# DISCUSSION OF: BROWNIAN DISTANCE COVARIANCE 

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Congratulations to Professors Székely and Rizzo for such an exciting and enjoyable contribution. It is not often that one of our most basic techniques is given so fundamental, and so successful, a rethinking. Although using distance covariance requires giving up some useful properties associated with linearitydirectionality/sign, exact expressions for the variance and covariance of sums, direct connection to the multivariate normal distribution-it offers useful properties in exchange. Distance covariance gives a true indicator of independence even for non-normal distributions, applies directly in multivariate settings (even when " $p \gg n ")$, is the basis for general and powerful tests, can be adapted to use ranks, provides conditions for central limit theorems, and is straightforward to compute. That seems to be a favorable trade. In this discussion I will focus on the meaning of Brownian covariance, but first I want to raise a few questions to the authors (and the field).

The paper adapts the statistic in examples to derive resampling techniques and tests for nonlinearity and extends the covariance definition in several ways. Perhaps the authors can comment on how general these derived techniques are. For instance, what additional conditions, if any, are required for the test of nonlinearity in Example 6 (based on $\left.\operatorname{dCov}\left(X,\left(I-X\left(X^{T} X\right)^{-1} X^{T}\right) Y\right)\right)$ to be consistent? Also, the computations would appear to be $O\left(n^{2}\right)$, which can be burdensome for very large $n$. Are there speed-ups or approximations that yield comparable results more quickly? And are rates of convergence available for the empirical statistics, perhaps under stronger moment conditions?

But these are details. Even though the Pearson correlation is entrenched in the practice of several fields, including our own, what reason do we have not to aggressively introduce distance covariance and correlation into our practice and our teaching, even at the introductory level? It is rare in practice that we want a measure of linear association per se, more typically we use Pearson correlation as a proxy. Distance covariance provides most of what we do want in these cases with attendant theory and convenience that is hard to beat. And teaching about the difference between "uncorrelated" and "independent" is a thorn in the side of anyone who has had to do so. Distance covariance would require no more sophisticated ideas than what we already use in teaching correlation, without that complication. The statistic is expressed in terms of distances which are easy to understand, and it would free us from undue emphasis on Normal examples. It is interesting to ponder what it would take to change practice at this level.

However, what principally distinguishes this paper from Székely, Rizzo and Bakirov (2007) is the introduction of Brownian covariance. Because of the "suprising coincidence" that Brownian covariance equals distance covariance, though under slightly more restrictive conditions, Brownian covariance may appear to be merely an interesting, if abstract, representation. But Brownian covariance can help us understand how and why distance covariance works and how it can be generalized to obtain measures with other desirable properties. As the authors write, Brownian covariance "measures the degree of all kinds of possible relationships between two real-valued random variables." Because it may not be obvious why this statement is true, my goal here is to explain it in a different way and to offer insight into what the Brownian covariance means and how it can be usefully generalized. I will do this by studying the $(U, V)$-covariance (Definition 5 in the paper) for a special class of stochastic processes. To keep the focus on the ideas rather than details, I will consider only a simple case here, and I will play somewhat loose with regularity conditions (e.g., limit interchanges), but all of this can be made rigorous and general without excessive effort or conditions.

Let $X$ and $Y$ be scalar random variables with finite second moments. Denote their joint density by $g_{X, Y}$ and marginal densities by $g_{X}$ and $g_{Y}$. For simplicity, assume that these densities are square integrable and have support on $[0,1]^{2}$ and $[0,1]$ respectively, although these restrictions can easily be weakened. Let $\left(\phi_{i}\right)$ and $\left(\psi_{j}\right)$ be two sequences of deterministic functions. They may be finite or infinite collections and need not be orthogonal. Define

$$
\begin{align*}
A_{i j} & =\iint\left(\phi_{i} \otimes \psi_{j}\right)\left(g_{X, Y}-g_{X} \otimes g_{Y}\right)  \tag{1}\\
& =\iint\left(\phi_{i} \otimes \psi_{j}\right) g_{X, Y}-\int \phi_{i} g_{X} \int \psi_{j} g_{Y}  \tag{2}\\
& =\operatorname{Cov}\left(\phi_{i}(X), \psi_{j}(Y)\right)  \tag{3}\\
& =\mathbb{E} X_{\phi_{i}} Y_{\psi_{j}} \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

Now consider stochastic processes $U$ and $V$ that can be written as series expansions with Normal coefficients. Specifically, given suitable positive values $\sigma_{i}$ and $\tau_{j}$, define

$$
\begin{align*}
& U(s)=\sum_{i} \sigma_{i} Z_{i} \phi_{i}(s)  \tag{5}\\
& V(t)=\sum_{j} \tau_{j} Z_{j}^{\prime} \psi_{j}(t) \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

where the $Z_{i}$ 's and $Z_{j}^{\prime}$ 's are independent standard Normal random variables.

Using the notation of the paper and interchanging expectation and sums in the definitions of $X_{U}=U(X)-\mathbb{E}(U(X) \mid U)$ and related random variables, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
X_{U} & =\sum_{i} \sigma_{i} Z_{i}\left(\phi_{i}(X)-\mathbb{E} \phi_{i}(X)\right), \\
X_{U}^{\prime} & =\sum_{i} \sigma_{i} Z_{i}\left(\phi_{i}\left(X^{\prime}\right)-\mathbb{E} \phi_{i}\left(X^{\prime}\right)\right), \\
Y_{V} & =\sum_{j} \tau_{j} Z_{j}^{\prime}\left(\psi_{j}(Y)-\mathbb{E} \psi_{j}(Y)\right), \\
Y_{V}^{\prime} & =\sum_{j} \tau_{j} Z_{j}^{\prime}\left(\psi_{j}\left(Y^{\prime}\right)-\mathbb{E} \psi_{j}\left(Y^{\prime}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows from Definition 5 in the paper that

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Cov}_{U, V}^{2}(X, Y) & =\mathbb{E}\left(X_{U} X_{U}^{\prime} Y_{V} Y_{V}^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i, j, k, \ell} \mathbb{E}\left(Z_{i} Z_{k}\right) \mathbb{E}\left(Z_{j}^{\prime} Z_{\ell}^{\prime}\right) \mathbb{E}\left(X_{\phi_{i}} Y_{\psi_{j}}\right) \mathbb{E}\left(X_{\phi_{k}} Y_{\psi_{\ell}}\right)  \tag{7}\\
& =\sum_{i, j} \sigma_{i}^{2} \tau_{j}^{2} A_{i j}^{2}
\end{align*}
$$

Equation (7) shows that $\operatorname{Cov}_{U, V}(X, Y)=0$ if and only if every $A_{i j}=0$. For this covariance to determine independence, we must have that all $A_{i j}=0$ if and only if $X$ and $Y$ are independent. A sufficient condition for this is that the functions $\phi_{i} \otimes \psi_{j}$ form a (Schauder) basis for a class of functions containing $g_{X, Y}-g_{X} \otimes g_{Y}$ (e.g., $\mathcal{L}^{2}$ ). Note that in this case

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(f_{X, Y}-f_{X} \otimes f_{Y}\right)(s, t) & =\iint e^{i(s x+t y)}\left(g_{X, Y}-g_{X} \otimes g_{Y}\right)(x, y) \mathrm{d} x \mathrm{~d} y  \tag{8}\\
& =\iint e^{i(s x+t y)} \sum_{i, j} A_{i j} \phi_{i}(x) \psi_{j}(y) \mathrm{d} x \mathrm{~d} y  \tag{9}\\
& =\sum_{i j} A_{i j} \tilde{\phi}_{i}(s) \tilde{\psi}_{j}(t) \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

where the $f$ 's are the characteristic functions of the $g$ 's as in the paper and the $\tilde{\phi}$ 's and $\tilde{\psi}$ 's are the corresponding Fourier transforms. This shows that the covariance is related to a "norm" of $f_{X, Y}-f_{X} \otimes f_{Y}$ and thus highlights the connection to the distance covariance as defined in the paper.

Now it is well known (the Lévy-Ciesielski construction) that Brownian motion can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{t}=\sum_{i \geq 0} Z_{i} S_{i}(t) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $S_{i}$ is the $i$ th Schauder function obtained by $S_{i}(t)=\int_{0}^{t} H_{i}$ for the corresponding function $H_{i}$ in the Haar system. ${ }^{1}$ The expansion (11) corresponds to $U=W$ and $V=W^{\prime}$ with $\sigma_{k}=\tau_{k}=1$ and $\phi_{k}=\psi_{k}$ equal to corresponding Schauder functions for all $k$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Cov}_{W}(X, Y)=\sqrt{\sum_{i, j} A_{i j}^{2}}, \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

the Frobenius norm of the infinite-order matrix $A$. Because the Schauder functions form a (nonorthogonal) basis for the set of continuous functions on an interval (in sup-norm) and for the $\mathcal{L}^{p}$ spaces for $1<p<\infty$, we can see that a zero Brownian covariance is equivalent to independence of $X$ and $Y$. Because the Schauder functions have support in nested (and shrinking) dyadic intervals, $A_{i j}^{2}$ measures the dependence in $g_{X Y}$ over a small dyadic rectangle. The Brownian covariance thus combines measures of dependence across all scales in a multi-resolution hierarchy, and this is the sense in which it captures all kinds of dependence. This derivation also clarifies how changing the stochastic processes $U$ and $V$ can give covariance measures that emphasize different features of $X$ and $Y$ 's joint distribution.

## REFERENCES

Székely, G. J., Rizzo, M. L. and Bakirov, N. K. (2007). Measuring and testing dependence by correlation of distances. Ann. Statist. 35 2769-2794. MR2382665

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ This construction is usually shown for $t \in[0,1]$ but can be extended recursively; for instance, if $t \in(1,2]$, define $W_{t}=W_{1}+\sum_{i \geq 0} Z_{i}^{\prime \prime} S_{i}(t-1)$ with independent $Z_{i}^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{s}$. Using the full line would require a slightly more general form of equation (7), which is straightforward to derive.

