

1 **Copula density-driven Metrics for Sensitivity Analysis: Theory and application to Flow**  
2 **and Transport in porous media.**

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## Abstract

We introduce original sensitivity analysis metrics with the aim of assisting diagnosis of the functioning of a given model. We do so by characterizing model-induced dependencies between a target model output and selected model input(s) through the associated bivariate copula density. The latter fully characterizes the dependencies between two random variables at any order (i.e., without being limited to linear dependence), independent of the marginal behavior of the two variables. As a metric to assess sensitivity, we rely on the absolute distance between the copula density associated with the target model output and a model input and its counterpart associated with two independent variables. We then provide two sensitivity indices which allow characterizing (i) the global (with respect to the input) value of the sensitivity and (ii) the degree of variability (across the range of the input values) of the sensitivity for each value that the prescribed model output can possibly undertake, as driven by the governing model. In this sense, our approach to sensitivity is *global* with respect to model input(s) and *local* with respect to model output, thus enabling one to discriminate the relevance of an input across the entire range of values of the modeling goal of interest. We exemplify the use of our approach and illustrate the type of information it can provide by focusing on an analytical test function and on two scenarios related to flow and transport in porous media.

## Plain Language Summary

Modern models of environmental systems have reached a relatively high level of complexity. The latter aspect could hamper a clear understanding of the way a model functions, i.e., how it drives relationships and dependencies among inputs and outputs of interest. A rigorous Sensitivity Analysis can contribute to solve this issue. We propose here to characterize the nature of pairwise model input-output dependencies through their copula density. The latter enables one to identify the strength of (nonlinear) dependencies between two variables and is independent from the format of their marginal distributions. We also provide two sensitivity indices to characterize, for each value of the model output: (a) the average strength of the model-induced dependencies and (b) the variability of such dependences across the space of any model input parameter. Our methodology can be viewed as *global* with respect to the input and *local* with respect to the output, in the sense that it allows to naturally characterize sensitivity across the entire range of the target model outcomes.

## 1. Introduction

One of the main goals of a Global Sensitivity Analysis (GSA) is to provide enhanced understanding of the model considered to represent a target physical system (e.g., Gupta and Razavi, 2018 and references therein). Within the context of a GSA, the sensitivity of a modeling goal (or model output) to the (often uncertain) model input(s) is evaluated across the entire range(s) of variability of the latter, i.e., globally. This is in contrast to Local Sensitivity Analyses (LSA), where sensitivity is evaluated in the neighborhood of a set of model inputs, i.e., locally (e.g., Pianosi et al., 2016; Razavi and Gupta, 2015). As such, a GSA approach enables us to naturally account for model input uncertainties that are typically encountered in geophysical and hydrological models (e.g., Ceriotti et al., 2019; Di Fusco et al., 2018; Porta et al., 2018; Di Palma et al., 2017; Oladyshkin et al., 2012; Delfs et al., 2009; van Werkhoven et al., 2009; Tebes-Stein and Valocchi, 2000).

The variance-based Sobol' Indices (e.g., Sobol, 2001) represent one of the most widespread GSA metrics. The Principal Sobol' Index associated with a model input is defined as the average (hence its global nature) reduction in the variance of a model output stemming from knowledge of the input, normalized by the unconditional output variance. In this sense, the variance of the model

58 output is at the core of the definition of sensitivity based on Sobol' indices. As such, the latter could  
59 provide at best an incomplete picture of a model behavior in the presence of skewed and/or heavy  
60 tailed probability density functions (*pdf*) of the output of interest, i.e., when the variance is an  
61 incomplete descriptor of the output uncertainty. Moment-independent GSAs (e.g., Pianosi and  
62 Wagner, 2015; Borgonovo, 2007) have been developed to cope with this issue. These approaches  
63 introduce a sensitivity metric which corresponds to a suitable distance between the unconditional *pdf*  
64 (or the cumulative distribution function, *CDF*) and its counterpart conditional to model input(s)  
65 values. The global nature of the sensitivity analysis is ensured by averaging this sensitivity metric  
66 across the support of the (random) model input(s). Along the same lines, an Information Theory-  
67 based GSA (Krzykacz-Hausmann, 2001) identifies sensitivity as the mutual information (i.e., a  
68 measure of the dependence among two variables; see e.g., Chang et al., 2016) between a model input  
69 and an output, normalized by the entropy of the latter. Mutual Information coincides with the  
70 difference between (a) the entropy of the unconditional model output *pdf* and (b) the averaged (with  
71 respect to the input) entropy of the model output *pdf* conditional to the input. The recently developed  
72 moment-based GSA (Dell'Oca et al., 2017) allows characterizing global sensitivity in terms of  
73 diverse features of the *pdf* of the output, as rendered by its statistical moments. Note that all of the  
74 methodologies illustrated above ground sensitivity on the comparison between conditional and  
75 unconditional features of the *pdf* (or *CDF*) of the modeling goal of interest.

76 Another aspect of sensitivity is tackled through the evaluation of a measure of the variations of  
77 the model output associated with corresponding changes in the model input(s). For example,  
78 approaches based on the Morris' Indices (Morris, 1991) or on the Distributed Evaluation of LSA  
79 (DELSA; Rakovec et al., 2014) essentially rest on the (local) concept of derivative to evaluate the  
80 strength of the variations imprinted to model outputs by input variations. The resulting metric is then  
81 subject to averaging across the input(s) space of variability, to render a global nature of the analysis.  
82 The VARS (Razavi and Gupta, 2016) approach introduces a measure of the variations by relying on  
83 the concept of variogram, as applied to the model response surface. The latter approach allows  
84 discerning the output-input(s) sensitivity over diverse scales of input(s) variability.

85 A third category of GSAs relies on the concept of correlation (e.g., Pearson Correlation  
86 Coefficient (CC), partial CC, Spearman Rank CC, or partial Rank CC; see e.g., Marino et al., 2009)  
87 between input and output. Along a similar line of approach, regression-based GSAs rescale the  
88 coefficient(s) of a regression expression between input(s) and model output to quantify the sensitivity  
89 of the latter with respect to the former (e.g., Pianosi et al., 2016 and reference therein). Xiao et al.,  
90 (2018) introduce a correlation index relying on the concept of distance correlation (Székely et al.,  
91 2007) to assist sensitivity analyses in the case of multivariate model output. Da Veiga (2015)  
92 illustrates how diverse sensitivity indices (e.g., the principal Sobol' index, the moment-independent  
93 index of Borgonovo (2007), or the index proposed by Krzykacz-Hausmann (2001) and grounded on  
94 mutual information) can be obtained as special cases of a general dissimilarity measure between  
95 unconditional and conditional *pdfs* of a model output. Lozzo and Marrel (2016) provide a study of  
96 diverse measures of dependence in the context of sensitivity analyses, focusing on the screening of  
97 model inputs.

98 Crick et al. (1987) highlight the distinction between *important* and *sensitive* model inputs,  
99 where the former are those whose uncertainty has the largest contributions to the output uncertainty,  
100 the latter being those having a significant influence on the output. Hamby (1994) remarks that an  
101 important input is always a sensitive one, while the opposite may not hold in case there is only little  
102 uncertainty about the input. In this context, GSA methodologies of the first category illustrated above  
103 could be viewed as more oriented towards quantification of importance of input(s), while

104 methodologies of the other categories are interpreted as more oriented towards a characterization of  
105 the input influence, even as this type of distinction might not always be sharply delineated.

106 All of the GSA approaches illustrated above quantify the global sensitivity (or importance) of  
107 a model input to an output through summary indices/coefficients. In this sense, there is a unique value  
108 for a sensitivity index across the whole range of values the model output ( $y$ ) can possibly undertake  
109 and these GSA approaches do not enable one to answer questions such as “Is sensitivity stronger for  
110 low or high values of the output?”, or “Are there regions (or values) in the space of variability of the  
111 output, as driven by the structure of the model employed, that are not sensitive to one or more model  
112 inputs?”. Answer to these kinds of questions are intimately tied to a variety of studies (e.g., risk  
113 assessment and decision making under uncertainty) which are routinely conducted for hydrological  
114 systems. Here, we propose an original complement to the category of GSA approaches, aimed at  
115 characterizing sensitivity (following the definition of Crick et al., 1987) for each specific value that  
116  $y$  can be possibly undertaken. We accomplish this by defining two sensitivity indices (for each value  
117 of  $y$ ) grounded on the intensity/strength of the dependencies that the employed model induces  
118 between input and target output.

119 To characterize the input-output dependencies, we rely on elements of the theory underpinning  
120 bivariate copula. The latter has the key advantage of revealing the dependencies between two  
121 variables at any order (i.e., without being limited to a linear dependence) and regardless of the format  
122 of their marginal *CDFs*. We leverage on the bivariate copula density (e.g., Nelsen 2013; Bárdossy,  
123 2006) between the target model output and each of the model inputs to quantify the dependencies  
124 induced by the model of choice. We define a suitable metric to measure sensitivity in this context and  
125 provide two distinct SA indices that allow characterizing (i) the global (with respect to the space of  
126 variability of model input) intensity of the sensitivity and (ii) the degree of variability of the output  
127 sensitivity across the range of values of the input, both aspects being evaluated for each value that the  
128 model output can assume.

129 While the approach we present can be transferred to diagnose models describing various  
130 hydrological and environmental scenarios, we exemplify its salient elements by (i) considering an  
131 analytical test function, which enables us to illustrate the type of information we can obtain under  
132 completely controlled conditions, and then (ii) focusing on two relatively simple scenarios which  
133 have been previously studied and are associated with the evaluation of the critical pumping rate that  
134 can be extracted from a well placed in a coastal aquifer (Pool and Carrera, 2011) and a laboratory-  
135 scale setting employed to analyze conservative transport within a heterogeneous porous medium  
136 (Esfandiar et al., 2015).

## 137 2. Methodology

138 Here we recall some basic concepts of bivariate copula (Section 2.1) and illustrate the main  
139 theoretical and operational elements of our GSA approach (Section 2.2).

### 140 2.1 Bivariate Copula

141 A function  $C : [0,1]^2 \rightarrow [0,1]$  is defined as a bivariate copula when  $C$  is a joint *CDF* of a two-  
142 dimensional random vector  $(u_1, u_2)$  on the support  $[0, 1]^2$  with uniform marginals (e.g., Nelsen, 2013)

$$143 C(u_1, u_2) = \Pr(U_1 \leq u_1, U_2 \leq u_2), \quad (1)$$

144 where  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  are two random variables whose marginal *CDFs* are uniform.

145 Following Sklar (1973), a continuous bivariate joint *CDF*,  $F(\psi_1, \psi_2)$ , between two random  
 146 variables  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$  can be represented through a bivariate copula, i.e.,

$$147 \quad F(\psi_1, \psi_2) = C(F_{\psi_1}(\psi_1), F_{\psi_2}(\psi_2)), \quad (2)$$

148  $F_{\psi_1}(\psi_1)$  and  $F_{\psi_2}(\psi_2)$  being the marginal *CDFs* of  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$ , respectively.

149 The copula  $C$  in (2) is unique only if  $F_{\psi_1}(\psi_1)$  and  $F_{\psi_2}(\psi_2)$  are continuous, being otherwise  
 150 uniquely determined on the support  $Ran F_{\psi_1} \times Ran F_{\psi_2}$ ,  $Ran$  denoting range (e.g., Sklar, 1996).  
 151 Considering the equivalence between  $u_i$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ) in (1) and  $F_{\psi_i}(\psi_i)$  in (2), one can see that a given  
 152 bivariate copula  $C(u_1, u_2)$  can be associated with diverse formats for the marginal *CDFs*, i.e.,  
 153  $F_{\psi_1}(\psi_1)$  and  $F_{\psi_2}(\psi_2)$ . In other words, a bivariate copula encapsulates the dependences between two  
 154 random variables regardless the format of their marginal distributions. Additionally, a bivariate  
 155 copula can be used to describe dependencies between two random variables at any order, without  
 156 being confined to first-order or linear relationships (as embedded, e.g., in the Pearson correlation  
 157 coefficient; see e.g., Most et al., 2016). According to Bárdossy (2006), inspection of the bivariate  
 158 copula density, i.e.,

$$159 \quad c(F_{\psi_1}(\psi_1), F_{\psi_2}(\psi_2)) = \frac{\partial^2 C(F_{\psi_1}(\psi_1), F_{\psi_2}(\psi_2))}{\partial F_{\psi_1}(\psi_1) \partial F_{\psi_2}(\psi_2)}, \quad (3)$$

160 yields improved and straightforward understanding of the dependencies between  $F_{\psi_1}(\psi_1)$  and  
 161  $F_{\psi_2}(\psi_2)$  (and thus between  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$ ). Regions of high/low value of the copula density are  
 162 characterized by a strong/weak dependence between the corresponding values of the two random  
 163 variables. Given its powerful and convenient properties to characterize a model-induced dependence  
 164 between uncertain model inputs and a target output, we select the copula density as the basic  
 165 descriptor upon which we ground our GSA.

## 166 2.2 Global Sensitivity Metrics based on copula density

167 In this study we structure our GSA according to the following four steps:

168 (i) we select the bivariate copula density, i.e.,  $c(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y))$ , between the  $n$ -th uncertain  
 169 model input parameter,  $\Theta_n$ , and the model output of interest,  $Y$ , as the descriptor underpinning SA;

170 (ii) we take the copula density associated with two statistically independent random variables,  
 171 i.e.,  $c = 1$ , as the reference value for the descriptor. Note that this choice renders a general, i.e., model  
 172 independent, value for the reference descriptor;

173 (iii) we propose a simple metric to quantify sensitivity, i.e.,  $|1 - c(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y))|$ . Note that  
 174 this metric has a local nature w.r.t. both the input and the output, i.e., it is defined for each  $F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$   
 175 and  $F_Y(y)$ ;

176 (iv) we provide and evaluate two copula-based Global (w.r.t. the input) Sensitivity indices, as  
 177 described in the following by (4) and (6).

178 The first copula-based Global Sensitivity index,  $I_{\Theta_n}$ , is defined as

$$179 \quad I_{\Theta_n} = \frac{1}{2} E_{F_{\Theta_n}} \left[ \left| 1 - c(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y)) \right| \right] \quad \text{with} \quad E_{F_{\Theta_n}}[\xi] = \int_{[0,1]} \xi dF_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n). \quad (4)$$

180 Index  $I_{\Theta_n}$  is directly related to the expected value (w.r.t.  $F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$ ) of the absolute distance between  
 181 the copula density of two independent random variables and the copula density of the random  
 182 variables  $\Theta_n$  and  $Y$ ,  $c(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y))$ . Note that  $c(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y))$  quantifies the dependencies  
 183 between  $\Theta_n$  and  $Y$ , as imprinted by the selected model. One can see that  $I_{\Theta_n}$  is a function of  $F_Y(y)$ ,  
 184 i.e.,  $I_{\Theta_n}$  enables us to quantify the averaged (across all values of  $F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$ ) dependencies between  $Y$   
 185 and  $\Theta_n$  when varying  $F_Y(y)$ . For example, if  $I_{\Theta_n} = 0$  for some values of  $F_Y(y)$ , the associated values  
 186 of  $Y$  are not sensitive to any of the values of  $\Theta_n$  (i.e., the former are independent from the latter).  
 187 Otherwise, if  $I_{\Theta_n} = 1$  for some  $F_Y(y)$ , then the copula exhibits singular components for these  $F_Y(y)$   
 188 (e.g., Nelsen, 2013; Chang et al., 2016; Durante et al., 2013), i.e., for these  $F_Y(y)$ , the specific value  
 189 of the model output,  $Y$ , is dictated by that of  $\Theta_n$ . Correspondences of the latter kind can be readily  
 190 detected by (a) the direct analysis of the model at hand and/or (b) visual inspection of the scatter plot  
 191 among the Grades of  $\Theta_n$ ,  $\text{Grade}(\theta_n)$ , and of  $Y$ ,  $\text{Grade}(y)$  (see also Section 3.1). We recall that Grades  
 192 are the population analogs of ranks (see also Section 2.1) and a scatterplot among Grades can be  
 193 reconstructed also when the copula density displays singularities.

194 Note that index  $I_{\Theta_n}$  does not provide information about the degree of variability of the  
 195 sensitivity metric, i.e.,  $\left| 1 - c(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y)) \right|$ , across  $F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$  for diverse values of  $F_Y(y)$ . For  
 196 example, it is possible that the same value  $I_{\Theta_n}$  can be associated with two distinct values of  $F_Y(y)$ ,  
 197 one of which being characterized by a strong dependency that is concentrated within a narrow range  
 198 of  $F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$  (i.e., given  $F_Y(y)$ ,  $c(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y))$  displays high values only for a narrow range of  
 199  $F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$ ), the other one displaying a milder dependence that is otherwise more uniformly distributed  
 200 across the entire range of  $F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$  (i.e., given  $F_Y(y)$ ,  $c(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y))$  exhibits a mild  
 201 strength/intensity over a broad range of  $F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$ ).

202 A straightforward quantification of the degree of variability in the sensitivity of  $F_Y(y)$  across  
 203 the range of values of  $F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$  can be obtained by considering a companion index, defined as the  
 204 standard deviation (in the space of  $F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$ ) of  $\left| 1 - c(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y)) \right|$ , i.e.,

$$205 \quad \tilde{I}_{\Theta_n}^* = \sigma_{F_{\Theta_n}} \left[ \left| 1 - c(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y)) \right| \right] \quad \text{with} \quad \sigma_{F_{\Theta_n}}[\xi] = \sqrt{\int_{[0,1]} \left( \xi - E_{F_{\Theta_n}}[\xi] \right)^2 dF_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)}. \quad (5)$$

206 As a limiting case, one can note that  $\tilde{I}_{\Theta_n}^* = 0$  when  $F_Y(y)$  is insensitive to all  $F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$  (i.e.,  
 207  $\left| 1 - c(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y)) \right| = 0, \forall F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$ ). Otherwise,  $\tilde{I}_{\Theta_n}^* \rightarrow \infty$  for values  $F_Y(y)$  for which the copula  
 208 exhibits singular components. The latter aspect prompts us to introduce the following index

209  $I_{\Theta_n}^* = 1 - e^{-\tilde{I}_{\Theta_n}^*}$ . (6)

210 The latter ranges between zero (when  $\tilde{I}_{\Theta_n}^* = 0$ ) and one (when  $\tilde{I}_{\Theta_n}^* \rightarrow \infty$ ), thus allowing a  
 211 straightforward comparison among values of the indices related to diverse (uncertain) model inputs.

212 Note that indices described by (4) and (6) provide a way to characterize sensitivity (a) in a local  
 213 fashion (i.e., for each  $F_Y(y)$  with respect to model output) and (b) globally (i.e., across all values of  
 214  $F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)$ ) with respect to model input(s). Note that, even as the indices (4) and (6) are defined in terms  
 215 of  $F_Y(y)$ , the information they provide can be readily mapped in terms of  $y$ . For completeness, it is  
 216 worth noting that averaging index  $I_{\Theta_n}$  w.r.t.  $F_Y(y)$  yields the copula-based coefficient of correlation  
 217 proposed by Chang et al. (2016).

218 We remark that the sensitivity metric introduced in the context of the density-based sensitivity  
 219 analysis (see, e.g., Borgonovo, 2007; Borgonovo et al., 2016) is defined as  
 220  $|p_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)p_Y(y) - p_{\Theta_n,Y}(\theta_n,y)|$ , where  $p_{\Theta_n,Y}(\theta_n,y)$  is the bivariate *pdf* between the input  $\Theta_n$  and the  
 221 output  $Y$  and  $p_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n)p_Y(y)$  is its counterpart under the assumption that  $\Theta_n$  and  $Y$  are independent.  
 222 Such a metric is then averaged (and multiplied by 1/2) with respect to both  $\Theta_n$  and  $Y$ , resulting in the  
 223 so-called  $\delta_{\Theta_n}$  index (see Appendix B). Thus, index  $\delta_{\Theta_n}$  is rooted in the concept of model-induced  
 224 dependences between input and output (e.g.,  $\delta_{\Theta_n} = 0$  if  $\Theta_n$  and  $Y$  are uncorrelated), similar to  $I_{\Theta_n}$   
 225 and  $I_{\Theta_n}^*$ . Whereas dependences in the former are defined in the  $(\theta_n, Y)$  space, the latter considers the  
 226  $(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y))$  space. Otherwise, we note that  $\delta_{\Theta_n}$  is a global sensitivity index w.r.t. both the input  
 227 and the output and focuses on the averaged value of the sensitivity metric, while not being conducive  
 228 to capturing possible variations of the latter as a function of either  $\Theta_n$  or  $Y$ . As such, indices  $\delta_{\Theta_n}$ ,  $I_{\Theta_n}$   
 229 and  $I_{\Theta_n}^*$  are not overlapping and can be employed in conjunction for a comprehensive characterization  
 230 of input-output sensitivity.

### 231 3. Examples of Applications

232 This section is devoted to the exemplification of the GSA methodology illustrated in Section 2  
 233 to provide evidence of its added value with respect to traditional GSA approaches. We do so through  
 234 three simplified models, corresponding to an analytical test function, and two scenarios previously  
 235 presented in the literature and related to flow and transport in porous media. These correspond to a  
 236 setting representing pumping in a coastal aquifer and a laboratory-scale solute transport experiment  
 237 within a heterogeneous porous medium. These examples enable us to clearly document the salient  
 238 features and capabilities of the GSA approach we present.

239 While applications of our GSA methodology to scenarios of flow and transport in porous media  
 240 characterized by an increased level of complexity will be considered in future studies, we recall that  
 241 a possible constrain to the efficiency of our (as well as any other) GSA methodology could be related  
 242 to computational issues. These are expected to pose some constraints depending on the interplay  
 243 between (a) the degree of complexity of the physical setting analyzed, and/or (b) the number of  
 244 uncertain model input parameters considered. As such, in some cases the development of a reduced-  
 245 complexity (or surrogate) model might be required to represent the relationship between uncertain  
 246 model input(s) and modeling goals at an affordable cost.

247 Evaluation of the bivariate copula density,  $c(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y))$ , relies on the following steps.  
 248 We start by drawing (within the input parameter space) a set of Monte Carlo samples at which the  
 249 output of interest is evaluated through the model considered. The two-dimensional space  
 250  $(F_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n), F_Y(y))$  is then populated and the associated numerical bivariate copula density is evaluated  
 251 through a kernel density estimator. Here, we employ the diffusion-kernel method of Botev et al.  
 252 (2010) which provides high quality results at affordable computational costs, other methodologies  
 253 being fully compatible with our framework of analysis. We note that an analytical formulation for the  
 254 bivariate copula could also be employed, given that the input-output dependences induced by the  
 255 model are satisfactorily captured. Once the bivariate copula density is evaluated, indices  $I_{\Theta_n}$  and  $I_{\Theta_n}^*$   
 256 can be readily computed through (4)-(6). For completeness, in Appendix B we also evaluate diverse  
 257 GSA indices for the three models we consider and illustrate in the following. Results for each of these  
 258 models are grounded on a set of  $10^6$  Monte Carlo samples.

### 259 3.1. Analytical Test Function

260 As a first illustrative example, we focus on the following analytical test model

$$261 Y = \begin{cases} X_1 + X_2 & \text{if } X_1 + X_2 \leq 1 \\ 1 + X_3 & \text{if } X_1 + X_2 > 1 \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

262  $(X_1, X_2, X_3)$  being independent random variables uniformly distributed within the support  $[0,1]$ . We  
 263 choose model (7) in light of its simplicity and to exemplify our methodology in the case where an  
 264 input-output copula exhibits singular components, i.e., the bivariate copula between  $F_{X_3}(x_3)$  and  
 265  $F_Y(y)$  in this setting. Note that, according to (7),  $c(F_{X_1}(x_1), F_Y(y)) = c(F_{X_2}(x_2), F_Y(y))$ , and therefore  
 266  $I_{X_1} = I_{X_2}$ ,  $I_{X_1}^* = I_{X_2}^*$ .

267 Fig. 1 depicts (a)  $I_{X_i}$  (with  $i = 1, 2, 3$ ) versus  $F_Y(y)$ ; (b)  $F_Y(y)$  versus  $y$ ; (c)  $I_{X_i}^*$  versus  $F_Y(y)$ ;  
 268 (d) the empirical copula densities  $c(F_{X_1}(x_1), F_Y(y))$ ; (e) the sensitivity descriptor  
 269  $|1 - c(F_{X_1}(x_1), F_Y(y))|$  versus  $F_{X_1}(x_1)$  for three selected value of  $F_Y(y)$ ; and (f) the scatter plot of  
 270  $\text{Grade}(x_3)$  versus  $\text{Grade}(y)$ .

271 The structure of model (7) reveals that  $Y$  does not depend on  $X_3$  when  $Y \leq 1$ . This observation  
 272 is supported by joint inspection of Fig. 1b, which reveals that  $F_Y(y=1) = 0.5$ , and of Fig. 1f, which  
 273 indicates that values of  $\text{Grade}(y) \leq 0.5$  (i.e.,  $Y \leq 1$ ) are independent from  $\text{Grade}(x_3)$ . Otherwise, when  
 274  $\text{Grade}(y) \geq 0.5$  (i.e.,  $Y > 1$ ) there is a one-to-one correspondence between values of  $\text{Grade}(y)$  and  
 275  $\text{Grade}(x_3)$  (i.e., between  $Y$  and  $X_3$ ), as expected from the structure of model (7). This means that the  
 276 copula between  $F_Y(y)$  and  $F_{X_3}(x_3)$  exhibits singular components for  $F_Y(y) > 0.5$ . These  
 277 observations lead us to conclude that  $I_{X_3}(F_Y(y) \leq 0.5) = 0$  and  $I_{X_3}(F_Y(y) > 0.5) = 1$  as displayed by  
 278 Fig. 1a, i.e.,  $Y$  values associated with  $F_Y(y) \leq 0.5$  are not sensitive to  $X_3$ , while the ensuing values  
 279 of  $Y$  associated with  $F_Y(y) > 0.5$  depend solely on  $X_3$ . At the same time, it is possible to recognize  
 280 that  $I_{X_3}^*(F_Y(y) \leq 0.5) = 0$  and  $I_{X_3}^*(F_Y(y) > 0.5) = 1$  (see Fig. 1c), i.e.,  $Y$  values associated with  
 281  $F_Y(y) \leq 0.5$  have a uniform level of (null) sensitivity to  $X_3$  while the level of inhomogeneity in the



282 sensitivity of each  $Y > 1$  (i.e.,  $F_Y(y) > 0.5$ ) across the range of  $X_3$  is largest, because model (7)  
 283 induces a one-to-one correspondence between  $X_3$  (i.e.,  $F_{X_3}(x_3)$ ) and  $Y > 1$  (i.e.,  $F_Y(y) > 0.5$ ). We  
 284 underline that our numerical evaluation of  $c(F_{X_3}(x_3), F_Y(y))$  is in agreement with its theoretical  
 285 counterpart (i.e., for  $F_Y(y) \leq 0.5$ ,  $c(F_{X_3}(x_3), F_Y(y)) = 1 \quad \forall F_{X_3}(x_3)$ ; and for  $F_Y(y) > 0.5$ ,  
 286  $c(F_{X_3}(x_3), F_Y(y)) \rightarrow \infty$  for  $F_{X_3}(x_3) = 2F_Y(y) - 1$ , while  $c(F_{X_3}(x_3), F_Y(y)) = 0$  elsewhere), despite the  
 287 challenges posed by the numerical evaluation of the singular components of the copula density in this  
 288 case (details not shown). These findings provide further support to the robustness of the numerical  
 289 procedure employed to estimate the empirical copula densities.

290 Inspection of Figs 1a, c reveals that indices  $I_{X_1}$  (and therefore  $I_{X_2}$ ) and  $I_{X_1}^*$  (and  $I_{X_2}^*$ ) have a  
 291 non-zero constant value for  $F_Y(y) > 0.5$ . This behavior descends from the observation that even as  
 292  $X_3$  dictates the specific value of  $Y$  when  $Y > 1$  (i.e., the value of  $F_Y(y)$  for  $F_Y(y) > 0.5$ ), the latter is  
 293 sensitive to  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  (i.e., to  $F_{X_1}(x_1)$  and  $F_{X_2}(x_2)$ ) through the fulfillment of the condition  
 294  $X_1 + X_2 > 1$  in (7). The constant value of  $I_{X_1}$  (or  $I_{X_2}$ ) for all  $F_Y(y) > 0.5$  stems from the threshold-  
 295 nature of this condition, i.e., the values of  $Y$  associated with  $F_Y(y) > 0.5$  are all equally sensitive to  
 296 the fulfillment of the threshold condition in (7). The non-zero constant value of  $I_{X_1}^*$  (or  $I_{X_2}^*$ ) for  
 297  $F_Y(y) > 0.5$  is related to the observation that the threshold condition is more easily satisfied for a  
 298 high rather than for a low value of  $X_1$  (or  $X_2$ ) (i.e., the strength of the sensitivity of each  $Y > 1$  varies  
 299 across the support of  $X_1$  (or  $X_2$ ), see also Fig. 1d for  $F_Y(y) > 0.5$ ).

300 The behavior of  $I_{X_1}$  and  $I_{X_1}^*$  (as well as  $I_{X_2}$  and  $I_{X_2}^*$ ) for  $F_Y(y) \leq 0.5$  is related to the  
 301 admissible values of  $X_1$  (or  $X_2$ ) for which  $Y \leq 1$  is fulfilled. Model (7) dictates that values of both  
 302 inputs  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  must be low to yield low values of  $Y$  (i.e., low  $F_Y(y)$ ), this feature yielding a  
 303 strong dependence only for few values of the inputs. As  $Y$  increases towards unity,  $I_{X_1}$  decreases  
 304 because there is an increase of the number of values of  $X_1$  that are compatible with the condition  $Y$   
 305  $\leq 1$  (thus leading to a decreased strength of the dependence between specific value of  $Y$  and  $X_1$ , as  
 306 also shown in Fig. 1d). At the same time, index  $I_{X_1}^*$  first decreases (i.e., the sensitivity metric  
 307  $|1 - c(F_{X_1}(x_1), F_Y(y))|$  becomes more uniform across the whole range of  $X_1$  values), and then  
 308 increase until  $F_Y(y) = 0.3$ , to then decrease again upon approaching  $F_Y(y) = 0.5$ . This behavior  
 309 stems from the fact that, as  $F_Y(y)$  increases (from 0 to 0.5) the copula density  $c(F_{X_1}(x_1), F_Y(y))$  (i)  
 310 is larger than zero for a widening range of  $F_{X_1}(x_1)$  values. At the same time,  $c(F_{X_1}(x_1), F_Y(y))$  (i)  
 311 is independent of  $F_{X_1}(x_1)$  for a given  $0.0 \leq F_Y(y) \leq 0.5$  and (ii) decreases monotonically towards 1.0  
 312 as  $F_Y(y)$  approaches 0.5. This aspect is further elucidated by Fig. 1e, showing that the variability of  
 313 the descriptor  $|1 - c(F_{X_1}(x_1), F_Y(y))|$  around its mean value does not monotonically increase/decrease  
 314 with  $F_Y(y)$ .

### 315 3.2 Critical Pumping Rate in a Coastal Aquifer

316 We consider here the critical pumping rate ( $Q'_c$ ) that can be extracted from a fully penetrating  
 317 pumping well operating in a homogenous confined coastal aquifer of uniform thickness ( $b'$ ) to ensure  
 318 that a concentration of dissolved salt not exceeding 1% is detected at the well. The well is placed at  
 319 a distance  $X'_w$  from the coastline and a constant freshwater flux ( $q'_f$ ) is flowing from the inland to  
 320 the coastline. The (dimensionless) critical pumping rate ( $Q_c = Q'_c / (b' X'_w q'_f)$ ) can then be  
 321 approximated through (Pool and Carrera, 2011)

$$322 \lambda_D = 2 \left[ 1 - \frac{Q_c}{\pi} \right]^{1/2} + \frac{Q_c}{\pi} \ln \frac{1 - (1 - Q_c / \pi)^{1/2}}{1 + (1 - Q_c / \pi)^{1/2}} \quad \text{with} \quad \lambda_D = \frac{\Delta \rho' 1 - (PE_T)^{-1/6}}{\rho'_f X_w J}, \quad (8)$$

323 where  $X_w = X'_w / b'$ ;  $J = q'_f / K'$ ;  $PE_T = b' / \alpha'_T$ ;  $K'$  is the hydraulic conductivity of the aquifer;  $\alpha'_T$   
 324 is transverse dispersivity;  $\Delta \rho' = \rho'_s - \rho'_f$ ,  $\rho'_f$  and  $\rho'_s$  being the density of freshwater and saltwater,  
 325 respectively. Note that (8) has been derived in the range of  $\lambda_D \in [0 - 10]$ . Further details about the  
 326 problem setting, boundary and initial conditions, as well as geometrical configuration of the system,  
 327 can be found in Pool and Carrera (2011).

328 Our scope here is to investigate the results of our copula density-based GSA for  $Q_c$ . We  
 329 consider  $PE_T \in [0.01 - 0.1]$ ,  $J \in [0.8 - 2.5] \times 10^{-3}$ , and  $X_w \in [10 - 33]$  as uncertain model parameters  
 330 in (8). It should be noted that in practical applications the values of  $PE_T$  and  $J$  are difficult to assess  
 331 experimentally, the variability in the well location being considered as an operational/design variable.  
 332 The selected ranges of parameter uncertainty have also been used by Dell'Oca et al. (2017) in the  
 333 context of their moment-based GSA and are designed to (i) resemble realistic field values and (ii)  
 334 obey the above-mentioned constraint about  $\lambda_D$ .

335 Fig. 2 depicts (a)  $I_{\Theta_n}$  (with  $\Theta_n = PE_T, X_w$ , and  $J$ ) versus  $F_{Q_c}(q_c)$ ; (b)  $F_{Q_c}(q_c)$  versus  $q_c$ ;  
 336 (c)  $I_{\Theta_n}^*$  versus  $F_{Q_c}(q_c)$ ; and the empirical copula densities (d)  $c(F_{PE_T}(pe_T), F_{Q_c}(q_c))$ , (e)  
 337  $c(F_{X_w}(x_w), F_{Q_c}(q_c))$ , and (f)  $c(F_J(j), F_{Q_c}(q_c))$ . Figs 2a, c show that  $I_J \approx I_{X_w}$  and  $I_J^* \approx I_{X_w}^*$  for any  
 338 value of  $F_{Q_c}(q_c)$ . This result is consistent with (i) the format of (8), showing that  $Q_c$  varies in the  
 339 same (nonlinear) way due to variability of  $X_w$  or  $J$ , and (ii) the adoption of a very similar coefficient  
 340 of variation for both  $X_w$  and  $J$  ( $\approx 0.31$  and  $0.30$  for  $X_w$  and  $J$ , respectively). A similar reasoning  
 341 underpins the observation that  $c(F_J(j), F_{Q_c}(q_c)) \approx c(F_{X_w}(x_w), F_{Q_c}(q_c))$  (see Figs 2e, f). It is also noted  
 342 that the sensitivity of the intermediate values of  $F_{Q_c}(q_c)$  is less intense (i.e., with reduced values for  
 343  $I_J$  and  $I_{X_w}$ ) and more uniform with respect to either  $F_J(j)$  or  $F_{X_w}(x_w)$  (note the low values of  $I_J^*$   
 344 and  $I_{X_w}^*$ ) as compared to the behavior displayed for high and low values of  $F_{Q_c}(q_c)$ . As an additional  
 345 result, we note that  $I_{PE_T} < I_J$  (or  $I_{X_w}$ ), and  $I_{PE_T}^* < I_J^*$  (or  $I_{X_w}^*$ ) for all  $F_{Q_c}(q_c)$ , i.e., the sensitivity of  
 346 each  $F_{Q_c}(q_c)$  to  $F_{PE_T}(pe_T)$  is always less strong and more uniform than its counterpart associated  
 347 with  $F_J(j)$  or  $F_{X_w}(x_w)$  despite the large coefficient of variation adopted for  $PE_T$  ( $\approx 0.47$ ). This result  
 348 is due to the format of the model employed (8). Finally, it is also worth noting that values of indices  
 349  $I_{PE_T}$  and  $I_{PE_T}^*$  are highest for  $F_{Q_c}(q_c) \rightarrow 0$ , such values being quite close to their counterparts  
 350 associated with  $F_J(j)$  and  $F_{X_w}(x_w)$ . This aspect is linked to the high intensity of  
 351  $c(F_{PE_T}(pe_T), F_{Q_c}(q_c))$  for low  $F_{PE_T}(pe_T)$  (see Fig. 2d).

352 Our results are consistent with an interpretation of the system behavior according to which the  
 353 intensity of the dispersion mechanism does not play a marked role in comparison to the role of  $J$  and  
 354  $X_w$  when high values of the pumping rate at the well can be extracted. This observation is in

355 agreement with the intuition that high values of pumping flow rate are allowed only when the intensity  
356 of the incoming freshwater, the overall thickness of the system and/or the well distance from the coast  
357 are sufficiently high to hamper well contamination, despite the level of transverse dispersion of the  
358 dissolved salt. Otherwise, the strength of the transverse dispersive mechanism becomes a relevant  
359 factor, together with  $J$  and  $X_w$ , for low values of  $Q_c$ . This result is consistent with the observation  
360 that there can be an enhanced well contamination in case of high level of (dimensionless) solute  
361 dispersion (i.e., very low  $PE_T$ ), low (dimensionless) incoming freshwater flux, and for well locations  
362 that are relatively close to the coastline.

363 Outcomes of the copula-based SA illustrated above are in line with the findings of Dell’Oca  
364 et al. (2017). These authors grounded their analysis on a moment-based GSA, which revealed that the  
365 first four statistical moments of the *pdf* of  $Q_c$  are mostly equally sensitive to  $J$  and  $X_w$ , a diminished  
366 sensitivity being displayed with respect to  $PE_T$ . Otherwise, the added value of the results stemming  
367 from the copula-based SA lies in the characterization of the sensitivity of  $Q_c$  across its entire range  
368 of values, supporting enhanced understanding of the way model (8) drives the relationship between  
369 inputs (i.e.,  $J$ ,  $X_w$  and  $PE_T$ ) and output of interest (i.e.,  $Q_c$ ).

### 370 **3.3 Laboratory-scale solute transport within a heterogeneous porous medium**

371 We consider the laboratory-scale setting illustrated by Esfandiar et al. (2015). These authors  
372 analyze the results of a solute transport experiment performed within a rectangular flow cell filled  
373 with two distinct uniform materials, i.e., a coarse and a fine sand. A sketch of the experimental setup  
374 and of the geometrical arrangement of the two types of sand employed in the experiment is depicted  
375 in Fig. 3a. A unit step injection of a non-reactive solute is imposed at the inlet of the flow cell, within  
376 which a steady-state strongly nonuniform flow takes place. The temporal evolution of solute  
377 concentration at the flow cell outlet (normalized by the concentration of the injected solution), i.e.,  
378  $\bar{C}(t)$ ,  $t$  being time, is measured. Esfandiar et al. (2015) model  $\bar{C}(t)$  by numerically solving the  
379 classical advection-dispersion equation within the porous domain, employing an efficient space-time  
380 grid adaptation strategy. The authors consider longitudinal dispersivities (i.e.,  $\alpha_{L_i}$  with  $i = 1, 2$  for  
381 the coarse and fine sand, respectively) of the sands as uncertain system parameters to be estimated  
382 against the experimental breakthrough curve. In order to reduce the computational burden of the  
383 model calibration procedure, Esfandiar et al. (2015) rely on a representation of  $\bar{C}(t)$  through a  
384 generalized Polynomial Chaos Expansion (gPCE) as a surrogate model (see Appendix A),  
385 considering the  $\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_i})$  (with  $i = 1, 2$ ) as two independent random variables, uniformly distributed  
386 within the support  $[-6, -2]$ . Here, we leverage on the gPCE representation of Esfandiar et al. (2015)  
387 and assess the sensitivity of  $\bar{C}(t)$  with respect to  $\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_i})$  according to the methodology detailed in  
388 Section 2.

389 Fig. 3b depicts the time evolution of a collection of 100 samples (grey curves; randomly  
390 selected from the  $10^6$  Monte Carlo realizations) of  $\bar{C}(t)$  at the outlet of the system and the ensuing  
391 expected value, i.e.,  $E[\bar{C}(t)]$  (black curve). The narrowing of the spread of the Monte Carlo  
392 realizations at times corresponding to  $E[\bar{C}(t)] \approx 0.4$  suggests that  $\bar{C}(t)$  is mainly controlled by the  
393 intensity of advective processes (here considered as deterministic) at such times (i.e., the deterministic  
394 advective transport component is a key driver of the displacement of the center of mass of the solute  
395 plume). Otherwise, the behavior of  $\bar{C}(t)$  at earlier and later times is tied to the intensity of the

396 dispersion processes within the coarse and fine material (i.e., to  $\alpha_{L_1}$  and  $\alpha_{L_2}$ , respectively), as further  
 397 discussed in the following.

398 Fig. 4 depicts a color scale representation of  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}(a, b)$  and  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}^*(c, d)$  against  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$   
 399 and  $E[\bar{C}(t)]$ . Note that we plot results against  $E[\bar{C}(t)]$  rather than time  $t$ , for ease of interpretation  
 400 of outcomes (see our discussion of Fig. 3b).

401 Joint inspection of Figs 4a, b indicates that at early breakthrough times (i.e.,  $E[\bar{C}(t)] < 0.2$   
 402 approximately)  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}$  is larger than  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_2})}$  for all  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$  values. This result supports a major  
 403 importance of  $\alpha_{L_1}$  (as opposed to  $\alpha_{L_2}$ ) for early times and is linked to the observation that at these  
 404 times the solute has traveled primarily through the coarse sand, which resides in the largest portion  
 405 of the domain. Considering such a strong sensitivity of the solute concentration at the outlet (in the  
 406 presence of a material characterized by  $\alpha_{L_2}$ ) to  $\alpha_{L_1}$ , is also consistent with a non-locality of the  
 407 transport mechanism within the heterogenous system under investigation (i.e., solute concentration  
 408 at a given point is influenced by the system properties at other locations). The relevance of the coarse  
 409 medium dispersivity is also documented through inspection of Fig. 4c where high values of  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}^*$   
 410 are seen for  $E[\bar{C}(t)] < 0.2$  (approximately) across all  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$ , i.e., the bivariate copula densities  
 411 (see Fig. SM1a) exhibit high values for each  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$  within a narrow range of values of  $\alpha_{L_1}$ ,  
 412 suggesting a nearly one-to-one correspondence between the former and the latter. Yet, inspection of  
 413 Figs 4a-d reveal that the output  $\bar{C}(t)$  at early times (i.e., for  $E[\bar{C}(t)] < 0.2$ ) tends to be equally  
 414 sensitive (in terms of  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}$  and  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}^*$ ) to the dispersivities of both materials in the range  
 415  $0.4 < F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t)) < 0.6$  (i.e., within the latter range the ensuing value of  $\bar{C}(t)$  is governed by the  
 416 intensity of the dispersive process within both materials). Otherwise, low and high values of  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$   
 417 are more sensitive to the value of the dispersivity of the coarse sand (across which the solute tends to  
 418 travel/spread the most).

419 Focusing on the range  $0.2 < E[\bar{C}(t)] < 0.4$ , inspection of Figs 4a, b suggests an equal  
 420 importance of both  $\alpha_{L_1}$  and  $\alpha_{L_2}$ , the former and the latter displaying a strong dependence on the high  
 421 and low values of  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$ , respectively. At the same time, Figs 4c, d document that in this setting  
 422 high values for  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}^*$  and  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_2})}^*$  correspond to high values of  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}$  and  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_2})}$ . These  
 423 observations suggest that the dispersivities of both materials affect  $\bar{C}(t)$  before the arrival of the  
 424 plume center of mass. This result descends from the observation that an increasing amount of solute  
 425 has traveled through the coarse medium and is conveyed through the fine material at these times, thus  
 426 yielding an increased relevance of the intensity of the dispersion process within the fine material. We  
 427 note that the high values of  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}$  (and of  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}^*$ ) corresponding to high  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$  are due to a  
 428 strong dependence of  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$  on low values of  $\alpha_{L_1}$  (see Fig. SM1c), i.e., high values of  $\bar{C}(t)$  are  
 429 associated with a relatively low dispersion of the plume as it migrates across the coarse material,

430 resulting in a less diluted plume at the outlet. On the other hand, the high values of  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_2})}$  (and of  
 431  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_2})}^*$ ) corresponding to low  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$  are associated with a strong dependence between  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$   
 432 and high values of  $\alpha_{L_2}$  (see Fig. SM1d), i.e., an intense dispersion of the plume within the fine  
 433 material is key to lead to relatively low  $\bar{C}(t)$ .

434 Considering  $E[\bar{C}(t)] > 0.4$ , Figs 4a, b highlights that, overall,  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_2})}$  tends to increase with  
 435  $E[\bar{C}(t)]$  (this is especially evident for the lowest values of  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$ , see previous discussion).  
 436 Otherwise,  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}$  tends to decrease with  $E[\bar{C}(t)]$ , with the exception of the region of high values  
 437 of  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$ , i.e.,  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t)) > 0.9$  (approximately), and for  $0.2 < F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t)) < 0.5$  (approximately).  
 438 We note that the high values of  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_2})}$  ( $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}$ ) and of  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_2})}^*$  ( $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}^*$ ) corresponding to low  
 439 (high)  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$  are due to a strong dependence of  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$  on low (high) values of  $\alpha_{L_2}$  ( $\alpha_{L_1}$ ), as  
 440 also seen in Fig. SM1f and SM1e, respectively. This finding may reflect the tendency (at late times)  
 441 to hinder (enhance) solute entering from the coarse to the fine medium and to subsequently being  
 442 transported through it, as the dispersivity of the fine (coarse) medium decreases (increases). These  
 443 results are in agreement with the observation that the intensity of the dispersion process in the fine  
 444 material becomes the most relevant factor determining the monitored concentration at the outlet as  
 445 time increases, even as the highest values of concentration still show some dependency on the  
 446 dispersivity of the coarse medium (see previous discussion about non-locality of transport).

447 The width of the two segments of  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$  values (approximately corresponding to  
 448  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t)) > 0.9$  and  $0.2 < F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t)) < 0.5$ ) associated with large  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}$  values tends to narrow as  
 449 time increases. This behavior can be linked to the loss of memory of solute transport dynamics with  
 450 respect to the influence of dispersive properties of the coarse sand region as the intensity of the  
 451 dispersion process in the second material gain relevance (see also Dell'Oca et al., 2019). At the same  
 452 time, Fig. 4d reveals that  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_2})}^*$  is quite strong across the entire range of  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$  (with the  
 453 exception of very high values of the latter), suggesting that there is a direct correspondence between  
 454 a given value of  $\bar{C}(t)$  and  $\alpha_{L_2}$  (see Fig. SM1f). A similar feature is suggested by inspection of Fig.  
 455 4c, where one can observe that  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}^*$  is high within the regions  $0.2 < F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t)) < 0.5$   
 456 (approximately) and  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t)) > 0.9$ , whereas the analysis of bivariate copula (see Fig. SM1e)  
 457 indicates intense values of the copula density for intermediate and high values of  $\alpha_{L_1}$  when  
 458  $0.2 < F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t)) < 0.5$  or  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t)) > 0.9$ , respectively.

459 The main findings provided by the application of our copula-based SA to this laboratory-scale  
 460 solute transport scenario are in overall agreement with the moment-based GSA illustrated by  
 461 Dell'Oca et al. (2017), i.e., the sensitivity of  $\bar{C}(t)$  to the dispersivity of the fine material tends to  
 462 increase with time, while the influence of the dispersivity of the coarse material decreases. Moreover,  
 463 assisting GSA through our copula-based analysis has the added value of providing a quantitative

464 characterization of the nature of the ensuing sensitivity across the entire range of  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$  values,  
465 thus linking our understanding of the system functioning to the documented features of the sensitivity  
466 of  $\bar{C}(t)$  to the dispersivities of the two materials.

#### 467 **4. Conclusions**

468 We propose an original approach to Sensitivity Analysis which is Global with respect to the  
469 model input(s) and Local with respect to the model output, i.e., it enables one to characterize  
470 sensitivity for each of the possible values undertaken by the model output of interest. In this sense,  
471 one can then quantify the influence of model uncertain parameters on the quantiles of the distribution  
472 of the modeling goal of interest.

473 At the hearth of our methodology there is the copula density between selected model input and  
474 the targeted output. As a descriptor for sensitivity, we select the absolute distance between such  
475 copula density and its counterpart associated with two independent random variables. We then  
476 characterize the sensitivity of a model output locally (i.e., for each possible value of the output) with  
477 respect to an uncertain input by relying on two indices, each summarizing a global behavior (with  
478 respect to the variability of the input) of sensitivity. Specifically, we evaluate (i) the averaged (across  
479 all values of an input, i.e., globally) value and (ii) the degree of variability (across all values of an  
480 input, i.e., again globally) of the introduced sensitivity descriptor.

481 Relying on the copula density enables one to assess model-induced dependences at any order  
482 (i.e., without being limited to linear dependences) among a model input and a given modeling output,  
483 independent from the marginal behavior of the latter. As opposed to typically employed GSA  
484 approaches, where one evaluates the importance of a model input to an output through summary  
485 indices, our copula density technique enables one to quantify the sensitivity of a model input to the  
486 entire range of the quantiles of the distribution of the output. This aspect is particular critical in risk  
487 assessment procedures, allowing to quantify the impact of a given model parameter for low or high  
488 values of the output of interest (as seen, e.g., with reference to a well pumping rate or the temporal  
489 behavior of solute concentrations), or if there are regions (or values) in the space of variability of the  
490 output that are not influenced by one or more model inputs. As such, our copula density Sensitivity  
491 Analysis can contribute to enhance our ability to diagnose the functioning of a given model.

492 We provide evidence of the type of information that our approach ensures by focusing on an  
493 analytical test function, on a setting associated with the determination of the critical pumping rate at  
494 a well placed in a coastal aquifer, and on a laboratory-scale solute transport experiment performed  
495 within a heterogeneous porous medium.

496

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620 **Appendix A. Generalized Polynomial Chaos Expansion approximation of the solute**  
 621 **breakthrough curve associated with the laboratory-scale solute transport experimental set-up.**

622 In order to reduce the computational burden associated with the copula-based SA in Section  
 623 3.3, we leverage on the surrogate model of the (normalized) concentrations measured at the flow cell  
 624 outlet (i.e.,  $\bar{C}(t)$ ) introduced by Esfandiar et al. (2015). These authors rely on the generalized  
 625 Polynomial Chaos Expansion (gPCE) (see, e.g., Sochala and Le Maître, 2013 and reference therein)  
 626 of  $\bar{C}(t)$ , which can be cast as

$$627 \quad \bar{C}(t) \approx \sum_{j=1}^N \beta_j \psi_j \left( \log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1}), \log_{10}(\alpha_{L_2}) \right) \quad (\text{A.1})$$

628 where  $\beta_j$  are the so-called polynomial coefficients,  $\psi_i$  is a set of multivariate Legendre polynomials  
 629 and  $N$  is the total number of employed polynomials. Esfandiar et al. (2015) evaluate the coefficients  
 630  $\beta_j$  through a sparse-grid procedure (see, e.g., Formaggia et al., 2013). They rely on the *total degree*  
 631 rule for the selection of the set of multivariate Legendre polynomials, the *total degree* being set equal  
 632 to 3, which leads to  $N = 69$ .

633 **Appendix B. Evaluation of density-based, Morris, and Sobol' indices**  
 634

635 We consider the three settings introduced in Section 3 and, in addition to the results presented  
 636 in Section 3, we also evaluate (i) the density-based  $\delta_{\Theta_n}$  index (Borgonovo, 2007; Borgonovo et al.,  
 637 2016), (ii) the Morris indices  $\mu_{\Theta_n}^*$  and  $\sigma_{\Theta_n}$  (Morris, 1991), and (c) the principal Sobol' indices. A  
 638 brief summary of the definitions of these global sensitivity metrics is included in the following.

639 The  $\delta_{\Theta_n}$  index is defined as (see also Section 2)

$$640 \quad \delta_{\Theta_n} = \frac{1}{2} E_Y E_{\Theta_n} \left[ \left| p_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n) p_Y(y) - p_{\Theta_n, Y}(\theta_n, y) \right| \right], \quad (\text{B.1})$$

641 where  $p_{\Theta_n, Y}(\theta_n, y)$  is the bivariate *pdf* between the input  $\Theta_n$  and the output  $Y$ ,  $p_{\Theta_n}(\theta_n) p_Y(y)$  is its  
 642 counterpart under the assumption that  $\Theta_n$  and  $Y$  are independent,  $E_{\Theta_n}[-]$  and  $E_Y[-]$  denoting  
 643 expectation w.r.t.  $\Theta_n$  and  $Y$ , respectively.

644 The Morris index  $\mu_{\Theta_n}^*$  is defined as

$$645 \quad \mu_{\Theta_n}^* = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{j=1}^r |\Xi_{\Theta_n}|, \quad \text{with} \quad \Xi_{\Theta_n} = \frac{Y(\Theta_1^j, \dots, \Theta_n^j + \Delta_n^j, \dots, \Theta_N^j) - Y(\Theta_1^j, \dots, \Theta_n, \dots, \Theta_1^j)}{\Delta_n^j}, \quad (\text{B.2})$$

646 where the so-called *elementary effects* ( $\Xi_{\Theta_n}$ ) represent approximations of the  $Y$  derivative w.r.t.  $\Theta_n$ ,  
 647 evaluated relying on increment  $\Delta_n^j$  for diverse values (i.e.,  $r$  times) of the remaining model inputs  
 648 and (see Pianosi et al., 2016 and reference therein for a review of strategies for the definition of the  
 649 combinations of input parameters suited for the evaluation of  $\mu_{\Theta_n}^*$ ). According to (B.2), a high  
 650 average variation in the model output due to model input perturbations corresponds to a high  $\mu_{\Theta_n}^*$   
 651 value.

652 The Morris index  $\sigma_{\Theta_n}$  reads

$$\sigma_{\Theta_n} = \frac{1}{r} \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^r (\Xi_{\Theta_n} - \mu_{\Theta_n}^*)^2}. \quad (\text{B.3})$$

Higher values of  $\sigma_{\Theta_n}$  correspond to higher nonlinearity effects. This can be due to either a non-linearity in the relationship between  $Y$  and  $\Theta_n$  or to interactions among  $\Theta_n$  and other model inputs.

Inspection of (B.2) and (B.3) suggests that in the Morris method the output-input sensitivity is characterized in terms of both (i) an average value and (ii) a measure of the variability of the selected sensitivity metric (i.e.,  $\Xi_{\Theta_n}$ ). In the methodology introduced in Section 2, we follow a similar rationale in the definition of (4)-(6).

The principal Sobol' index is defined as

$$S_{\Theta_n} = \frac{E_{\Theta_n} [V - V[Y|\theta_n]]}{V}, \quad (\text{B.4})$$

Here,  $V$  is the model output variance and  $V(Y|\theta_n)$  is its counterpart conditional to a given value ( $\theta_n$ ) of the input  $\Theta_n$ . Expression (B.4) serves as a measure of the (normalized) contribution to the output variance due to the variability in the input parameter  $\Theta_n$ . In other words, the higher is the (average) reduction of the model output variance due to the knowledge of  $\Theta_n$ , the higher is  $S_{\Theta_n}$ . As such, in the Sobol' method the sensitivity (rendered through the metric  $V - V[Y|\theta_n]$ ) is grounded on the behavior of the model output variability, as quantified through its variance. In this context, we note that the variance may be an incomplete descriptor of the output variability (see, e.g., Pianosi et al., 2016; Borgonovo et al., 2007; Dell'Oca et al., 2017).

A distinctive feature typically shared by all global sensitivity indices is an integration across the support of the model input and/or output, the information provided by each index being characterized by the quantity being subject to integration (i.e., the sensitivity metric). In this context, it is noted that the approaches listed above ground sensitivity on diverse descriptors. These encapsulate the level of dependence between uncertain model input and output through (i) the bivariate *pdf* in  $\delta_{\Theta_n}$ , (ii) variations of model output due to input variations in the Morris approach, or (iii) the contribution of an input variability to the output variance for the Sobol' index. All of these approaches thus introduce a set of scalar indices resting on diverse strategies. For example, the Morris approach focuses on the average value and on the standard deviation of the sensitivity metric, whereas the focus in the *pdf*-based methodology is solely on the average value. It is then of interest to analyze possible similarities/discrepancies between results quantifying/ranking parameter sensitivity with these approaches and corresponding results stemming from  $I_{\Theta_n}$  (4) and  $I_{\Theta_n}^*$  (6), while recalling that each index emphasizes a diverse aspect of the output sensitivity to model input(s).

The results reported in the following are based on the same  $10^6$  Monte Carlo realizations employed for the evaluation of the copula densities in Section 3. Morris indices are computed by setting  $r = 800$  and following the scheme presented by Campolongo et al. (2011).

Considering the analytical test function introduced in Section 3.1, we obtain  $\mu_{X_1}^* = \mu_{X_2}^* = 1.06$ ,  $\mu_{X_3}^* = 0.445$  and  $\sigma_{X_1} = \sigma_{X_2} = 1.22$ ,  $\sigma_{X_3} = 0.498$ . The ensuing values of  $\mu_{\Theta_n}^*$  suggest that variations in  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  lead to larger variations in the value of the output than those induced by variations in  $X_3$ . Values of  $\sigma_{\Theta_n}$  indicate of a stronger level of nonlinearity (due to parameters interaction, see (7)) in the relationship between  $Y$  and  $X_1$  (or  $X_2$ ) than between  $Y$  and  $X_3$ . Principal Sobol' indices are

691  $S_{X_1} = S_{X_2} = 0.38$  and  $S_{X_3} = 0.09$ , these results being conducive to an ordering of input parameter  
692 relevance similar to what resulting from the Morris indices. Interestingly, relying on the density-based  
693 index yields a diverse ordering of the parameter relevance, since  $\delta_{X_1} = \delta_{X_2} = 0.61$  and  $\delta_{X_3} = 1.01$ .  
694 These latter results are in agreement with those depicted in Fig. 1a, where we observe that the area  
695 below  $I_{X_1}$  and  $I_{X_2}$  is smaller than its counterpart corresponding to  $I_{X_3}$ . The set of outcomes here  
696 summarized is a stark example of the recognized multifaceted nature of the concept of *sensitivity*.  
697 Therefore, diverse methodologies focused on differing aspects of the output-input(s) sensitivity  
698 should be jointly investigated. In this context, we remark that  $I_{\Theta_n}$  and  $I_{\Theta_n}^*$  serve our understanding  
699 of the sensitivity of model outputs to parameters across the full range of outputs variability.

700 Results for the scenario targeting the critical pumping rate in a coastal aquifer (see Section  
701 3.2) are:  $\delta_{PE_T} = 0.31$ ,  $\delta_{X_w} = 0.64$  and  $\delta_J = 0.57$ ;  $\mu_{PE_T}^* = 0.44$ ,  $\mu_{X_w}^* = 1.01$ ,  $\mu_J^* = 0.93$  and  
702  $\sigma_{PE_T} = 0.17$ ,  $\sigma_{X_w} = 0.21$ ,  $\sigma_J = 0.20$ ; and  $S_{PE_T} = 0.09$ ,  $S_{X_w} = 0.48$  and  $S_J = 0.41$ . On the basis of this  
703 set of results and those illustrated in Section 3.2, one can note a consistency in the way the relevance  
704 of the uncertain model inputs is rendered across the diverse Sensitivity Analysis methodologies, each  
705 with its own distinctive metric and specific aims. All of the results reveal that the critical pumping  
706 rate tends to be more sensitive to  $X_w$ , slightly less to  $J$ , and only to a minor extent to  $PE_T$

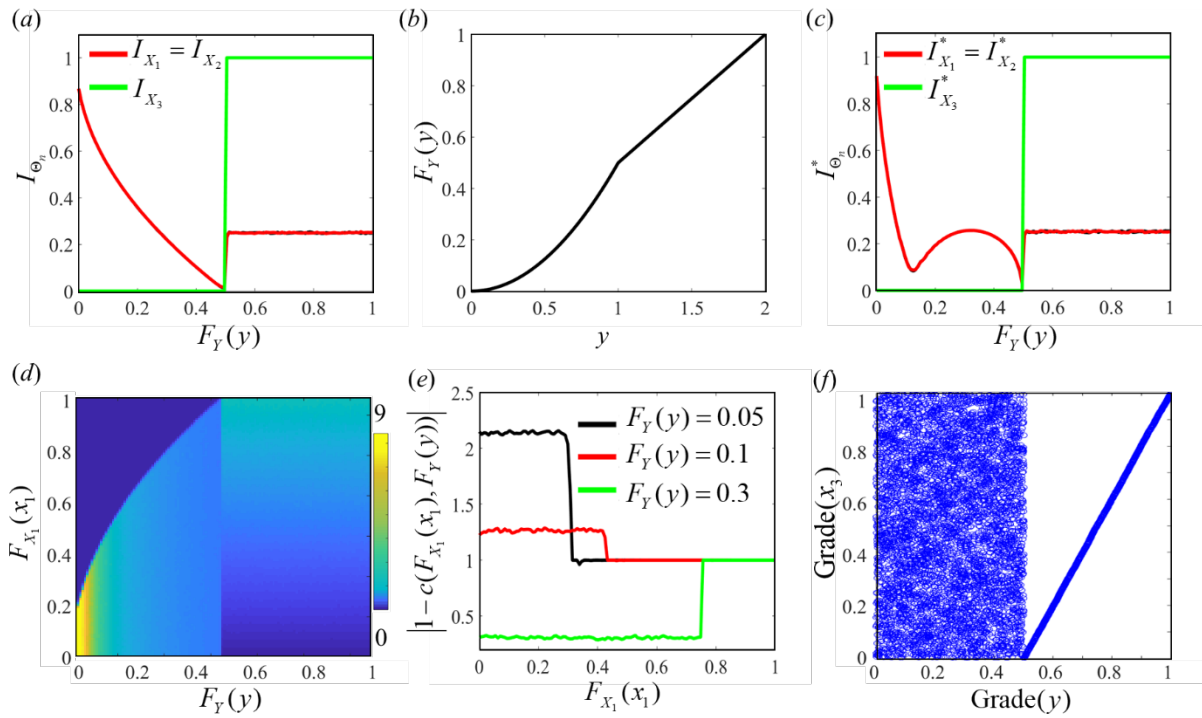
707 With reference to the laboratory-scale solute transport scenario, Fig. B1 depicts (a)  $\delta_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{Li})}$ ,  
708 (b)  $\mu_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{Li})}^*$  and (c)  $\sigma_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{Li})}$ , as well as (d)  $S_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{Li})}$  versus  $E[\bar{C}(t)]$  for  $i = (1, 2)$  (blue and red  
709 curves, respectively). Overall inspection of Fig. B1 reveals that: (i)  $\bar{C}(t)$  is more sensitive to the  
710 dispersivity of the coarse sand for  $E[\bar{C}(t)] < 0.4$  (approximately); (ii) for values  $E[\bar{C}(t)] \approx 0.4$ ,  $\bar{C}(t)$   
711 has a similar relative sensitivity to the dispersivities of the two sands; (iii) for  $E[\bar{C}(t)] > 0.4$  the  
712 sensitivity of  $\bar{C}(t)$  to the dispersivity of the fine sand is larger than that associated with the coarse  
713 sand (an exception is noted for  $\delta_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{Li})}$ , approximately within the range  $0.5 < E[\bar{C}(t)] < 0.7$ ). It is  
714 here of interest to note that  $\delta_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L2})}$  and  $S_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L2})}$  tend to increase with  $E[\bar{C}(t)]$ ,  $\delta_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L1})}$  and  
715  $S_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L1})}$  being characterized by the opposite behavior. These results are in line with those discussed  
716 in Section 3.3 for our copula-based indices. Indices  $\mu_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{Li})}^*$  and  $\sigma_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{Li})}$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ) exhibit a bimodal  
717 behavior (the two peaks respectively occurring at  $E[\bar{C}(t)] \approx 0.15$  and  $E[\bar{C}(t)] \approx 0.70$ ) and display a  
718 decreasing trend for (approximately)  $0.70 < E[\bar{C}(t)] < 1$ , with similar values for  $i = 1$  or  $2$ . This set  
719 of results contributes to further highlight the different nature of the various sensitivity indices  
720 analyzed.

721 While the comparison of diverse methodologies here illustrated might not be exhaustive, it  
722 clearly documents how diverse strategies are keyed to diverse aspects of the output *sensitivity*. In this  
723 context, we recall that the copula-density based indices we propose are tied to the unique feature of  
724 detailing the output sensitivity across its range of variability (in terms of  $F_Y(y)$ ).

725 With reference to the computational costs associated with the evaluation of the various indices  
726 here analyzed, we found that the *pdf*- and copula density-based analyses require a number of Monte  
727 Carlo iterations of the order of  $10^5$  to obtain stable results (in our computational examples we used a

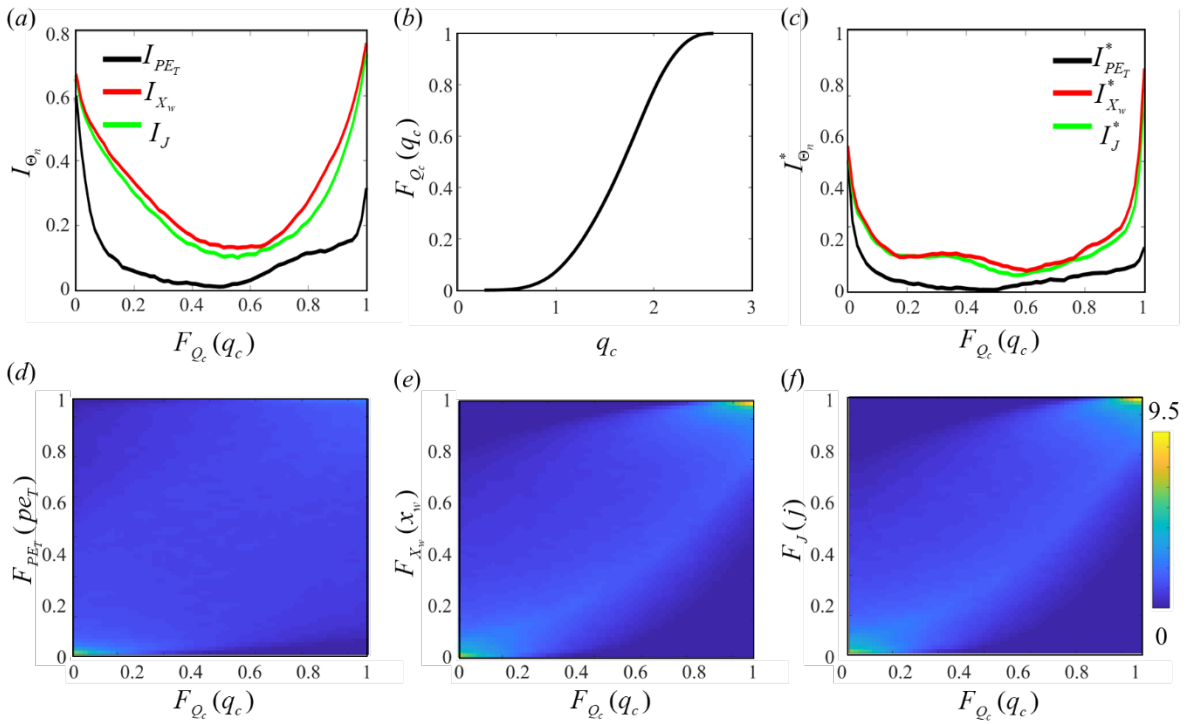
728 collection of  $10^6$  samples), while  $10^4$  and  $10^3$  realizations can be sufficient for the Sobol' and Morris  
729 indices, respectively. As a side remark, we note that we rely here on a straightforward Monte Carlo  
730 sampling for the evaluation of the *pdf*-based, copula density-based and Sobol' indices, while we use  
731 the strategy of Campolongo et al. (2011) for the Morris indices. It is then important to note that a  
732 variety of sampling strategies have been developed to reduce computational costs associated with the  
733 evaluation of the Morris, Sobol', and *pdf*-based (see e.g., Pianosi et al., 2016 and reference therein)  
734 indices. In this context, a future study will explore the possibility of employing an adaptive kernel  
735 estimation method (such as the one proposed by Sole-Mari et al., 2019) for the estimation of the  
736 model induced empirical copula density.

737



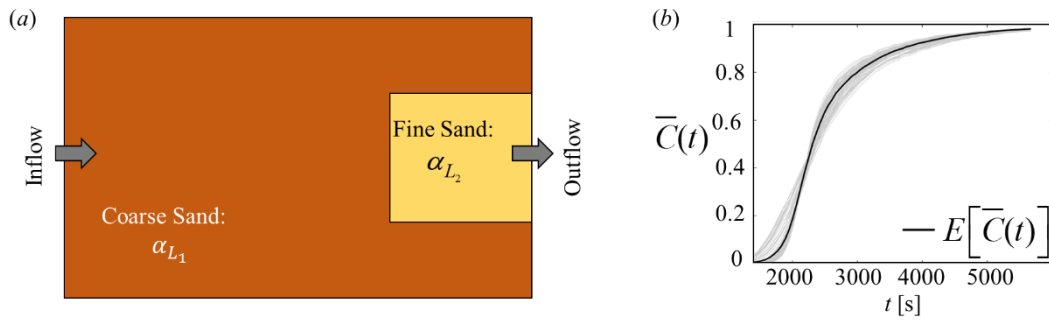
739

740 **Fig. 1.** Results of the Copula-density GSA for the output, i.e.,  $Y$ , of the analytical test function in (7):  
 741 (a)  $I_{\Theta_n}$  and (c)  $I_{\Theta_n}^*$  for  $\Theta_n = X_1, X_2, X_3$  against  $F_Y(y)$ ; (b)  $F_Y(y)$  versus  $y$ ; (d) copula-density  
 742 between  $F_Y(y)$  and  $F_{X_1}(x_1)$ ; (e) sensitivity descriptor  $|1 - c(F_{X_1}(x_1), F_Y(y))|$  versus  $F_{X_1}(x_1)$  for three  
 743 values of  $F_Y(y)$ ; and (f) scatter plot among the Grade of  $x_3$  and Grade of  $y$ .



744

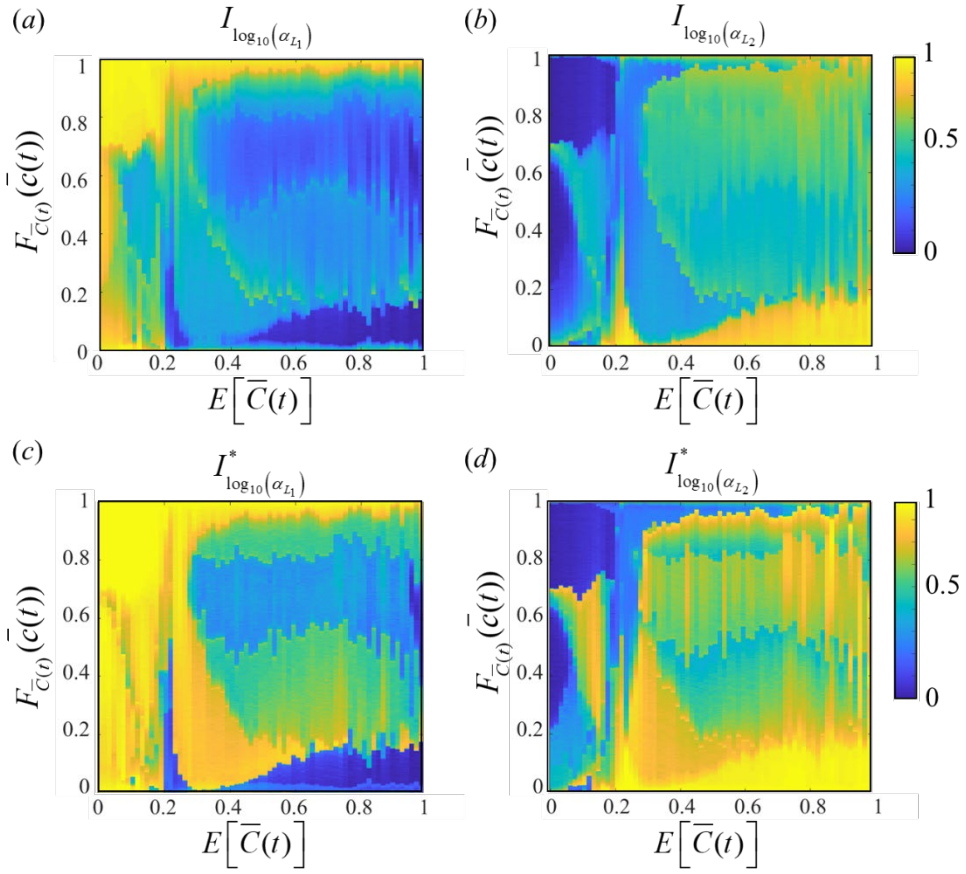
745 **Fig. 2.** Results of the copula-density GSA for the critical pumping rate, i.e.,  $Q_c$ , on the basis of model  
 746 (8): (a)  $I_{\Theta_n}$  and (c)  $I_{\Theta_n}^*$  for  $\Theta_n = PE_T, X_w$ , or  $J$  against  $F_{Q_c}(q_c)$ ; (b)  $F_{Q_c}(q_c)$  versus  $q_c$ ; copula-  
 747 density between  $F_{Q_c}(q_c)$  and (d)  $F_{PE_T}(pe_T)$ , (e)  $F_{X_w}(x_w)$ , or (f)  $F_J(j)$ .



748

749 **Fig. 3.** (a) Sketch of the laboratory experimental set-up; (b) expected value of the solute concentration  
 750 at the outlet, i.e.,  $E[\bar{C}(t)]$  (black curve), and a sub set of 100 Monte Carlo realizations (grey curves)  
 751 versus time,  $t$ .

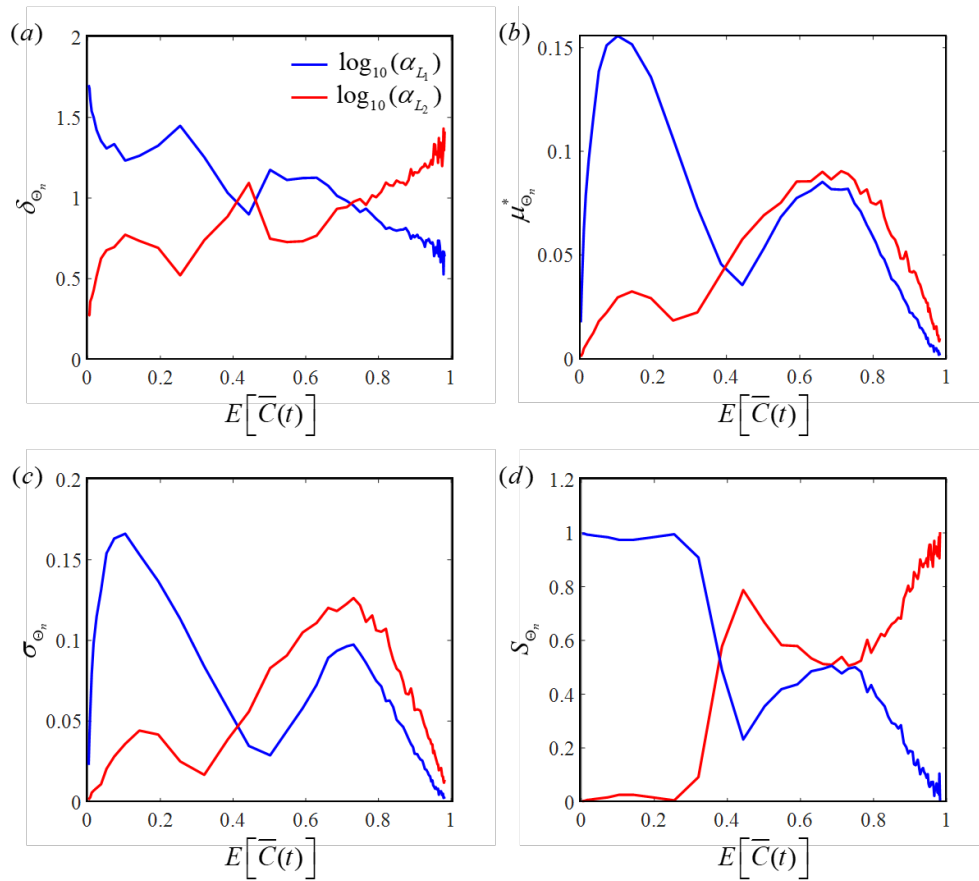




752

753 **Fig. 4.** Results of the copula-density GSA for the solute breakthrough curve, i.e.,  $\bar{C}(t)$ : (a)  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}$ ,  
 754 (b)  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_2})}$ , (c)  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_1})}^*$  and (d)  $I_{\log_{10}(\alpha_{L_2})}^*$  as a function of  $F_{\bar{C}(t)}(\bar{c}(t))$  and of the expected value of  
 755  $\bar{C}(t)$ , i.e.,  $E[\bar{C}(t)]$ .

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757

758 **Fig. B1.** GSA indices for the solute breakthrough curve, i.e.,  $\bar{C}(t)$ : (a) distribution-based index  $\delta_{\Theta_n}$  ;  
 759 Morris' indices (b)  $\mu_{\Theta_n}^*$  and (c)  $\sigma_{\Theta_n}$  ; principal Sobol' index (d)  $S_{\Theta_n}$  versus the expected value of  
 760  $\bar{C}(t)$ , i.e.,  $E[\bar{C}(t)]$ . Outcomes for the coarse (blue curves) and fine (red curves) sands are depicted.

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