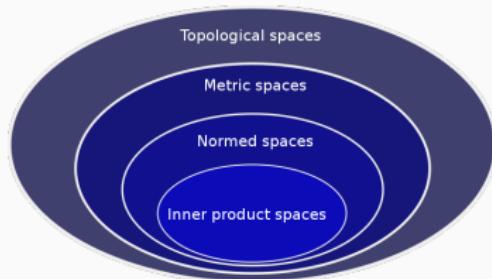


Figure 7: Hierarchy of mathematical spaces (source: Wikipedia).

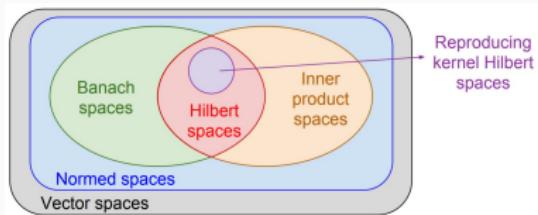


Figure 8: A more refined Venn diagram of mathematical spaces (source: <https://ngilshie.github.io>).

Focus in this talk

A special class of spaces will be of interest in this course:
the so-called “reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces” (RKHSs)

Kernels: definition and first properties

◆ Kernel: an inner product between feature maps

- One considers a set of interest \mathcal{Z} (e.g., \mathbb{R}^d , functions, distributions of graphs / images, ...)
- $K : \mathcal{Z} \times \mathcal{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a **kernel** on \mathcal{Z} if there exists a Hilbert space \mathcal{G} and a **feature map** $\psi : \mathcal{Z} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ so that:

$$\forall z, z' \in \mathcal{Z}, K(z, z') = \langle \psi(z), \psi(z') \rangle_{\mathcal{G}} \quad (1)$$

- Vocabulary:

- ψ is called a **feature map**
- \mathcal{G} is called a **feature space**
- $\psi(z)$ with $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ are the **feature functions** (or **features**)

◆ A few first properties

- $\forall K, \exists \psi$ such that Eq. (1) holds, but ψ can be implicit
- $\forall \psi : \mathcal{Z} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ (with \mathcal{G} an HS), the function K given by Eq. (1) is always a kernel

Kernels: definition and first properties

◆ Kernel and feature map: the “hidden mechanism”

- Kernel K and feature map ψ are intimately related to each other
- The feature map ψ offers an alternative viewpoint on the kernel K
- Given two points z and z' living in an Euclidean space \mathcal{Z} , evaluating K leads to:
 - creating two feature functions $\psi(z), \psi(z')$ in a (possibly very sophisticated) feature space \mathcal{G}
 - comparing them using the existing metric in \mathcal{G}
- When \mathcal{G} is infinite-dimensional \Rightarrow a much richer and subtle information is captured in \mathcal{G} than in \mathcal{Z}
- The “kernel trick”:
 - mathematically speaking \Rightarrow comparing $\psi(z)$ and $\psi(z')$ captures a rich information
 - numerically speaking \Rightarrow comparing $\psi(z)$ and $\psi(z')$ **only requires to compute** $K(z, z')$

Back to spaces: the “reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces”

◆ What is a “reproducing kernel Hilbert space” (RKHS)?

- Some basic ingredients first: let $(\mathcal{H}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}, \|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{H}})$ be a Hilbert space (with inner product and associated norm) of functions mapping from some nonempty set \mathcal{Z} to $\mathbb{R} \Leftrightarrow$ denoted by $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{Z}}$
- A first (desirable) property: if two functions $f \in \mathcal{H}$ and $g \in \mathcal{H}$ are close in the norm of \mathcal{H} , then, $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ are close for all $z \in \mathcal{Z}$
- Evaluation functional:

$$L_z : \begin{array}{rcl} \mathcal{H} & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{R} \\ h & \longmapsto & L_z[h] = h(z) \end{array}$$

- All those functionals are actually **linear forms**

★ Definition (RKHS)

\mathcal{H} RKHS if all the evaluation functionals (i.e., $\forall z \in \mathcal{Z}$) are bounded, i.e.,
 $\forall z \in \mathcal{Z}, \exists C_z > 0$ such that $|h(z)| \leq C_z \|h\|_{\mathcal{H}}$.

☞ To go further: [SG15] and [PR16, Ch. 1, p. 4]

Back to spaces: the “reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces”

◆ What is a “reproducing kernel Hilbert space” (RKHS)?

□ Consequences:

- ◊ functions in the RKHS are “smooth” in the sense of the previous definition
- ◊ RKHSs are particularly “well-behaved” spaces (relative to other Hilbert spaces)

★ Corollary (norm convergence in $\mathcal{H} \Rightarrow$ pointwise convergence)

If two functions converge in RKHS norm, then they converge pointwise, i.e., if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|h_n - h\|_{\mathcal{H}} = 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} h_n(z) = h(z), \forall z \in \mathcal{Z}$.

☞ To go further: [BTA04, Ch. 1, p. 10]

Reproducing kernel and feature maps

◆ What about the “reproducing property”?

- Riesz representation theorem: one applies it to all evaluation functionals (bounded linear operators)

$$\forall z \in \mathcal{Z}, \exists! \kappa_z \in \mathcal{H}, \text{ such that } \forall h \in \mathcal{H}, L_z[h] = \langle h, \kappa_z \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$

⇒ ! this theorem ensures that, $\forall z \in \mathcal{Z}$, we can find a **unique** element in \mathcal{H} that is a **representer** of the evaluation $h(z)$

- Point evaluation property: equipped with this representer, one has:

$$\forall z, z' \in \mathcal{Z}, K(z, z') := \langle \kappa_{z'}, \kappa_z \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \kappa_z(z') = \kappa_{z'}(z)$$

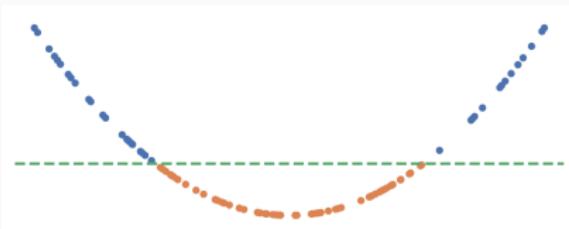
- Reproducing property: bringing what precedes together leads to:

$$\boxed{\forall h \in \mathcal{H}, \forall z \in \mathcal{Z}, h(z) = \langle h, K(\cdot, z) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}}$$

⇒ ! K is the only kernel (**reproducing kernel**) that verifies this property!

Reproducing kernel and feature maps

- ◆ Illustration of the reproducing property: back to the initial motivating example



- Recall that: $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$ and $\psi(x) = (1, x, x^2) \in \mathbb{R}^3$
- Kernel is given by: $K(x, y) = \langle \psi(x), \psi(y) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = 1 + xy + x^2y^2$
- Classifier based on a linear function f such that: $f(x) = \langle \beta, \psi(x) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$
 - with $f(\cdot)$ the function itself (which corresponds to the vector $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^3$)
 - $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$ which is the function evaluated at a point x
- Reproducing property: $f(x) = \langle f(\cdot), \psi(x) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ for $f \in \mathcal{H}$

Reproducing kernel and feature maps

◆ The canonical feature map

- We just saw (reproducing property):

$$\forall h \in \mathcal{H}, \forall z \in \mathcal{Z}, h(z) = \langle h, K(\cdot, z) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$

- Canonical feature map:

$$\forall z, z' \in \mathcal{Z}, K(z, z') = \langle \theta(z'), \theta(z) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$

- ◊ $\theta(z) := \kappa_z$ is called the **canonical feature map**
- ◊ the associated RKHS is precisely the feature space \mathcal{H}
- **⚠ This canonical feature map may be (often) not very instructive for several reasons** (not discussed here, unless questions ...)
- ◊ OK! Never mind! Luckily, \exists many other feature maps and associated feature spaces (with very \neq mathematical natures)
- ◊ **⚠ There's no common rationale to establish / extract feature maps that are easy to understand!**

Reproducing kernel and feature maps

◆ Kernel and feature maps: what do they look like?

The dot-product (a.k.a. linear) kernel ↗ [SMDVC23]

□ Kernel:

$$K_{\text{lin}} : \begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{R}^2 & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{R} \\ (z, z') & \longmapsto & K_{\text{lin}}(z, z') = zz' \end{array}$$

□ Feature map: ! It is nonunique!

$$\begin{aligned} \forall z, z' \in \mathbb{R}, K_{\text{lin}}(z, z') &= \langle \psi_1(z'), \psi_1(z) \rangle_{\mathbb{R}} \text{ with } \psi_1(z) := z \\ &= \langle \psi_2(z'), \psi_2(z) \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^2} \text{ with } \psi_2(z) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}[z, z]^\top \\ &= \langle \psi_d(z'), \psi_d(z) \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^d} \text{ with } \psi_d(z) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}[z, \dots, z]^\top \end{aligned}$$

□ Interpretation: $\mathbb{R} \neq$ feature spaces ($\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^d$) but 3 feature maps that convey similar information ↗ here, meaningless!

Reproducing kernel and feature maps

The polynomial kernel [SMDVC23]

□ Kernel: $K_{\text{poly}} : \begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{R}^2 & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{R} \\ (z, z') & \longmapsto & K_{\text{poly}}(z, z') = (zz' + c)^m \end{array}$ with $c \in \mathbb{R}_+$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}^*$

Using binomial theorem, one has:

$$\begin{aligned} K_{\text{poly}}(z, z') &= \sum_{k=0}^m \binom{m}{k} (xx')^k c^{m-k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^m \left(\sqrt{\binom{m}{k}} (\sqrt{c})^{m-k} x^k \right) \left(\sqrt{\binom{m}{k}} (\sqrt{c})^{m-k} (x')^k \right) \end{aligned}$$

□ Feature map: $K_{\text{poly}}(z, z') = \langle \psi_{\text{poly}}(z'), \psi_{\text{poly}}(z) \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^{m+1}}$

$$\text{with } \psi_{\text{poly}} : \begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{R} & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{R}^{m+1} \\ z & \longmapsto & \left[\sqrt{\binom{m}{k}} (\sqrt{c})^{m-k} x^k \right]_{0 \leq k \leq m} \end{array}$$

□ Interpretation: $\psi_{\text{poly}} \Leftrightarrow m+1$ polynomial features with increasing degrees

Reproducing kernel and feature maps

◆ Techniques for constructing new kernels

- Kernels are like “building blocks” \Rightarrow they can be combined in order to make new kernels!
- Building valid kernels:
 - Scaling: if $\alpha \geq 0$, $K_\alpha(z, z') := \alpha K(z, z')$ is a kernel
 - Sum: $K_+(z, z') = K_1(z, z') + K_2(z, z')$ is a kernel
 - Limit: if $K_\infty(z, z') = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} K_m(z, z')$ exists, then K_∞ is a kernel
 - Product: $K_\times(z, z') = K_1(z, z')K_2(z, z')$ is a kernel
 - Power: $K_p(z, z') = K(z, z')^p$ is a kernel for any $p \geq 0$
 - Exponential: $K_{\text{exp}}(z, z') = \exp [K(z, z')]$ is a kernel
 - Sandwhich: if $f: \mathcal{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $K_f(z, z') = f(z)K(z, z')f(z')$ is a kernel
 - ...
- But  expliciting the feature map can be very difficult!

📎 Exercise

Starting from a very simple kernel, try to rebuild the Gaussian one!

Links between kernels and RKHSs

◆ One-to-one mapping between kernels and RKHS

□ Let's quickly recap:

- a **unique** reproducing kernel can be extracted from any given RKHS
- any given kernel K verifies the reproducing property for **one and only one** RKHS

★★ Theorem (shortened version of “Moore-Aronszajn”)

For every pd function $K(\cdot, \cdot)$ on $\mathcal{Z} \times \mathcal{Z}$, there exists a unique RKHS with K as its reproducing kernel. Conversely, the reproducing kernel of an RKHS is unique and pd.

☞ To go further: [Aro50], [MFSS17, Ch. 2, Th. 2.5, p. 24] and [BTA04, Ch. 1, Th. 3, p. 19]

★★ Take-home message #1 ★★

❖ To keep in mind ❖

- ❑ We saw 4 main mathematical objects: a kernel K , a feature space \mathcal{H} (RKHS), feature maps ($\psi(\cdot)$) and features ($\psi(z)$)
- ❑ If K is a (reproducing) kernel, there **always** exists a RKHS \mathcal{G} and a function $\psi : \mathcal{Z} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ such that:

$$\forall z, z' \in \mathcal{Z}, K(z, z') = \langle \psi(z), \psi(z') \rangle_{\mathcal{G}}$$

- ❑ Kernel \equiv inner product between feature maps in a RKHS
- ❑ The feature map is not unique! The canonical one is, often, not really informative!
- ❑ Expliciting the feature map (when possible) enables to clearly understand what is “captured” by the feature functions!

Kernel mean embedding of distributions

◆ Kernel mean embedding: a first intuition

- Roughly speaking, kernels can be used to define a sort of “(dis)similarity” between two objects (points, distributions, ...)
 - ⇒ Kernels are used to **compare** two elements!
 - ⇒ Usually, in UQ, we do not deal with two points, but with **probability distributions**
- Represent a point $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ as $K(\cdot, z)$: $h(z) = \langle h, K(\cdot, z) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$
- How to represent a distribution ν in this framework?
 - ⇒ **Core idea:** to map distributions into a RKHS using a reproducing kernel!

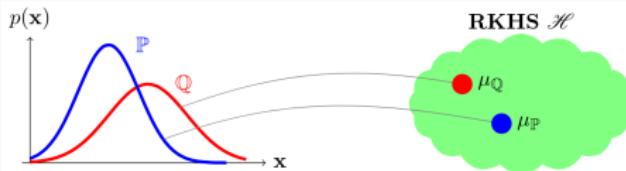


Figure 9: Embedding of two marginal distributions (source: [MFSS17]).

Kernel mean embedding of distributions

◆ Kernel mean embedding (cont'd)

- ⚠ I skip deliberately many details, but, only assume that:
 - \mathcal{Z} is always the space of our objects of interest (our **data**)
 - ν is a probability measure with support in \mathcal{Z} ($Z \sim \nu$)
 - $\mathcal{M}_1^+(\mathcal{Z})$ is the space of all Radon probability measures ($\nu \in \mathcal{M}_1^+(\mathcal{Z})$)
- Represent a distribution ν :
 - Consider the linear form $L_\nu : h \in \mathcal{H} \mapsto \mathbb{E}_\nu [h(Z)]$
 - ▷ for any $h \in \mathcal{H}$, L_ν computes the mean value wrt. ν
 - ... boundedness of the evaluation functional + Riesz representation theorem:
$$\exists! \mu_\nu \in \mathcal{H}, \text{ such that } \forall h \in \mathcal{H}, L_\nu[h] = \langle h, \mu_\nu \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$
- All this process ensures that: **the initial probability measure ν admits a unique image μ_ν in the RKHS**
- Kernel mean embedding of ν :
 - ▷ defined as the Riesz representation of L_ν

Kernel mean embedding of distributions

- ◆ An illustration: kernel mean embedding of two probability distributions

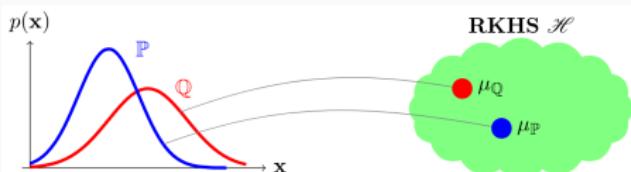


Figure 10: Embedding of two marginal distributions (source: [MFSS17]).

- (Recall) Represent a point $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ as $K(\cdot, z)$: $h(z) = \langle h, K(\cdot, z) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$
- Now, suppose one has $X \sim \mathbb{P}$ and $Y \sim \mathbb{Q}$
- Represent a distribution \mathbb{P} as $\mu_{\mathbb{P}}$: $\mathbb{E}_{X \sim \mathbb{P}} [h(X)] = \langle h, \mu_{\mathbb{P}} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$
 - ⇒ $\mathbb{E}_{X \sim \mathbb{P}} [h(X)] = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \mathbb{P}} [\langle h, K(\cdot, X) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}] = \langle h, \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \mathbb{P}} [K(\cdot, X)] \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$
(+ assumption that $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}} \left[\sqrt{K(X, X)} \right] < \infty$)
- Thus, one has:

$$\langle \mu_{\mathbb{P}}, \mu_{\mathbb{Q}} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \mathbb{P}, Y \sim \mathbb{Q}} [K(X, Y)]$$

- Okay! Why do we do that? ⇒ **Comparing distributions!**

Maximum Mean Discrepancy

◆ Comparing two probability distributions

- Several metrics exist to compare two (or more) probability distributions (metrics, divergences, ...)
- Among this large panel of distances / divergences / metrics, one is of particular interest:
 - ▷ the **Maximum Mean Discrepancy (MMD)**
- A first expression:

$$\text{MMD} : \begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{M}_1^+(\mathcal{Z}) \times \mathcal{M}_1^+(\mathcal{Z}) & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{R}_+ \\ (\nu_1, \nu_2) & \longmapsto & \|\mu_{\nu_1} - \mu_{\nu_2}\|_{\mathcal{H}} \end{array} \quad (2)$$

- A second (more useful) expression:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{MMD}^2(\nu_1, \nu_2) = & \mathbb{E}_{\nu_1 \otimes \nu_1} [K(Z, Z')] + \mathbb{E}_{\nu_2 \otimes \nu_2} [K(Z, Z')] \\ & - 2\mathbb{E}_{\nu_1 \otimes \nu_2} [K(Z, Z')] \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Maximum Mean Discrepancy

◆ Properties of the MMD

- MMD is a very useful tool in UQ and ML due to its interesting properties
- In short:
 - If K is a **characteristic**³ kernel, then the mapping $\nu \mapsto \mu_\nu$ is **injective**, and thus the MMD is a **distance** on $\mathcal{M}_1^+(\mathcal{Z})$
 - ▷ It gives us:

$$\text{MMD}(\nu_1, \nu_2) = 0 \implies \nu_1 = \nu_2 \quad (4)$$

- Can be estimated using only samples and evaluating kernels (i.e., through Gram matrices)

³Not discussed in this course.

★★ Take-home message #2 ★★

💡 To keep in mind 💡

- ❑ We saw the mechanism of “kernel mean embedding”
- ❑ We can apply it to many types of data (points, distributions, ...)
- ❑ Such a tool is useful to compare, e.g., two probability distributions!
- ❑ To do so, a relevant metric exists: the **MMD**
- ❑ It has nice properties, among others:
 - being easy to estimate (because of the “kernel trick”)
 - ▷ only expectations of kernels!
 - if K is **characteristic**, one has the nice property:

$$\text{MMD}(\nu_1, \nu_2) = 0 \implies \nu_1 = \nu_2$$

3. Kernel-based uncertainty propagation

Uncertainty propagation: a generic problem

- ◆ Goal: propagate the random vector \mathbf{X} through the function g

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \mathbb{E}[g(\mathbf{X})] = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} g(\mathbf{x}) f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} g(\mathbf{x}) d\mu(\mathbf{x}) \quad (5)$$

- This equation can be written in terms of probability density function $f_{\mathbf{x}}$ or probability measure μ
- The integrand $g : \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ can be:
 - computationally costly, nonlinear, stochastic
- The random input vector $\mathbf{X} \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}$ can:
 - present a dependence structure
 - be defined explicitly or only empirically (i.e., through a dataset)

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◆ Remarks:

- We can encounter this problem in various steps of the UQ framework
- It is a numerical integration problem against a density (sometimes called probabilistic integration) [BOG⁺19]

Approximation by a quadrature rule

A quadrature rule approximates a multivariate integral:

$$\mathbb{E}[g(\mathbf{X})] = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} g(\mathbf{x}) f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \approx \sum_{i=1}^n w_i g(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}), \quad n \in \mathbb{N} \quad (6)$$

- ❑ A quadrature rule is a weighted mean of:
 - the function g evaluated at the set of nodes $\mathbf{X}_n = \{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)}\}$
 - weighted by a set of weights $\mathbf{w}_n = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- ❑ A “good” quadrature offers an accurate approximation for a restricted number of nodes.
- ❑ Beyond performance, convergence guarantees are essential

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- A “good” quadrature offers an accurate approximation for a restricted number of nodes.
- Beyond performance, convergence guarantees are essential

◆ Remarks:

- Most of the quadrature rules are built without any knowledge on the integrand g
- A strong link exists between numerical integration and space-filling design of experiments [FLQZ18]

Quadrature methods and designs of experiments

A large panel of method (see [Sul15]), among which:

- ❑ Univariate deterministic quadratures:
 - Gaussian quadrature
 - Féjer quadrature (i.e., Clenshaw-Curtis)
- ❑ Multivariate deterministic quadratures:
 - Tensor product (i.e., regular grids)
 - Smolyak grid (i.e., sparse grids)
- ❑ Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS)
- ❑ Monte Carlo sampling
- ❑ Quasi-Monte Carlo sampling
- ❑ Kernel herding: a kernel-based sampling

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Monte Carlo

1. Generate n i.i.d samples $\mathbf{X}_n \sim f_{\mathbf{X}}$ using a pseudo-random generator (e.g., Mersenne-Twister algorithm)

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$$\mathbb{E}[g(\mathbf{X})] \approx \bar{y}_n^{\text{MC}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \quad (7)$$

◆ Properties:

- The weights are all uniform
- The central limit theorem provides:
 - the variance of this estimator
 - confidence intervals of this estimator
- The convergence rate is in $o(1/\sqrt{n})$ (slow rate)
- This convergence rate does not depend on the dimension

Monte Carlo: illustration vs. regular grid

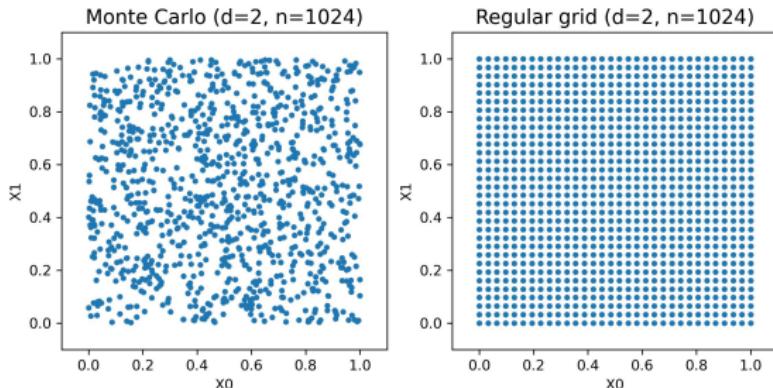


Figure 11: Sub-projection of Monte Carlo sample vs. regular grid in dim. 2 and 5.

Monte Carlo: illustration vs. regular grid

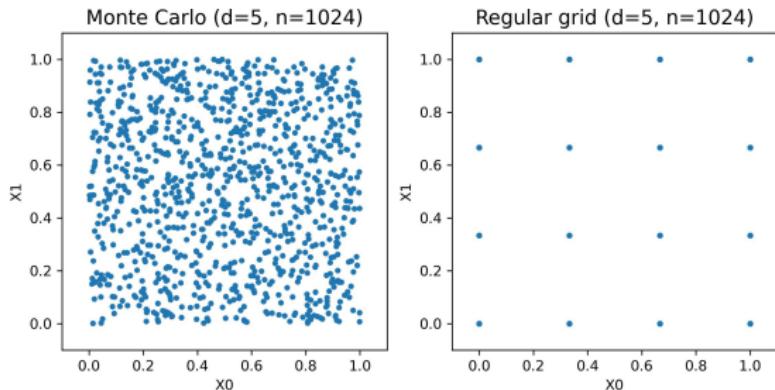


Figure 11: Sub-projection of Monte Carlo sample vs. regular grid in dim. 2 and 5.

Monte Carlo is not subject to the “curse of dimensionality”

◆ Discrepancy

The discrepancy of a set of nodes \mathbf{X}_n is a **metric of its uniformity**, e.g.:

$$D_p^*(\mathbf{X}_n) = \|\widehat{F}_{\mathbf{X}_n} - F_{\mathbb{U}}\|_p = \left(\int_{[0,1]^d} |\widehat{F}_{\mathbf{X}_n}(\mathbf{x}) - F_{\mathbb{U}}(\mathbf{x})|^p d\mathbf{x} \right)^{1/p} \quad (8)$$

- The lowest the discrepancy, the “closest” to uniformity
- Equivalent to Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for $p = \infty$
- Equivalent to Cramér-Von Mises statistic for $p = 2$ (explicit formula)

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- Equivalent to Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for $p = \infty$
- Equivalent to Cramér-Von Mises statistic for $p = 2$ (explicit formula)

◆ Koksma-Hlawka inequality

If $g : [0, 1]^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has a bounded variation, then for any $\mathbf{X}_n \in [0, 1]^d$:

$$\left| \int_{[0,1]^d} g(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \right| \leq V(g) D_\infty^*(\mathbf{X}_n), \quad (9)$$

- This bound on the quadrature performance is a composed of:
 - $V(g)$, quantifying the integrand’s complexity
 - $D_\infty^*(\mathbf{X}_n)$, a uniformity metric of the nodes \mathbf{X}_n

Quasi-Monte Carlo: low-discrepancy sequences

For numerous low-discrepancy sequences (**Sobol'**, **Halton**, **Faure**, etc.),
considering a constant $0 < C < \infty$ and specific sizes $n \in \mathbb{N}$:

$$D_{\infty}^*(\mathbf{X}_n) \leq C \frac{\log(n)^d}{n} \quad (10)$$

To go further into quasi-Monte Carlo methods: [LP14]

Quasi-Monte Carlo: low-discrepancy sequences

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To go further into quasi-Monte Carlo methods: [LP14]

◆ Properties and remarks

- Theses sequences are **fully nested and deterministic**
- The samples generated are **not independent**
- For non-uniform distribution: use inverse CDF transform
- Randomized quasi-Monte Carlo introduces a trade-off between exploration and repetitions (allowing to estimate variances [L'E18])

Quasi-Monte Carlo: low-discrepancy sequences

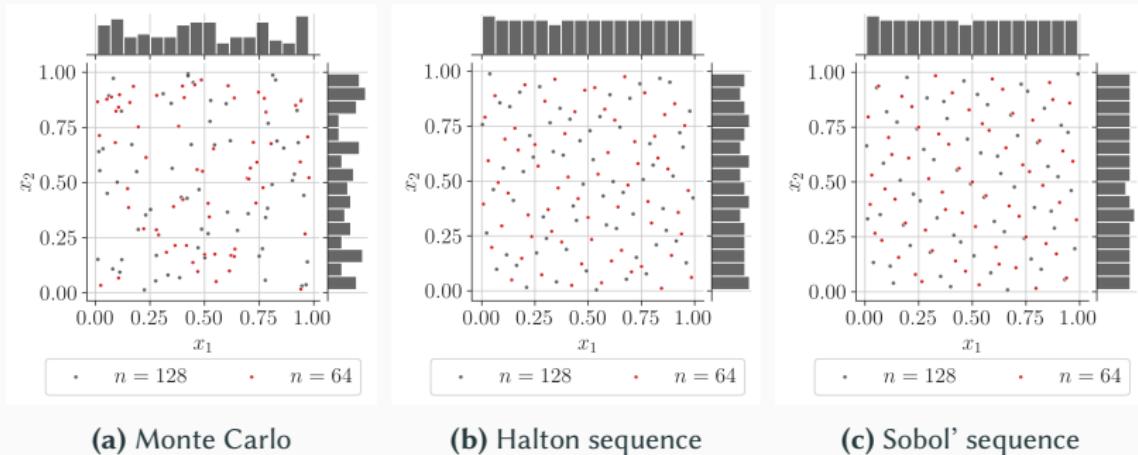


Figure 12: Nested Monte Carlo and quasi-Monte Carlo designs ($n = 128$)

⁴<https://openturns.github.io/www/>

Quasi-Monte Carlo: low-discrepancy sequences

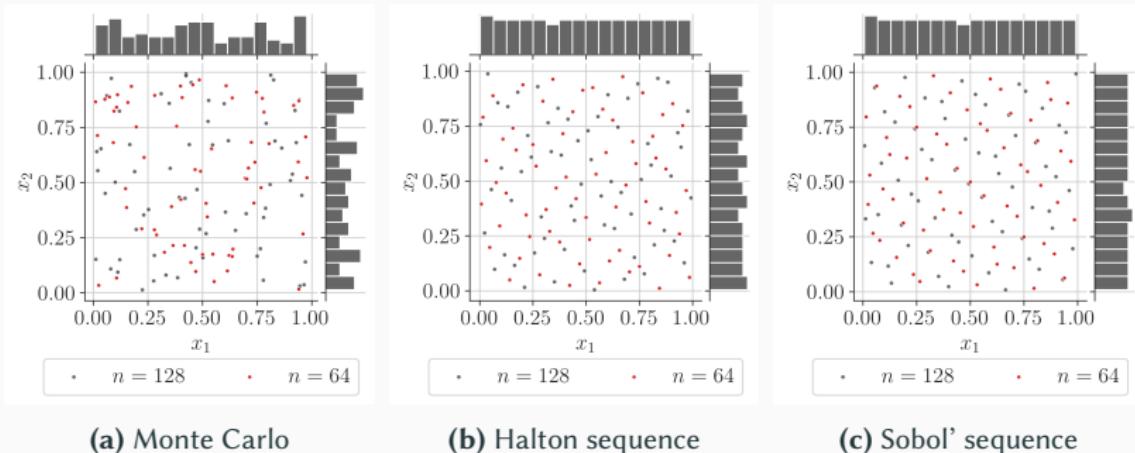


Figure 12: Nested Monte Carlo and quasi-Monte Carlo designs ($n = 128$)

* In OpenTURNS⁴:

- Sobol', Faure, Halton and Haselgrave low-discrepancy sequences
- Explicit L2-centered discrepancy

⁴<https://openturns.github.io/www/>

MMD: a generalized discrepancy [SGF⁺10]

◆ **Definition:** a discrepancy metric between any distributions μ and ζ

$$\text{MMD}_K(\mu, \zeta) := \sup_{\|g\|_{\mathcal{H}(K)} \leq 1} \left| \int_{\mathcal{D}_X} g(\mathbf{x}) d\mu(\mathbf{x}) - \int_{\mathcal{D}_X} g(\mathbf{x}) d\zeta(\mathbf{x}) \right| \quad (11)$$

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1. Define a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}(K)$ (RKHS induced by a kernel $K : \mathcal{D}_X^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}_+$)
2. The *maximum mean discrepancy* (MMD) between two probability distributions μ and ζ is given by **the worst-case error for any function within $\mathcal{H}(K)$**
3. For characteristic kernels, $\text{MMD}_K(\mu, \zeta) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mu = \zeta$
4. The MMD can be written as a simple difference of potentials

$$P_\mu(\mathbf{x}) := \int_{\mathcal{D}_X} K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') d\mu(\mathbf{x}') \text{ of the distributions } \text{MMD}_K(\mu, \zeta) = \|P_\mu - P_\zeta\|_{\mathcal{H}(K)}$$

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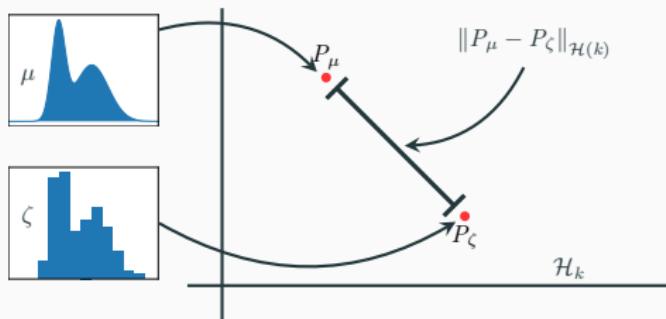


Figure 13: Kernel mean embedding of continuous and discrete distributions

Kernel herding sampling[CWS10]

◆ **Main idea:** iteratively pick points minimizing a MMD between the:

- target density μ ,
- current design \mathbf{X}_n , represented by the density $\zeta_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$

◆ **Kernel herding criterion:**

$$\mathbf{x}^{(n+1)} \in \arg \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} \left\{ \text{MMD}_K \left(\mu, \frac{1}{n+1} (n\zeta_n + \delta(\mathbf{x})) \right)^2 \right\} \Rightarrow \arg \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} \left\{ \frac{n}{n+1} P_{\zeta_n}(\mathbf{x}) - P_{\mu}(\mathbf{x}) \right\} \quad (12)$$

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◆ **Candidate set \mathcal{S} :** is a N -sized sample ($N \gg n$) representative of μ

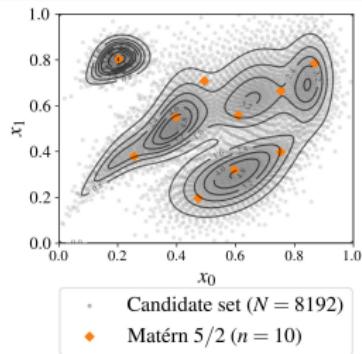
- use as a discrete domain for a greedy optimization
- used to estimate the potential $P_{\mu}(\mathbf{x}), \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{S}$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(n+1)} \in \arg \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{S}} \left\{ \frac{1}{\textcolor{red}{n}+1} \sum_{i=1}^n K((\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^{(j)}) \right\} \quad (13)$$

☞ Theoretical convergence studied in [LJLB15]

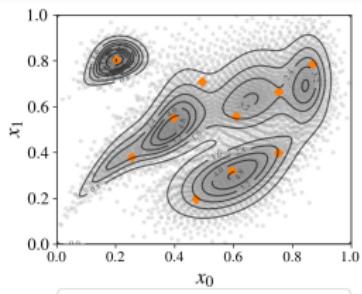
Kernel herding: 2D example

- ◆ Gaussian mixture with a dependence structure

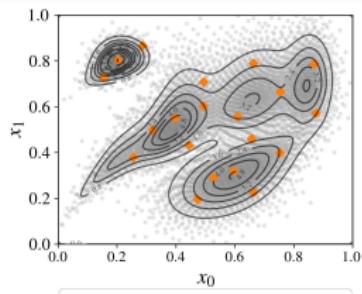


Kernel herding: 2D example

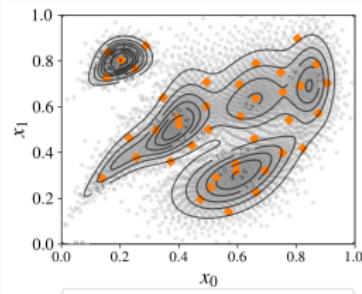
◆ Gaussian mixture with a dependence structure



- Candidate set ($N = 8192$)
- ◆ Matérn 5/2 ($n = 10$)



- Candidate set ($N = 8192$)
- ◆ Matérn 5/2 ($n = 20$)



- Candidate set ($N = 8192$)
- ◆ Matérn 5/2 ($n = 40$)

Figure 14: Kernel herding sampling on a Gaussian random mixture

Kernel herding: 2D example

Input random vector: Gaussian mixture \mathbf{X} from Fig.14

Function: $g(\mathbf{x}) = x_1 + x_2$

Quantity of interest: $\mathbb{E}[g(\mathbf{X})] = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} g(\mathbf{x}) f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$

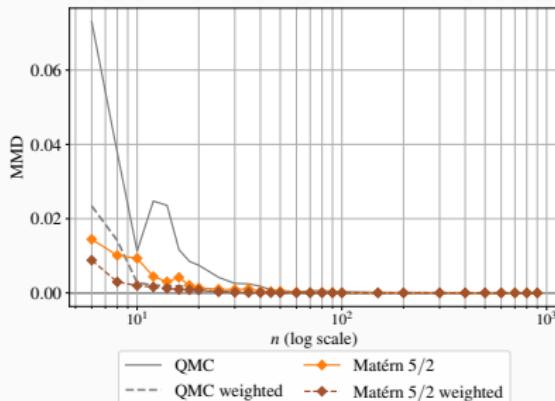
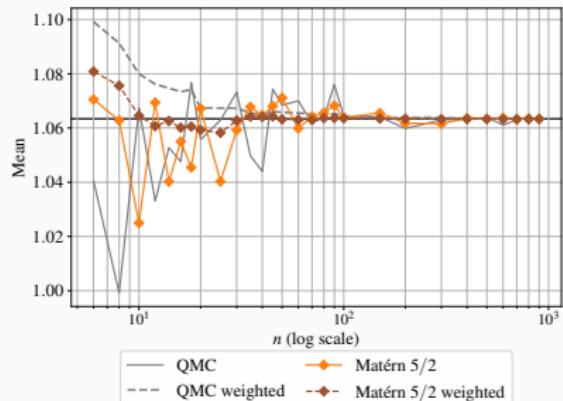


Figure 15: Analytical benchmark results on the toy-case #1

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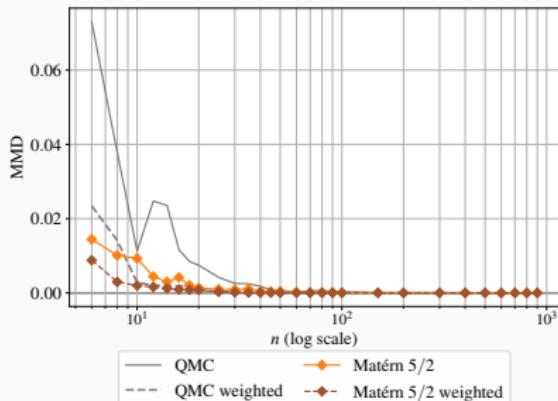
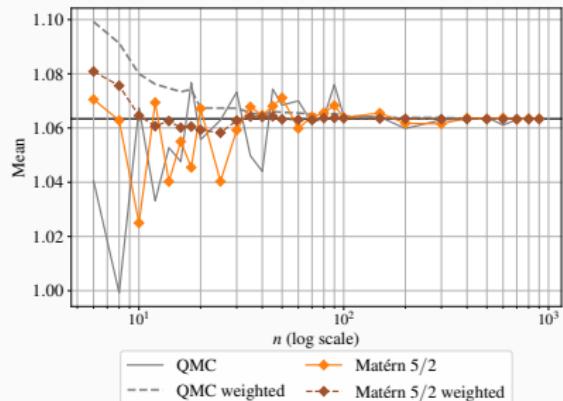


Figure 15: Analytical benchmark results on the toy-case #1

* In OpenTURNS: New dedicated Python package [otkerneldesign](#)

```
~$ pip install otkerneldesign
```

Kernel herding: application to probabilistic fatigue of OWT

Kernel herding extracts a representative subset from data [FCMI23]

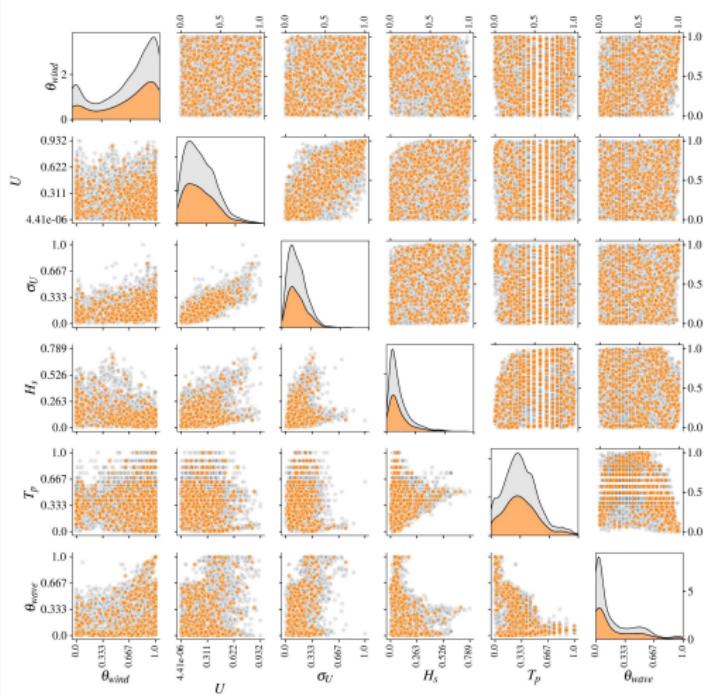


Figure 16: Teesside kernel herding design of experiments

Kernel herding: application to probabilistic fatigue of OWT

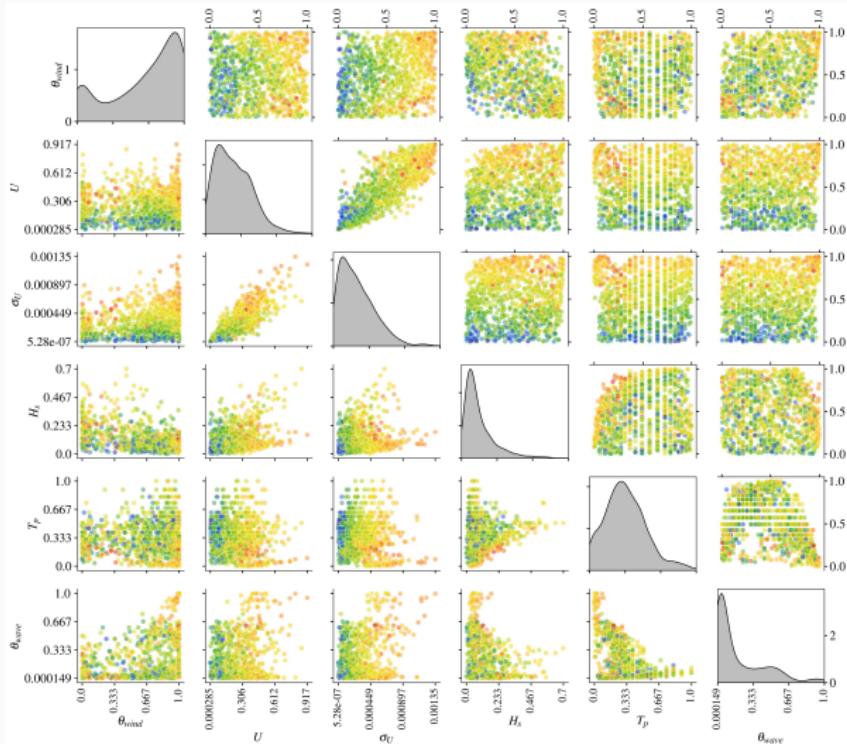


Figure 17: Teesside kernel herding with corresponding outputs (log-scale)

Kernel herding: application to probabilistic fatigue of OWT

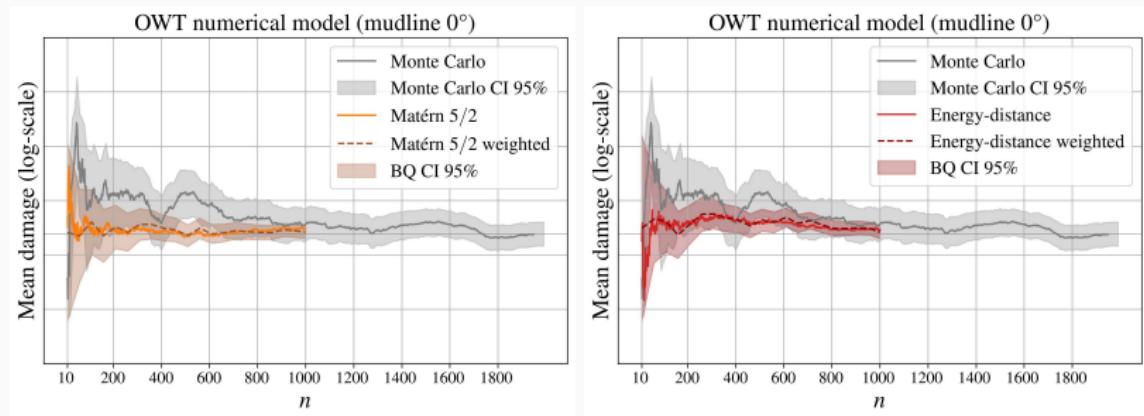


Figure 18: Kernel herding mean convergence (Matérn and energy-distance kernels) (size $n = 500$)

◆ **Remark:** The “BQ IC” is actually a prediction interval

★★ Take-home message #3 ★★

❖ To keep in mind ❖

◆ Conclusions

- Kernel herding for quadrature offers a given-data uncertainty propagation method (i.e., without fitting a probabilistic model)
- This method can **fully exploit parallel computing** (i.e., not active)
- Possible to compute **optimal Bayesian quadrature weights**

★★ Take-home message #3 ★★

❖ To keep in mind ❖

◆ Conclusions

- Kernel herding for quadrature offers a given-data uncertainty propagation method (i.e., without fitting a probabilistic model)
- This method can **fully exploit parallel computing** (i.e., not active)
- Possible to compute **optimal Bayesian quadrature weights**

◆ Limits

- **KH is sensitive** to the chosen kernel (heuristic tuning in [FIM⁺23])
- In high dimension, \mathcal{S} must be larger, **KH becomes costly**

4. Kernel-based sensitivity analysis

◆ A few issues / challenges in standard GSA practice

- Output variance might not be really insightful!
- High computational cost (e.g., 1 call \approx from a few hours to a day)
- Large number of inputs (e.g., \approx 100 inputs)
- Quantity of interest (QoI) possibly difficult to estimate accurately (e.g., high-order quantile, rare event probability)
- Input and output variables may not be continuous (e.g., discrete / categorical variables, graphs, distributions)
- (Input dependency) \Rightarrow Another course!

GSA using the Hilbert-Schmidt Independence Criterion

◆ A few preliminary hypotheses

- Probabilistic modeling of d **independent** input physical variables:

$$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_d)^\top \sim \mathbb{P}_{\mathbf{X}} \quad \text{over} \quad \mathcal{X} = \bigtimes_{i=1}^d \mathcal{X}_i \quad (14)$$

- Black-box model (scalar output):

$$\mathcal{M} : \begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d & \longrightarrow & \mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \\ \mathbf{X} & \longmapsto & Y = \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{X}) \end{array} \quad (15)$$

- **Learning sample** \bowtie a n -size i.i.d. sample of the couple (\mathbf{X}, Y) :

$$\left(\mathbf{X}^{(j)}, Y^{(j)} \right)_{(1 \leq j \leq n)} = \left(X_1^{(j)}, X_2^{(j)}, \dots, X_d^{(j)}, Y^{(j)} \right)_{(1 \leq j \leq n)} \quad (16)$$

with $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbf{X}^{(j)}} = \mathbb{P}_{\mathbf{X}}$

and $Y^{(j)} = \mathcal{M} \left(X_1^{(j)}, X_2^{(j)}, \dots, X_d^{(j)} \right), \forall j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$

◆ Dependence measures for GSA

□ A first idea:

- If X_i has **no influence** on $Y \Leftrightarrow X_i$ and Y are **independent**

□ Two possibilities:

- By comparing \mathbb{P}_Y and $\mathbb{P}_{Y|X_i} \Rightarrow$ **Dissimilarity measures**
- By comparing $\mathbb{P}_{(Y,X_i)}$ and $\mathbb{P}_Y \otimes \mathbb{P}_{X_i} \Rightarrow$ **Dependence measures**

□ Use of a specific dependence measure:

- The **Hilbert-Schmidt Independence Criterion (HSIC)** proposed in the ML community in ~ 2005 [GHS⁺05]
- Brought to the GSA community in ~ 2015 [DV15]

GSA using the Hilbert-Schmidt Independence Criterion

◆ Dependence measures for GSA (cont'd)

- We would like to quantify the sensitivity between X_i and Y using a dependence measure, such that:

$$S_i = d(\mathbb{P}_{(Y, X_i)}, \mathbb{P}_Y \otimes \mathbb{P}_{X_i}) \quad (17)$$

where:

- $\mathbb{P}_{(Y, X_i)}$ is the joint probability distribution
- $\mathbb{P}_Y \otimes \mathbb{P}_{X_i}$ is the product of marginals distributions

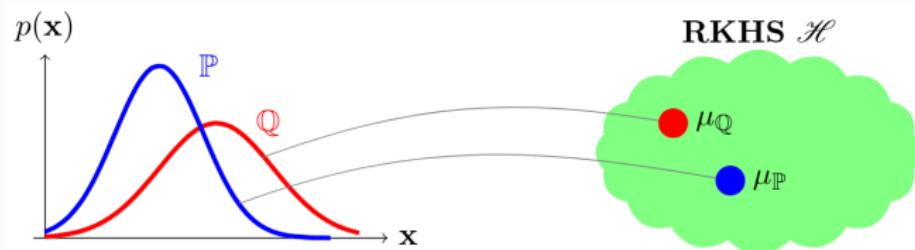
- Two desirable properties we are looking for:
 - large values of S_i imply strong dependence between X_i and Y
 - $S_i = 0$ only if X_i and Y are independent

→ How to define such a dependence measure between probability distributions?

GSA using the Hilbert-Schmidt Independence Criterion

◆ (Recall) How to compare probability distributions?

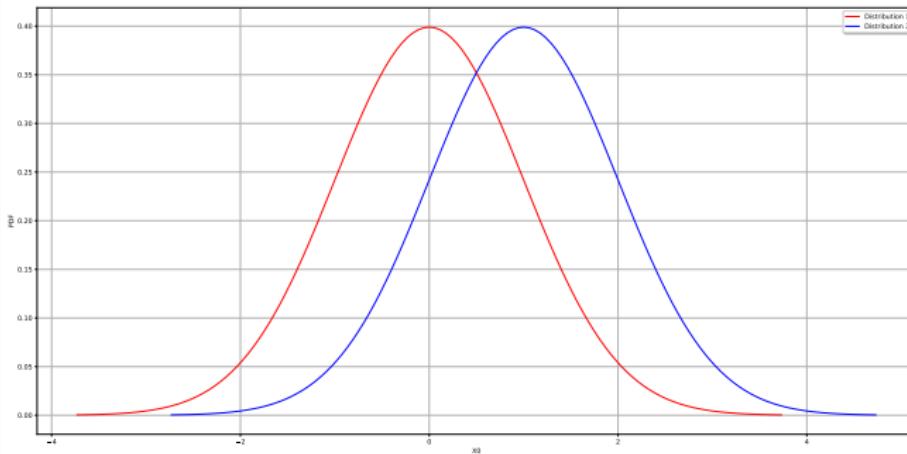
- ❑ By comparing various **features** of the distributions
- ❑ In practice, we map the distributions onto auxiliary spaces characterizing specific features
 - Feature functions $\psi(\mathbb{P}_{X_i})$, e.g., mean of the distribution $\psi(\mathbb{P}_{X_i}) = \mathbb{E}[X_i]$
- ❑ We can then compute the dependence as a function of the distance between distributions as a distance between their mappings



GSA using the Hilbert-Schmidt Independence Criterion

◆ A first example

Let us consider the following mapping: $\psi(\mathbb{P}_{X_i}) = \mathbb{E}[X_i]$

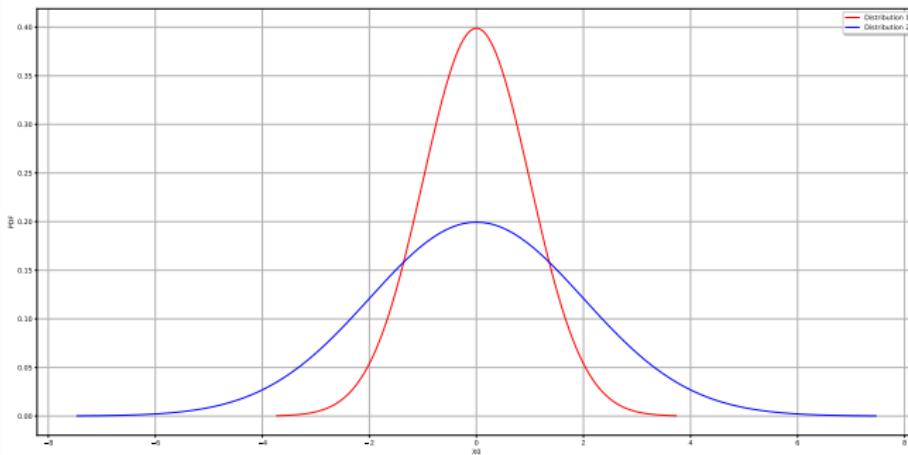


→ Here, this approach would work ⇔ we can distinguish the two distributions ✓

GSA using the Hilbert-Schmidt Independence Criterion

◆ A first example (cont'd)

Let us consider the following mapping: $\psi(\mathbb{P}_{X_i}) = \mathbb{E}[X_i]$

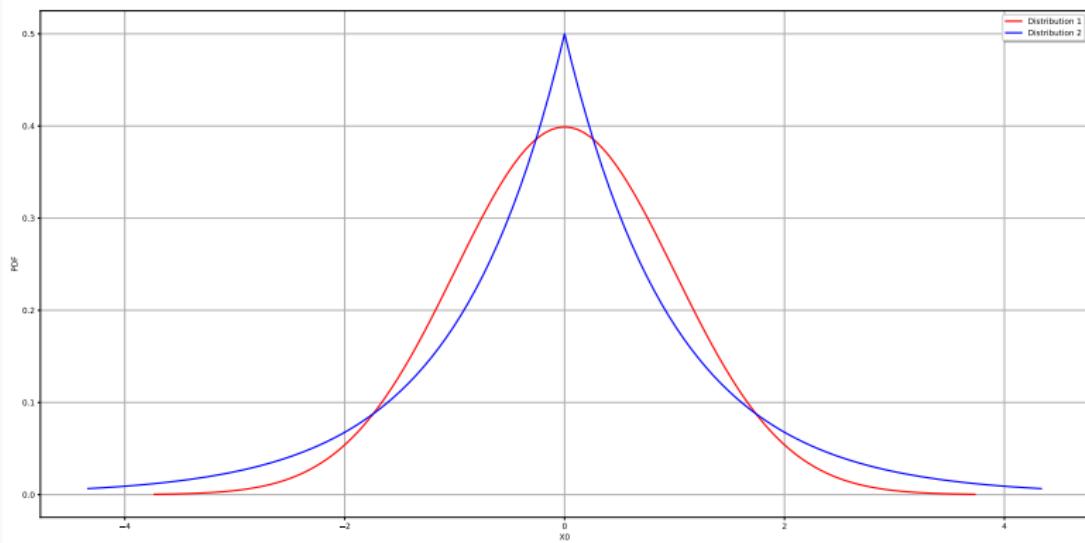


→ Here, this approach would not work ↳ we cannot distinguish the two distributions **X**

GSA using the Hilbert-Schmidt Independence Criterion

◆ A first example (cont'd)

Let us consider the following mapping: $\psi(\mathbb{P}_{X_i}) = (\mathbb{E}[X_i], \text{Var}(X_i))$



→ Also in this case, we are not able to distinguish between two different distributions **X**

Limitations

For any finite number of features, there will always be, at least, 2 different distributions which appear identical with respect to the considered features!

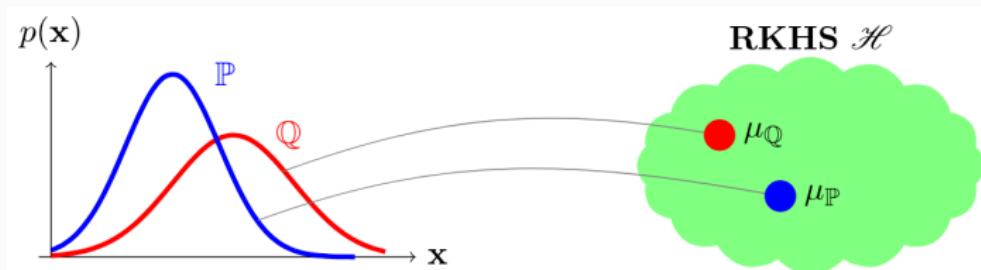
- ⇒ **Can we look at an infinite collection of features?**
- **Yes, using kernel mean embedding!**

GSA using the Hilbert-Schmidt Independence Criterion

◆ Theoretical formulation

- Let us now consider \mathcal{V} , an RKHS over $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ with kernel $V(\cdot, \cdot)$
- We consider the mean embedding of $\mathbb{P}_{Y|X_i}$ and $\mathbb{P}_{(Y,X_i)}$ in \mathcal{V}

$$\Delta := \|\mu_{\mathbb{P}_{(Y,X_i)}} - \mu_{\mathbb{P}_{Y|X_i}}\| \quad (18)$$



Characteristic kernels \Rightarrow Injective feature map

◆ Theoretical formulation (cont'd)

- Assuming $V((Y, X_i), (Y', X'_i)) = K(Y, Y')K_i(X_i, X'_i)$, we can show that:

$$\text{HSIC}(X_i, Y)_{\mathcal{F}_i, \mathcal{G}} = \Delta^2 \quad (19)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{HSIC}(X_i, Y)_{\mathcal{F}_i, \mathcal{G}} &= \mathbb{E} \left[K_i(X_i, X'_i) K(Y, Y') \right] + \mathbb{E} \left[K_i(X_i, X'_i) \right] \mathbb{E} \left[K(Y, Y') \right] \\ &\quad - 2\mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}[K_i(X_i, X'_i)|X_i] \mathbb{E}[K(Y, Y')|Y] \right] \end{aligned}$$

where (X'_i, Y') is an i.i.d. copy of (X_i, Y)

GSA using the Hilbert-Schmidt Independence Criterion

◆ Estimators

- ❑ A first estimator based on V-statistics [GHS⁺05]

$$\widehat{\text{HSIC}}(X_i, Y) = \frac{1}{n^2} \text{Tr}(L_i H L H) \quad (20)$$

where L_i and L are Gram matrices, and H a shift matrix

- ❑ A second estimator based on the distance correlation estimator [SRB07]

$$\widehat{\text{HSIC}}(X_i, Y) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{j_1, j_2}^n A_{j_1 j_2} B_{j_1 j_2} \quad (21)$$

where $A_{j_1 j_2}$ and $B_{j_1 j_2}$ are linear combinations of Gram matrices

★★ Take-home message #4 ★★

❖ To keep in mind ❖

- ❑ A fundamental property \Leftrightarrow if characteristic kernels

$$\text{HSIC}(X_i, Y)_{\mathcal{F}_i, \mathcal{G}} = 0 \Leftrightarrow X_i \perp Y \quad (22)$$

- ❑ A plug-in estimator of a normalized sensitivity index  [DV15]

$$\widehat{R^2_{\text{HSIC}, i}} = \frac{\widehat{\text{HSIC}}(X_i, Y)}{\sqrt{\widehat{\text{HSIC}}(X_i, X_i) \widehat{\text{HSIC}}(Y, Y)}} \quad (23)$$

- ❑ Choose a characteristic kernel \rightarrow Type + Hyperparameters' estimation

$$K(z, z') = \exp\left(-\theta \|z - z'\|_2^2\right) \quad (\text{Gaussian kernel}) \quad (24)$$

with $\widehat{\theta} = 1/\widehat{\sigma^2}$ ($\widehat{\sigma^2}$ the empirical variance of the sample z)

Screening and ranking using HSIC

◆ Screening with HSIC for high-dimensional problems

- ❑ A definition of “screening”:
 - Separating the inputs between two distinct groups:
the **significantly influential** ones vs. the **non-influential** ones
- ❑ In the HSIC framework, one possible solution:
 - To use some **statistical hypothesis tests** to determine whether the variables X_i and Y are independent or not [DLM16]

Screening and ranking using HSIC

◆ Statistical hypothesis testing with HSIC

- Due to the fundamental property of HSIC (cf. Eq. (9)):
 - One can construct the following statistical test \mathcal{T}

$$\mathcal{T} : \text{Test } (H_{0,i}) : \text{HSIC}(X_i, Y) = 0 \quad \text{vs.} \quad (H_{1,i}) : \text{HSIC}(X_i, Y) > 0 \quad (25)$$

$H_{0,i} : X_i \text{ and } Y \text{ are independent}$

- And choose $\widehat{S}_{\mathcal{T}} := n \times \widehat{\text{HSIC}}(X_i, Y)$ as the test statistic
- To decide, one can use the **p-value** associated to the test \mathcal{T} :
 - It is the probability, under $(\mathcal{H}_{0,i})$, that $\widehat{S}_{\mathcal{T}}$ becomes greater or equal to the observed $\widehat{S}_{\mathcal{T},\text{obs}}$ statistic on the learning sample

$$p_{\text{val}} = \mathbb{P} \left(\widehat{S}_{\mathcal{T}} \geq \widehat{S}_{\mathcal{T},\text{obs}} \mid \mathcal{H}_{0,i} \right) \quad (26)$$

Screening and ranking using HSIC

◆ Statistical hypothesis testing with HSIC

$$p_{\text{val}} = \mathbb{P} \left(\widehat{S}_{\mathcal{T}} \geq \widehat{S}_{\mathcal{T}, \text{obs}} \mid H_{0,i} \right) \quad (27)$$

In other words : What is the probability of obtaining a $\text{HSIC}(X_i, Y)$ value as large as the observed one under the assumption that Y and X_i are independent?

- To discriminate, one uses the **significance level** α (a.k.a. Type I error):

- Typically, one can fix this level: $\alpha = 0.05$ (or $\alpha = 0.10$)
 - **Decision rule:** if $p_{\text{val}} < \alpha \Rightarrow H_{0,i}$ (i.e., independence) is rejected

The probability of obtaining the observed $\text{HSIC}(X_i, Y)$ value is low

→ The independence hypothesis is most likely wrong

→ X_i has a non negligible influence on Y

Screening and ranking using HSIC

◆ Asymptotic test for large sample size

In order to estimate how unlikely a value of $n\widehat{\text{HSIC}}(X_i, Y)$ is, we can use its probability distribution

□ Asymptotic results about the HSIC estimators:

- The $n\widehat{\text{HSIC}}(X_i, Y)$ estimator can be reasonably approached by a **Gamma distribution** parametrized by (γ, β) [GFT⁺08]

□ Asymptotic test $\mathcal{T}_{\text{asymp}}$:

- Therefore, the p-value can be approximated as follows:

$$p_{\text{val}} \approx 1 - F_{\text{Ga}} \left(n \times \widehat{\text{HSIC}}(X_i, Y)_{\text{obs}} \right) \quad (28)$$

where $F_{\text{Ga}}(\cdot)$ is the CDF of the Gamma distribution and $\widehat{\text{HSIC}}(X_i, Y)_{\text{obs}}$ is the observed value of the random variable $\widehat{\text{HSIC}}(X_i, Y)$

Screening and ranking using HSIC

- ◆ Asymptotic test for large sample size

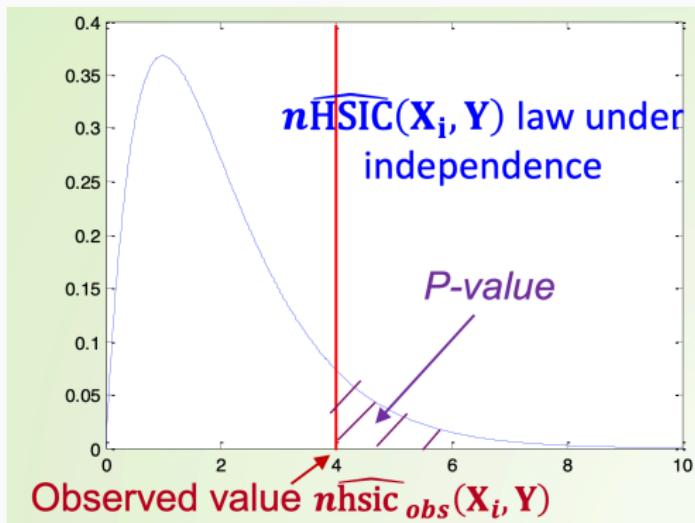


Figure 19: Asymptotic law of the HSIC estimator (source: [Mar21]).

Screening and ranking using HSIC

◆ Non-asymptotic test for small sample size

□ Permutation-based test $\mathcal{T}_{\text{perturb}}$ [DLM16]

- $Z_n := \left(X^{(j)}, Y^{(j)} \right)_{(1 \leq j \leq n)}$ an initial n -sample and $\widehat{\text{HSIC}}(Z_n)$
- $\{\tau_1, \dots, \tau_B\}$, a set of B independent random permutations of $\{1, \dots, n\}$
- We consider $\widehat{H}^{*b} := \widehat{\text{HSIC}} \left(X^{(j)}, Y^{(\tau_b(j))} \right)_{(1 \leq j \leq n)}$
- And the order statistic:

$$\widehat{H}^{*(1)} \leq \widehat{H}^{*(2)} \leq \dots \leq \widehat{H}^{*(B)} \quad (29)$$

- The p-value (under $\mathcal{H}_{0,i}$) can be approximated as follows:

$$p_{\text{val}} \approx \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B \mathbb{1}_{\widehat{H}^{*b} > \widehat{\text{HSIC}}(X, Y)} \quad (30)$$

If X_i and Y are independent, considering a permutation of Y should have no impact

Screening and ranking using HSIC

◆ A heuristic procedure for ranking the variables

- Ranking the input variables w.r.t. their influence using the p-values:
 - The lower p_{val} is, the stronger ($\mathcal{H}_{0,i}$) is rejected
⇒ the higher the influence of X_i
- Rule for ranking:
 - Increasing order of influence by decreasing order of p-values
 - If p-values are equal
→ variables are ordered by increasing order of $\widehat{R^2_{\text{HSIC},i}}$

★★ Take-home message #5 ★★

❖ To keep in mind ❖

❑ Screening

- If n is large ($n > n_{\text{th}}$), \rightarrow **asymptotic test**
- If not ($n \leq n_{\text{th}}$), \rightarrow **permutation-based test**

❑ “Tuning parameters”

$n_{\text{th}} = 10^3$, $B = 200$, $\alpha = 0.05$

❑ Ranking

- \nearrow influence, \searrow p-values
- If $p_{\text{val},i} = p_{\text{val},j}$, check $\widehat{R_{\text{HSIC},i}^2}$ and $\widehat{R_{\text{HSIC},j}^2}$

❑ Details in this paper ↗ [DLM16]

Target SA using HSIC

◆ Target Sensitivity Analysis (TSA)

❑ Basic underlying idea of TSA:

- To measure the influence of the inputs on a **critical domain** of the model output, and in particular, over the **occurrence** of the critical phenomenon ↗ [RM18, MC21]

❑ Target → critical domain/event on the model output:

- $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{Y}$ a critical domain such that $\mathbb{P}(Y \in \mathcal{C})$ is small
- Critical measure of $Y \rightarrow \mathcal{R}(Y)$ (risk measure)
- High-order quantile $\rightarrow \mathcal{C} := \{y \in \mathcal{Y} \mid y > \mathcal{R}(y)\}$ and $\mathcal{R}(Y) = q_{0.9}(Y)$

❑ TSA with HSIC:

- **Indicator function** $\mathbf{1}_{\mathcal{C}} : \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, $y \mapsto 1$ if $y \in \mathcal{C}$, 0 otherwise ↗ [DV15]
⇒ Use Dirac kernel
- **Smooth weight function** $w_{\mathcal{C}} : \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow [0, 1]$, $y \mapsto \exp(-d_{\mathcal{C}}(y)/s)$
⇒ Use Gaussian kernel

★★ Take-home message #6 ★★

💡 To keep in mind 💡

❑ Focusing on the critical domain

- Either an indicator function or a weight function on Y
- Typical weight function “around” the binary threshold

$$w_C : \begin{array}{rcl} \mathcal{Y} & \longrightarrow & [0, 1] \\ y & \longmapsto & w_C(y) = \exp\left(-\frac{\max(c-y, 0)}{s \sigma_Y}\right) \end{array} \quad (31)$$

with $s = \frac{1}{5}$ a smoothness parameter and σ_Y the empirical estimation of the std of Y

❑ A Target-HSIC index under $w_C(\cdot)$

$$\text{T-HSIC}_{w_C}(X_i, Y) = \text{HSIC}(X_i, w_C(Y)) \quad (32)$$

❑ More details in this paper ↗ [MC21]

◆ Conditional Sensitivity Analysis (CSA)

❑ Basic underlying idea of CSA:

- To measure the influence of the inputs within a **critical domain** of the model output, ignoring what happens outside [MC21]

❑ Conditional → conditional to a critical event:

- Consider $P_{Y|Y \in \mathcal{C}}$ with $\{Y \in \mathcal{C}\}$ characterized either by $\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{C}}$ (hard thresholding) or by $w_{\mathcal{C}}$ (smooth)
- Implicitly, $P_{X|Y \in \mathcal{C}}$ is no more equal to the product of marginals

★★ Take-home message #7 ★★

❖ To keep in mind ❖

❑ Characterize the critical domain

- Either with a hard conditioning (indicator function) or a smooth one
- Introduction of a weight matrix W

❑ A Conditional-HSIC index

$$C - \widehat{\text{HSIC}}_{w_C}(X_i, Y) = \frac{1}{n^2} \text{Tr}(\mathcal{W}L_i\mathcal{W}H_1LH_2) \quad (33)$$

❑ More details in this paper ↗ [MC21]

In practice: the proposed methodology

◆ The cooking recipe

1. Define the goal of the study:
 - Screening vs. Ranking
 - Type of analysis: Global / Target / Conditional
 - Maximum allowable budget (sample size)
2. Generate input samples such that $\mathbf{X} \sim P_{\mathbf{X}}$ according to $P_{\mathbf{X}}$ and get corresponding output samples (e.g., by crude Monte Carlo sampling)
3. Perform the analysis:
 - Choose kernels for inputs and output
 - Choose an estimator (U-stat vs. V-stat)
 - If necessary (TSA / CSA): define a weight function
 - Choose a test strategy (asymptotic vs. permutation-based)
 - Get HSIC & R_{HSIC}^2 indices and p-values
4. Aggregate results from several analyses (e.g., GSA and TSA)
 - Use p-values first
 - Then, use R_{HSIC}^2 indices

Thank you for your attention!
Any question?

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