

# Functional ANOVA and Variance Decomposition of Functions

May 12, 2025 // Damar Wicaksono



```
mirror object to mirror
mirror_mod.mirror_object
operation == "MIRROR_X":
mirror_mod.use_x = True
mirror_mod.use_y = False
mirror_mod.use_z = False
operation == "MIRROR_Y"
mirror_mod.use_x = False
mirror_mod.use_y = True
mirror_mod.use_z = False
operation == "MIRROR_Z"
mirror_mod.use_x = False
```

## Functional Decomposition

## Functional ANOVA

## Applications

Application: Global Sensitivity Analysis

Application: Effective Dimensions

## Notes on Computation

Notes on Computation: Direct Computation

Notes on Computation: Function Approximations

## Summary



**Functional decomposition** is a method that:

- **breaks down** complex multidimensional functions, and
- **represents** them as the sum of **individual effects** (also called **main effects**) of the inputs and the **interaction effects** between them.

It provides a way to look and succinctly describe complex multidimensional functions.

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Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then functional decomposition of  $f$  yields:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \underbrace{f_0}_{\text{baseline effect}} + \underbrace{f_1(x_1) + f_2(x_2) + \dots}_{\text{main effects}} + \underbrace{f_{1,2}(x_1, x_2) + f_{1,3}(x_1, x_3) + \dots}_{\text{2-way interaction effects}} + \dots + \underbrace{f_{1,\dots,m}(x_1, \dots, x_m)}_{m\text{-way interaction effect}}$$

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Observations:

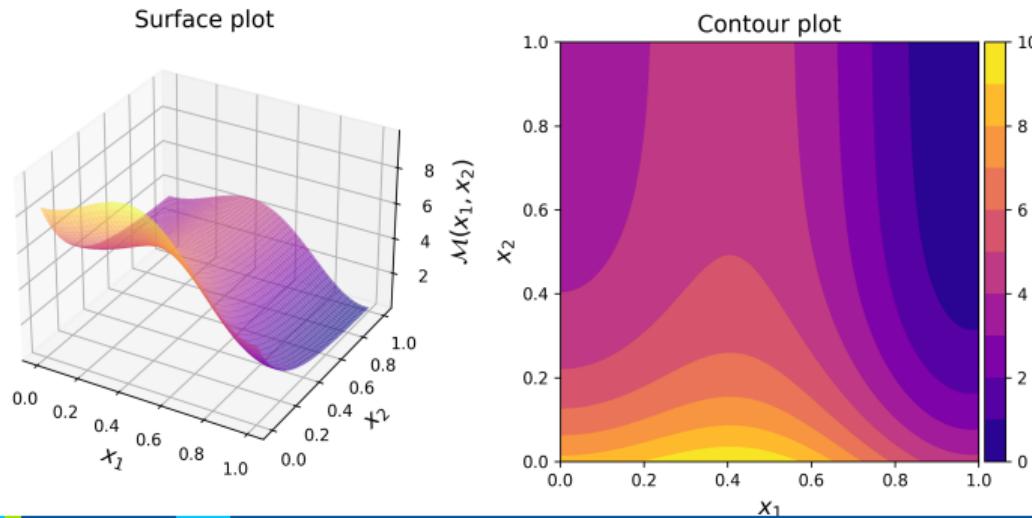
- There are  $2^m$  components in the summation
- The summation recovers the original function

## Example

Consider a two-dimensional function:

$$f(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{6} [120 + 20x_1 \sin(5x_1) + 30e^{-5x_2} + 20x_1 \sin(5x_1)e^{-5x_2} - 100], \quad x_1, x_2 \in [0, 1].$$

(Lim et al., 2002)



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So, by **inspection**:

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$$f_0 = \frac{20}{6}; \quad f_1(x_1) = \frac{20}{6}x_1 \sin(5x_1); \quad f_2(x_2) = 5e^{-5x_2}; \quad f_{1,2}(x_1, x_2) = x_1 \sin(5x_1)e^{-5x_2}.$$

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Example:

$$f_1(x_1) = \frac{20}{6} (x_1 \sin(5x_1) + x_1 \cos(5x_1)); \quad f_{1,2}(x_1, x_2) = x_1 \left( \sin(5x_1) - \frac{20}{6} \cos(5x_1) \right) e^{-5x_2}.$$

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- **Input effect:** *Shouldn't the decomposition take into account the inputs?*

Example:

$$x_2 \in [3, 4] \rightarrow f_2 \approx 0, f_{1,2} \approx 0.$$

The effect of  $x_2$  on  $f$  depends how it is specified.

Our way of decomposing the function by inspection is unsatisfying:

**Our decomposition is neither unique nor meaningful.**

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## Summary

## Assumption: Space of square-integrable functions

We assume that our function of interest belongs to  $L^2(\mathcal{D}_X, \rho_X)$ , i.e., the space of square-integrable functions over domain  $\mathcal{D}_X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$  with respect to the weight function  $\rho_X$ .

- A function  $f$  is square integrable over the domain  $\mathcal{D}_X$  with respect to the weight function  $\rho_X$  if:

$$\int_{\mathcal{D}_X} f^2(\mathbf{x}) \rho_X(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} < \infty.$$

- The space is equipped with inner product (it's a Hilbert space). That is, for  $f, g \in L^2(\mathcal{D}_X, \rho_X)$ ,

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\rho_X} \equiv \int_{\mathcal{D}_X} f(\mathbf{x}) g(\mathbf{x}) \rho_X(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}.$$

- The function norm is defined as:

$$\|f\|_{\rho_X}^2 \equiv \langle f, f \rangle_{\rho_X} < \infty.$$

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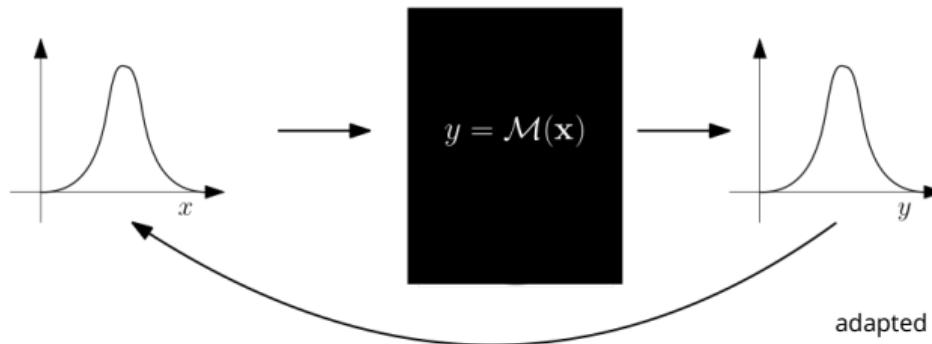
In practice, we are interested in selecting the weight function  $\rho_X$  to be a **(joint) probability density function**.

$L^2(\mathcal{D}_X, \rho_X)$  is then equivalent to the space of random variables with **finite variance**, where the elements are functions of random vectors.

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Probabilistic input  
model      Computational  
model      Analysis



adapted from [\(Marelli and Sudret, 2014\)](#)

## Assumption: Mutually Independent $X$

We further assume that  $X$  is a mutually independent random vector such that its joint probability density function (PDF) reads:

$$\rho_X(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{j=1}^m \rho_{X_j}(x_j),$$

where  $\rho_{X_j}$  is the univariate PDF of  $X_j$ .

Through decomposition, we write an  $m$ -dimensional function  $f$  as a sum of functions:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{u} \subseteq [1:m]} f_{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{u}}),$$

where:

- $[1 : m]$  is a short-hand for the set  $\{1, \dots, m\}$
- $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{u}}$  is the vector of inputs in the index set  $\mathbf{u}$ , i.e.,  $\mathbf{u} = \{i_1, \dots, i_{|\mathbf{u}|}\}$  means  $(x_i)_{i \in \mathbf{u}}$
- $f_{\mathbf{u}}$  is the component function that depends only on  $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{u}}$

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**Example:** For  $m = 3$ , the full decomposition of  $f$  consists of  $2^3 = 8$  terms and it reads:

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{x}) &= f_{\emptyset} && \text{baseline effect} \\ &+ f_{\{1\}}(x_1) + f_{\{2\}}(x_2) + f_{\{3\}}(x_3) && \text{main effects} \\ &+ f_{\{1,2\}}(x_1, x_2) + f_{\{1,3\}}(x_1, x_3) + f_{\{2,3\}}(x_2, x_3) && \text{2-way interactions} \\ &+ f_{\{1,2,3\}}(x_1, x_2, x_3). && \text{3-way interactions} \end{aligned}$$

We seek to obtain a unique functional decomposition of  $f$  using the following **summands**:

- **Baseline effect** for  $u = \emptyset$  (global mean)

$$f_{\emptyset} = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} f(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}.$$

where  $\sim u$  is the set complement of  $u$ .

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- **Main effect** for  $u = \{j\}, j = 1, \dots, m$  (singletons)

$$f_{\{j\}}(x_j) = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}_{\sim\{j\}}}} f(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{\mathbf{X}_{\sim\{j\}}}(\mathbf{x}_{\sim\{j\}}) d\mathbf{x}_{\sim\{j\}} - f_{\emptyset}$$

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- **Interaction effect** for  $\mathbf{u} \subseteq [1 : m], \mathbf{u} \neq \emptyset, |\mathbf{u}| > 1$

$$f_{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{u}}) = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}_{\sim\mathbf{u}}}} f(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{\mathbf{X}_{\sim\mathbf{u}}}(\mathbf{x}_{\sim\mathbf{u}}) d\mathbf{x}_{\sim\mathbf{u}} - \sum_{\mathbf{v} \subset \mathbf{u}} f_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{v}})$$

where  $\sim \mathbf{u}$  is the set complement of  $\mathbf{u}$ .

Consider the **interaction effect** for  $u \subseteq [1 : m]$ ,  $u \neq \emptyset$ ,  $|u| > 1$

$$f_u(x_u) = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{x_{\sim u}}} f(x) \rho_{x_{\sim u}}(x_{\sim u}) dx_{\sim u} - \sum_{v \subset u} f_v(x_v)$$

## Intuition

When we compute  $f_u$ :

- We don't want to attribute anything to it that can be explained by  $x_v$  for  $v \subset u$
- $f_u$  must be strictly only due to  $x_u$ ; **not**  $x_{\sim u}$  **nor** subsets of  $x_u$  (lower order terms)
- Therefore, we integrate  $f$  over all  $x_{\sim u}$  then subtract all the lower order terms

Consider  $f \in L^2(\mathcal{D}_X, \rho_X)$  with mutually independent  $X$  for  $m = 3$ :

- **Baseline effect** (global mean)

$$f_\emptyset = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_1}} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_2}} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_3}} f(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{X_1}(x_1) \rho_{X_2}(x_2) \rho_{X_3}(x_3) dx_1 dx_2 dx_3.$$

- **Main effects**

$$f_{\{1\}}(x_1) = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_2}} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_3}} f(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{X_2}(x_2) \rho_{X_3}(x_3) dx_2 dx_3 - f_\emptyset$$

$$f_{\{2\}}(x_2) = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_1}} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_3}} f(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{X_1}(x_1) \rho_{X_3}(x_3) dx_1 dx_3 - f_\emptyset$$

$$f_{\{3\}}(x_3) = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_1}} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_2}} f(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{X_1}(x_1) \rho_{X_2}(x_2) dx_1 dx_2 - f_\emptyset.$$

Consider  $f \in L^2(\mathcal{D}_X, \rho_X)$  for  $m = 3$ :

- **Two-way interaction effects**

$$f_{\{1,2\}}(x_1, x_2) = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_3}} f(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{X_3}(x_3) dx_3 - f_{\{1\}}(x_1) - f_{\{2\}}(x_2) - f_{\emptyset}$$

$$f_{\{1,3\}}(x_1, x_3) = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_2}} f(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{X_2}(x_2) dx_2 - f_{\{1\}}(x_1) - f_{\{3\}}(x_3) - f_{\emptyset}$$

$$f_{\{2,3\}}(x_2, x_3) = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_1}} f(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{X_1}(x_1) dx_1 - f_{\{2\}}(x_2) - f_{\{3\}}(x_3) - f_{\emptyset}$$

- **Three-way interaction effect**

$$\begin{aligned} f_{\{1,2,3\}}(x_1, x_2, x_3) &= f(\mathbf{x}) - f_{\{1,2\}}(x_1, x_2) - f_{\{1,3\}}(x_1, x_3) - f_{\{2,3\}}(x_2, x_3) \\ &\quad - f_{\{1\}}(x_1) - f_{\{2\}}(x_2) - f_{\{3\}}(x_3) - f_{\emptyset} \end{aligned}$$

## Functional ANOVA: Important Properties

Let  $f \in L^2(\mathcal{D}_X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m, \rho_X)$  with mutually independent  $X$  such that its functional ANOVA decomposition:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{u} \subseteq [1:m]} f_{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{u}})$$

Then for  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \subseteq [1 : m] \setminus \emptyset$ :

- **Lemma:** Functional ANOVA summands average to zero w.r.t any of its indices

$$\int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_j}} f_{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{u}}) \rho_{X_j}(x_j) dx_j = 0, \quad \forall j \in \mathbf{u}.$$

- **Lemma:** Functional ANOVA summands are orthogonal

$$\int_{\mathcal{D}_X} f_{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{u}}) f_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{v}}) \rho_X(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = 0, \quad \mathbf{u} \neq \mathbf{v}.$$

ANOVA stands for **A**nalysis of **V**ariance; so taking it one step further.

- **Total variance** of  $f$

$$\sigma^2 \equiv \int_{\mathcal{D}_X} (f_x(\mathbf{x}) - f_\emptyset)^2 \rho_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}.$$

- **Partial variances** of  $f_u$

$$\sigma_u^2 \equiv \begin{cases} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_u}} f_u^2(\mathbf{x}_u) \rho_{\mathbf{X}_u}(\mathbf{x}_u) d\mathbf{x}_u, & |u| > 0 \\ 0, & |u| = 0. \end{cases}$$

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## Theorem: Variance decomposition of $f$ (Sobol' decomposition)

The total variance of  $f$  is decomposed into a sum of variances of the summands:

$$\sigma^2 = \sum_{|u|>0} \sigma_u^2.$$

# Functional ANOVA: Historical Perspective

(Functional) ANOVA has a long history rooted in statistics and applied mathematics:

- ANOVA for tabular data developed by Fisher  
(Fisher, 1919)
- generalized for  $[0, 1]^m$  as U-statistics  
(Hoeffding, 1948)
- generalized for  $[0, 1]^m$  as Sobol' decomposition for Quasi Monte Carlo integration  
(Sobol', 1969)
- popularized for practical sensitivity analysis in applied science and engineering  
(Saltelli et al., 2000)
- revisited in the context of Monte Carlo integration and effective dimensions  
(Caflisch et al., 1997; Liu and Owen, 2006)



R.A. Fisher  
(1890–1962)



W. Hoeffding  
(1914–1991)



I.M. Sobol'  
(1926–)



A. Saltelli  
(1953–)



A. Owen  
(1958–)

Credit: Wikipedia, CC-BY-SA-2.0

## Functional Decomposition

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Application: Global Sensitivity Analysis

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## Summary

Given the variance decomposition of  $f$  into a sum of **partial variances**:

$$\sigma^2 = \sum_{|u|>0} \sigma_u^2,$$

We gain insight into  $f$  (with respect to its inputs) by **aggregating** partial variances into few interpretable numbers.

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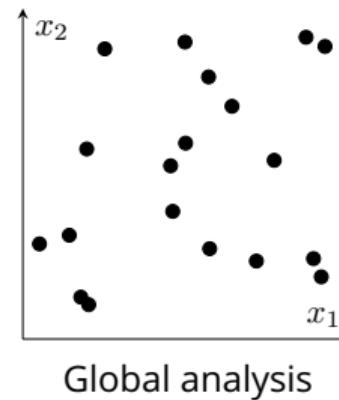
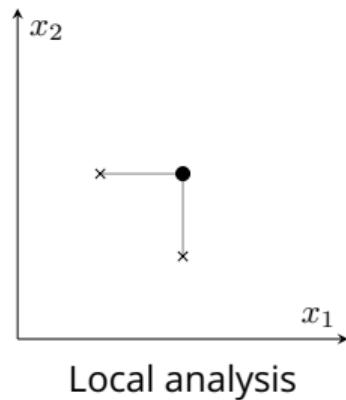
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## Summary

*How variation in the inputs affect the variation in the output of a complex model*

We often distinguish **local analysis** (effects of perturbations around a particular instance) from **global analysis** (variations over all possible instances in the domain).



The **Sobol' main-effect index** is defined as the **main-effect partial variance** of  $x_j$  normalized by the total variance:

$$S_j \equiv \frac{\sigma_{\{j\}}^2}{\sigma^2}.$$

(Sobol', 1993)

This index measures the proportion of the total variance of  $f$  that can be explained **only by**  $x_j$  without any interactions with any other variables.

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This index measures the proportion of the total variance of  $f$  that can be explained **only by**  $x_j$  without any interactions with any other variables.

**Additive function:** Function with

$$\sum_{j=1}^m S_j = 1.0$$

is called additive function, i.e.,

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f_{\emptyset} + \sum_{j=1}^m f_{\{j\}}(x_j).$$

## Sobol' Sensitivity Indices: Total Effect

The **Sobol' total-effect index** is defined as the **total-effect partial variance** of  $x_j$  normalized by the total variance:

$$ST_j \equiv \frac{\bar{\tau}_{\{j\}}^2}{\sigma^2}; \quad \bar{\tau}_{\{j\}}^2 \equiv \sum_{\mathbf{v}: \mathbf{v} \cap \{j\} \neq \emptyset} \sigma_{\mathbf{v}}^2.$$

(Homma and Saltelli, 1996)

This index measures the proportion of the total variance of  $f$  that can be explained by  $x_j$  **and** its interaction with any other variables.

**Example:** For  $\{j\} = \{1\}$  with  $m = 3$ :

$$\bar{\tau}_{\{1\}}^2 = \sum_{\mathbf{v}: \mathbf{v} \cap \{j\} \neq \emptyset} \sigma_{\mathbf{v}}^2 = \sigma_{\{1\}}^2 + \sigma_{\{1,2\}}^2 + \sigma_{\{1,3\}}^2 + \sigma_{\{1,2,3\}}^2.$$

Consider the following two cases:

- $S_j$  is large  $\rightarrow x_j$  is important:  $S_j$  is a measure of a variable **importance**

Setting  $x_j$  to a particular value (thus reducing its variance to zero) will on average reduce the variance of  $f$  significantly.

- $ST_j$  is small  $\leftrightarrow x_j$  is not important:  $ST_j$  is a measure of a variable **non-importance**

Setting  $x_j$  to a particular value (thus reducing its variance to zero) will on average do nothing to the variance of  $f$ .  $x_j$  doesn't matter.

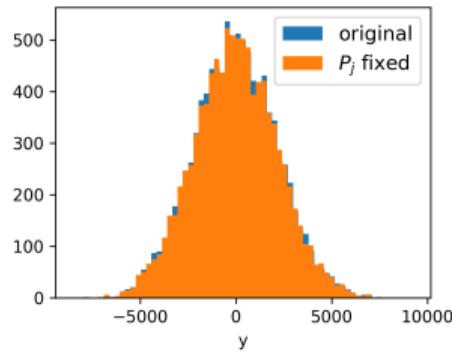
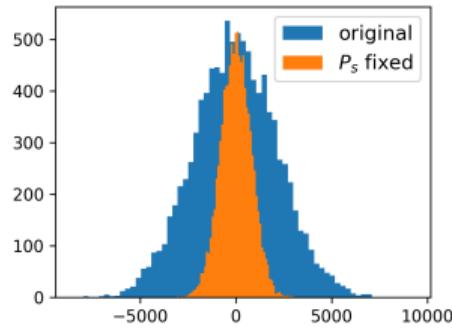
## Example: Simple Portfolio Model

Consider the following 3-dimensional function:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \blacksquare$$

Input	$\rho_X$	$S_j$	$ST_j$
$X_1$	$\mathcal{N}(0.0, 4.0)$	0.861	0.861
$X_2$	$\mathcal{N}(0.0, 2.0)$	0.1376	0.1376
$X_3$	$\mathcal{N}(0.0, 1.0)$	0.0021	0.0021

$X_1$  is the most influential input;  $X_3$  is the non-influential input;  $f$  is additive.



## Example: Simple Portfolio Model

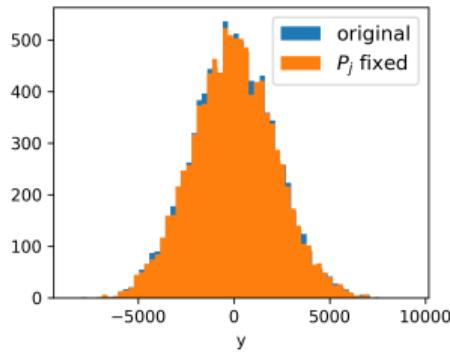
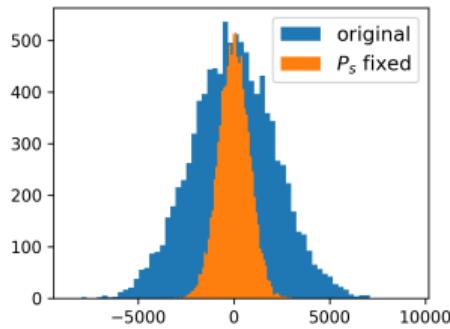
Consider the following 3-dimensional function:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = 500x_1 + 400x_2 + 100x_3$$

(Saltelli et al., 2004)

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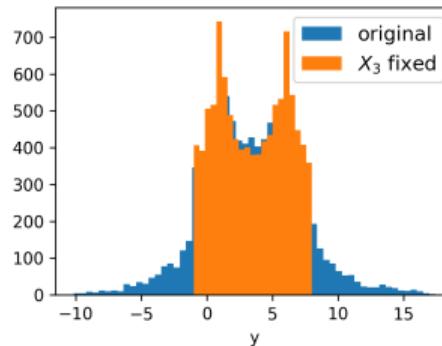
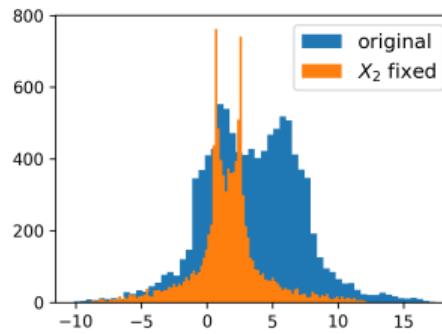
## Example: Ishigami Function

Consider the following 3-dimensional function:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \blacksquare$$

Input	$\rho_X$	$S_j$	$ST_j$
$X_1$	$\mathcal{U}(-\pi, \pi)$	0.314	0.558
$X_2$	$\mathcal{U}(-\pi, \pi)$	0.442	0.442
$X_3$	$\mathcal{U}(-\pi, \pi)$	0.000	0.244

$X_2$  is the most influential input; no input is non-influential;  $f$  is not additive.



## Example: Ishigami Function

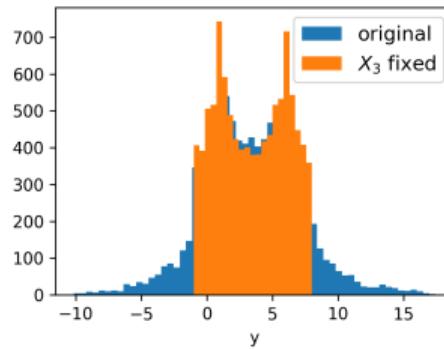
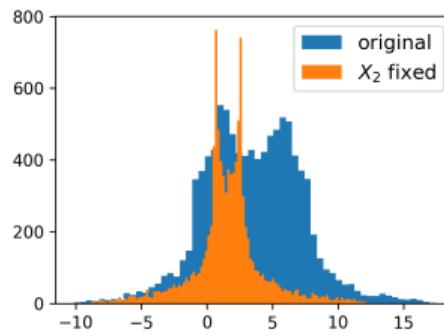
Consider the following 3-dimensional function:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sin(x_1) + 7 \sin(x_2)^2 + 0.1x_3^4 \sin(x_1)$$

(Ishigami and Homma, 1991)

Input	$\rho_X$	$S_j$	$ST_j$
$X_1$	$\mathcal{U}(-\pi, \pi)$	0.314	0.558
$X_2$	$\mathcal{U}(-\pi, \pi)$	0.442	0.442
$X_3$	$\mathcal{U}(-\pi, \pi)$	0.000	0.244

$X_2$  is the most influential input; no input is non-influential;  $f$  is not additive.



## Functional Decomposition

## Functional ANOVA

## Applications

Application: Global Sensitivity Analysis

Application: Effective Dimensions

## Notes on Computation

Notes on Computation: Direct Computation

Notes on Computation: Function Approximations

## Summary

Sobol' indices describe function in few numbers; we can go one step further to characterize functions...

The **nominal dimension** of a function is usually known in advance, but functions often have a lower **effective dimension** than their nominal value.

## Effective Dimension: Superposition Sense

The effective dimension of  $f$  in the **superposition sense** is the smallest integer  $m_s$  such that

$$\sum_{|\mathbf{u}| \leq m_s} \sigma_{\mathbf{u}}^2 \geq p \sigma^2,$$

(Caflisch et al., 1997)

where  $0 < p < 1$ . The choice of  $p$  is arbitrary, but a common choice for  $p$  is 0.99.

The effective dimension in superposition sense is the **maximum order of interactions** one must include in the sum in order to reach the target variance.

For  $m_s = 1$ , the function is purely **additive**.

The effective dimension of  $f$  in the **truncation sense** is the smallest integer  $m_t$  such that

$$\sum_{\mathbf{u} \subseteq [1:m_t]} \sigma_{\mathbf{u}}^2 \geq p \sigma^2.$$

(Caflisch et al., 1997)

where  $0 < p < 1$ . The choice of  $p$  is arbitrary, but a common choice for  $p$  is 0.99. Here we assumed that we order the first  $m_t$  variables with respect to their importance.

The effective dimension in truncation sense is the number of **active input variables** of the function.

## Example: Simple Portfolio Model

Consider the following 3-dimensional function:

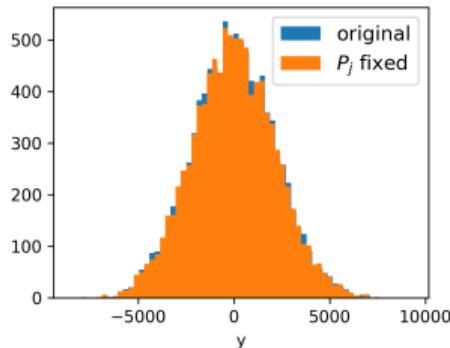
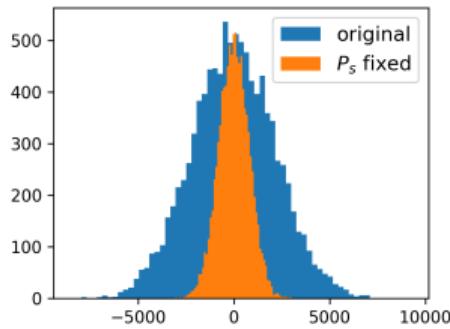
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = 500P_s + 400P_t + 100P_j$$

(Saltelli et al., 2004)

Input	$\rho_X$	$S_j$	$ST_j$
$X_1$	$\mathcal{N}(0.0, 4.0)$	0.861	0.861
$X_2$	$\mathcal{N}(0.0, 2.0)$	0.1376	0.1376
$X_3$	$\mathcal{N}(0.0, 1.0)$	0.0021	0.0021

The effective dimensionalities of this nominally 3D function:

- $m_s = 1$ : Additive function, no interaction
- $m_t = 2$ : One fewer than the nominal dimension



## Example: Ishigami Function

Consider the following 3-dimensional function:

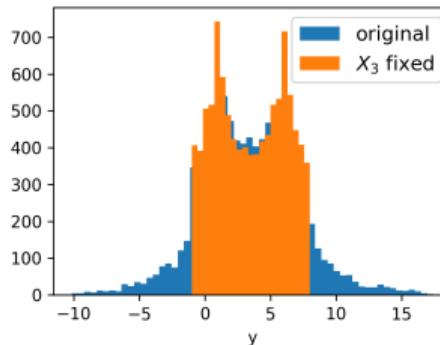
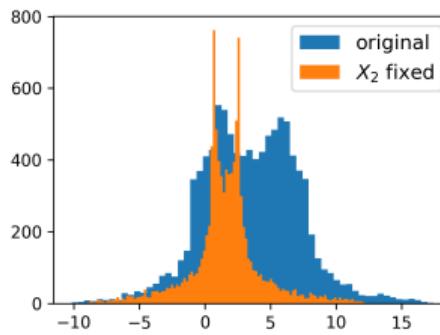
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The effective dimensionalities of this nominally 3D function:

- $m_s = 2$ : Max two-way interaction is required
- $m_t = 3$ : All inputs are influential



## Functional Decomposition

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## Summary

# Partial Variances: Integration Problems

- To compute the Sobol' main-effect indices, we focus on the following partial variances:

$$\sigma_{\{j\}}^2 = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_j}} f_{\{j\}}^2(x_j) \rho_{X_j}(x_j) dx_j, \quad j = 1, \dots, m.$$

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- The following “**trick**” often used in probability calculation is useful:

$$\left( \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \right)^2 = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} f(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z},$$

where we use a dummy variable  $z$  to cast the square integrals as a double integral of two independent variables.

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- The following identity can be proven:

$$\sigma_{\{j\}}^2 = \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}_{\sim\{j\}}}} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} f(\mathbf{x}) f(x_j, \mathbf{z}_{\sim\{j\}}) \rho_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{\mathbf{X}_{\sim\{j\}}}(\mathbf{z}_{\sim\{j\}}) d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{z}_{\sim\{j\}} - f_{\emptyset}^2$$

where  $(x_j, \mathbf{z}_{\sim\{j\}})$  takes the value of input variables that corresponds to the index  $j$  from  $\mathbf{x}$  and in  $\sim\{j\}$  from  $\mathbf{z}$ ;  $f_{\emptyset}$  is the mean of  $f$  (also an integral).

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This is a  $(2m - 1)$ -fold integral!

- To compute the Sobol' total-effect indices, we focus on the following partial variances:

$$\bar{\tau}_{\{j\}}^2 = \sum_{\mathbf{v}: \mathbf{v} \cap \{j\} \neq \emptyset} \sigma_{\mathbf{v}}^2.$$

- The following identity can be proven:

$$\bar{\tau}_{\{j\}}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_j}} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} (f(\mathbf{x}) - f(z_j, \mathbf{x}_{\sim\{j\}})) \rho_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{X_j}(z_j) d\mathbf{x} dz_j,$$

where  $(z_j, \mathbf{x}_{\sim\{j\}})$  takes the value of input variables that corresponds to the index  $j$  from  $\mathbf{z}$  and in  $\sim\{j\}$  from  $\mathbf{x}$ .

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where  $(z_j, \mathbf{x}_{\sim\{j\}})$  takes the value of input variables that corresponds to the index  $j$  from  $\mathbf{z}$  and in  $\sim\{j\}$  from  $\mathbf{x}$ .

This is an  $(m - 1)$ -fold integral!

- To compute the Sobol' main-effect indices, we cast the integral as expectation:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{\{j\}}^2 &= \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}_{\sim\{j\}}}} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} f(\mathbf{x}) f(x_j, \mathbf{z}_{\sim\{j\}}) \rho_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{\mathbf{X}_{\sim\{j\}}}(\mathbf{z}_{\sim\{j\}}) d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{z}_{\sim\{j\}} - f_\emptyset^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}_{\sim\{j\}}} [f(\mathbf{X}) f(X_j, \mathbf{Z}_{\sim\{j\}})] - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}}^2 [f(\mathbf{X})]\end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbb{E}[\cdot]$  is the expectation operator; the subscript indicates the random variable with respect to which the expectation is taken.

- Similarly for the Sobol' total-effect indices:

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{\tau}_{\{j\}}^2 &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{X_j}} \int_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{X}}} (f(\mathbf{x}) - f(z_j, \mathbf{x}_{\sim\{j\}})) \rho_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) \rho_{X_j}(z_j) d\mathbf{x} dz_j \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}, Z_j} \left[ (f(\mathbf{X}) - f(Z_j, \mathbf{X}_{\sim\{j\}}))^2 \right]\end{aligned}$$

Replacing the expectations with sample average:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{\{j\}}^2 &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}_{\sim\{j\}}} [f(\mathbf{X}) f(X_j, \mathbf{Z}_{\sim\{j\}})] - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}}^2 [f(\mathbf{X})] \\ &\approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_j^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}_{\sim\{j\}}^{(i)}) f(x_j^{(i)}, \mathbf{z}_{\sim\{j\}}^{(i)}) - \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \right)^2 \\ \bar{\tau}_{\{j\}}^2 &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}, Z_j} \left[ (f(\mathbf{X}) - f(Z_j, \mathbf{X}_{\sim\{j\}}))^2 \right] \\ &\approx \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left( f(x_j^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}_{\sim\{j\}}^{(i)}) - f(z_j^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}_{\sim\{u\}}^{(i)}) \right)^2\end{aligned}$$

(Saltelli, 2002; Saltelli et al., 2010)

where  $\{\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^N$  and  $\{\mathbf{z}^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^N$  are two independent sets of sample points generated from  $\mathbf{X}$ . The sample variance for normalization can be computed using the same samples.

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Both Sobol' main-effect and total-effect indices for all  $m$  variables can be computed using  $N(m + 2)$  sample points,  $N \sim 10^3 - 10^6$ .

## Functional Decomposition

## Functional ANOVA

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## Summary

Alternatively, we can obtain the full functional ANOVA by expanding the random variable  $Y = f(\mathbf{X})$  using orthogonal polynomial basis:

$$Y = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^m} c_{\alpha} \Psi_{\alpha}(\mathbf{X}), \quad \Psi_{\alpha}(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{j=1}^m \psi_j^{(\alpha_j)}(x_j),$$

where:

- $\alpha$ : a multi-index indicating the degree of the polynomial basis in each dimension
- $c_{\alpha}$ : coefficients
- $\Psi_{\alpha}(\mathbf{X})$ : (multivariate) orthogonal polynomial basis

From orthogonalities:

$$\mathbb{E}[\Psi_{\alpha}(\mathbf{X})] = 0; \quad \mathbb{E}[\Psi_{\alpha}(\mathbf{X})\Psi_{\beta}(\mathbf{X})] = \delta_{\alpha,\beta}$$

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These properties satisfies all what we need from a functional ANOVA decomposition.

# Classical orthogonal polynomials

- Two functions  $g$  and  $h$  are orthogonal w.r.t  $\rho_X$  iff:  $\langle g, h \rangle_{\rho_X} = 0$
- Several classical orthogonal polynomials are known (orthogonality w.r.t classical probability density functions (PDFs))

Name	Symbol	$\rho_X$	Support	Distribution
Legendre	$P^{(p)}(x)$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$[-1, 1]$	Uniform
Hermite	$He^{(p)}(x)$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-x^2/2}$	$(-\infty, \infty)$	Gaussian
Laguerre	$La_a^{(p)}(x)$	$x^a e^{-x}$	$[0, \infty)$	Gamma
Jacobi	$J_{a,b}^{(p)}(x)$	$\frac{(1-x)^\alpha(1+x)^\beta}{B(\alpha+1, \beta+1)}$	$[-1, 1]$	Beta

(Xiu and Karniadakis, 2002)

Orthonormal polynomials are created by dividing them by the square root of their norm



A.-M. Legendre



C. Hermite



E.N. Laguerre



C.G. Jacobi

Credit: Wikipedia, CC-BY-SA-2.0

Given PCE, the moments and partial variances of  $f$  can be obtained analytically:

- Mean

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{X})] = c_{\mathbf{0}}$$

- Variance

$$\mathbb{V}[f(\mathbf{X})] = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^M \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}} c_{\alpha}^2$$

- Partial variances

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{u}}^2 = \sum_{\alpha \in A_{\mathbf{u}}} c_{\alpha}^2; \quad A_{\mathbf{u}} = \{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^M \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\} : \alpha_{j \in \mathbf{u}} \neq 0, \alpha_{j \notin \mathbf{u}} = 0\}$$

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Moments and partial variances are combinations of the coefficients of the expansions.

Sobol' indices can therefore be obtained analytically:

- **Sobol' main-effect indices**

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{u}}^2 = \frac{\sum_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in A_{\{j\}}} c_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}^2}{\mathbb{V}[f(\mathbf{X})]}; \quad A_{\{j\}} = \{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in \mathbb{N}^M \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\} : \alpha_j \neq 0, \alpha_{i \neq j} = 0\}$$

- **Sobol' total-effect indices**

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{u}}^2 = \frac{\sum_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in \bar{A}_{\{j\}}} c_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}^2}{\mathbb{V}[f(\mathbf{X})]}; \quad \bar{A}_{\{j\}} = \{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in \mathbb{N}^M \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\} : \alpha_j \neq 0\}$$

(Sudret, 2008)

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## Summary

- Functional ANOVA is a valuable tool for the **exploratory analysis** of functions.
- Sensitivity measures, such as Sobol' indices, provide concise insights into the **importance of input variables**.
- Effective dimensions offer an even **more compact characterization** of function complexity through a single (or two) numerical value(s).
- Monte Carlo estimation and function approximations are two sides of the same coin.

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**Thank you very much for your attention!**

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