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# POWER ANALYSIS OF

# PROJECTION-PURSUIT INDEPENDENCE TESTS

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Abstract: Three important projection-pursuit correlations, namely, distance cor-1 relation, projection correlation and the multivariate Blum-Kiefer-Rosenblatt (BKR) correlation, have been proposed in the literature to test independence between two random vectors in arbitrary dimensions. In this paper we compare the asymptotic power performance of independence tests built upon these three projectionpursuit correlations in a uniform sense. We show that, in the presence of outliers, the projection correlation test and the multivariate BKR correlation test are still powerful, whereas the distance correlation test may lose power. We also analyze the minimax optimality of these independence tests. We show that their mini-0 mum separation rates are of order  $n^{-1}$ , where n stands for the sample size, and 10 this minimax optimal rate is tight in terms of projection correlation, distance 11 correlation and multivariate BKR correlation, respectively. 12

*Key words and phrases:* distance correlation; independence test; minimax opti mality; projection correlation; power function; robustness

# 15 1. INTRODUCTION

Many important applications require to quantify the degree of nonlinear de-16 pendence between two random vectors. For example, in genomics research, 17 one may be interested to test whether certain diseases are associated with 18 mutations of a particular group of genes. In economic studies, one may wish 19 to evaluate nonlinear dependence between the stock market and real estate 20 returns. In brain sciences, one may expect to discover whether two sets of 21 voxels measured over time at different parts of brain are functionally related. 22 We formulate these applications into the problems of testing independence. 23 In symbols, let  $\mathbf{x} = (X_1, \dots, X_p)^{\mathrm{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^p$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_q)^{\mathrm{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^q$  be two 24 random vectors. We assume throughout that p > 1 and q > 1 unless stated 25 otherwise. The goal of independence tests is to test 26

 $H_0$ : **x** and **y** are statistically independent;  $H_1$ : **x** and **y** are dependent.(1.1)

Testing for independence has a long history in the literature. Pearson correlation is perhaps the first and one of the most important metrics to test for independence between two univariate random variables (i.e. p = q = 1). Extensions within the univariate case include, but not limited to, Hoeffding (1948), Blum et al. (1961) and Bergsma and Dassios (2014). These extensions are based on ranks of observations and thus are not able to be used

if either **x** or **y** is multivariate (i.e. p > 1 or q > 1). In the multivariate 34 case where both  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  follow jointly normal or elliptically symmetric 35 distributions, testing for independence amounts to testing whether they 36 are linearly uncorrelated (Oja, 2010). Important examples along this line 37 include likelihood ratio test (Wilks, 1935) and canonical correlation coeffi-38 cient (Hotelling, 1936). Interested readers may refer to Puri and Sen (1971), 39 Hettmansperger and Oja (1994) and Taskinen et al. (2005) for extensions 40 of likelihood ratio test. 41

In the past two decades, there has been much effort to relax the dis-42 tributional assumptions. See, for example, Kankainen (1995) and Bakirov 43 et al. (2006). Gretton et al. (2005) proposed an independence criterion 44 based on the entire eigen-spectrum of covariance operators in reproducing 45 kernel Hilbert spaces. Székely et al. (2007) and Székely and Rizzo (2009) 46 made important advances through proposing distance correlation to test 47 independence between two random vectors in arbitrary dimensions. Dis-48 tance correlation is well defined by assuming the first moments of both  $\mathbf{x}$ 49 and  $\mathbf{y}$  are finite, and is generalized by Sejdinovic et al. (2013), Pan et al. 50 (2019) and Shen et al. (2019) from different perspectives. Heller et al. 51 (2013) pointed out that, if the moment conditions are violated, say, if the 52 underlying distribution of either  $\mathbf{x}$  or  $\mathbf{y}$  is heavy-tailed or the observations 53

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

contain outliers, the distance correlation test may suffer from low power. 54 Given that outlying observations arise frequently in practice with high-55 dimensional data, it is highly desirable to develop robust counterparts of 56 distance correlation. Towards this goal, Zhu et al. (2017) proposed an alter-57 native projection correlation, which completely removes the moment condi-58 tions required by distance correlation. The projection correlation is in spirit 59 a multivariate version of Hoeffding (1948). Kim et al. (2018) suggested a 60 projection-averaging approach to the classic two-sample test problems, and 61 stated that their approach can be readily generalized to test independence 62 between two random vectors. In this paper, we follow Kim et al. (2018) 63 through extending the Blum-Kiefer-Rosenblatt (BKR) correlation to the 64 multivariate case. Neither projection correlation nor the multivariate BKR 65 correlation requires moment condition on either  $\mathbf{x}$  or  $\mathbf{y}$ . We shall show that, 66 both distance correlation and projection correlation are based on the inte-67 grated squared distance between the joint distribution of the projections 68 and the product of their marginal distributions over unit spheres. The in-69 dependence tests built upon distance correlation, projection correlation and 70 the multivariate BKR correlation are indeed all of projection-pursuit type. 71 In this paper we compare power performance of the aforementioned 72 three projection-pursuit independence tests because they share many sim-73

### 1. INTRODUCTION

ilarities. In particular, projection correlation, distance correlation and the 74 multivariate BKR correlation have closed-form expressions and require no 75 tuning parameters, and all tests are consistent against all fixed alternatives. 76 More importantly, all three tests can be represented by integrals of the dis-77 tance between the joint distribution function of  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  and the product of 78 the marginal distribution functions of  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ . They differ only in the 79 weights. To elaborate, we define  $S^{d-1} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ \boldsymbol{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^d : \|\boldsymbol{\alpha}\| = 1 \}$ , where  $\|\cdot\|$ 80 is Euclidean norm.  $F_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}}(s) \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \operatorname{pr}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} \leq s), \ F_{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{y}}(t) \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \operatorname{pr}(\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{y} \leq t) \text{ and }$ 81  $F_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x},\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{y}}(s,t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathrm{pr}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} \leq s, \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{y} \leq t), \text{ for } \boldsymbol{\alpha} \in \mathcal{S}^{p-1}, \, \boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathcal{S}^{q-1}, \, s \in \mathbb{R}^{1}$ 82 and  $t \in \mathbb{R}^1$ . Both  $(\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x})$  and  $(\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{y})$  are the respective projections of  $\mathbf{x}$  and 83 y. In the Supplementary Material, we shall show that the squared distance 84 covariance can be represented as 85

B6 
$$DC(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (c_p c_q)^{-1} \int_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in S^{p-1}} \int_{\boldsymbol{\beta} \in S^{q-1}} \int_{t \in \mathbb{R}^1} \int_{s \in \mathbb{R}^1} \left\{ F_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{y}}(s, t) - F_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}}(s) F_{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{y}}(t) \right\}^2 (ds \ dt) d\boldsymbol{\beta} d\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \quad (1.2)$$

and the squared projection covariance can be represented as

PC(**x**, **y**) = 
$$(\gamma_p \gamma_q)^{-1} \int_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in S^{p-1}} \int_{\boldsymbol{\beta} \in S^{q-1}} \int_{t \in \mathbb{R}^1} \int_{s \in \mathbb{R}^1} \int_{s \in \mathbb{R}^1} \int_{s \in \mathbb{R}^1} \{F_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{y}}(s, t) - F_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}}(s) F_{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{y}}(t)\}^2 dF_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{y}}(s, t) d\boldsymbol{\beta} d\boldsymbol{\alpha}.$$
 (1.3)

#### INTRODUCTION 1.

Kim et al. (2018) wrote the multivariate BKR correlation coefficient as 91

92 mBKR(
$$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$$
) =  $(\gamma_p \gamma_q)^{-1} \int_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in S^{p-1}} \int_{\boldsymbol{\beta} \in S^{q-1}} \int_{t \in \mathbb{R}^1} \int_{s \in \mathbb{R}^1} \int_{s \in \mathbb{R}^1} \{F_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{y}}(s, t) - F_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}}(s) F_{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{y}}(t)\}^2 dF_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}}(s) dF_{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{y}}(t) d\boldsymbol{\beta} d\boldsymbol{\alpha}.$  (1.4)

In the above three displays,  $c_p \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \left\{ 2\pi^{(p-1)/2}/(p-1) \right\} / \Gamma\{(p-1)/2\}, \gamma_p \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=}$ 94

 $\pi^{p/2-1}/\Gamma(p/2)$  and  $\Gamma(\cdot)$  is gamma function. These displays differ at how we 95 average over s and t. In particular, in (1.2) the uniform weights are given 96 on the  $\mathbb{R}^1 \otimes \mathbb{R}^1$  space, and in (1.3) and (1.4) more weights are given on 97 higher density regions. It is thus anticipated that the projection correlation 98 test and the multivariate BKR correlation test are more robust to extreme 90 observations than the distance correlation test. The projection correlation 100 uses the joint density of  $(\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x})$  and  $(\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{y})$  as a weight function, whereas the 101 multivariate BKR correlation uses the product of their marginal densities. 102 The asymptotic null distributions of the above projection-pursuit in-103 dependence tests depend on the joint distribution of  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  which are 104 however generally unknown in practice. To approximate the asymptotic 105 null distributions, random permutations are widely used in these indepen-106 dence tests. However, the consistency of random permutations is rarely 107 explored in the literature. In the present context, we shall show that, the 108 permutation procedure provides a reasonable approximation of the asymp-109 totic null distributions without exhausting all possible permutations. As a 110

#### 2. SOME PRELIMINARIES

by-product, this allows us to carry out power analysis of projection-pursuit 111 independence tests. We shall show that, in the presence of outliers, the 112 permutation test based on either projection correlation or the multivariate 113 BKR correlation is very powerful while the permutation test based on dis-114 tance correlation may lose power. To gain more insights on their asymptotic 115 behaviors, we analyze the minimax optimality of these projection-pursuit 116 independence tests over a wide class of distributions using the Le Cam's 117 Lemma (Baraud, 2002). We show that their minimum separation rates are 118 all of order  $n^{-1}$ , where n stands for the sample size. The minimum sep-119 aration rate is a lower bound that characterizes the separation boundary 120 between the testable and non-testable regions. The rate  $n^{-1}$  is indeed tight 121 in terms of projection correlation, distance correlation and the multivariate 122 BKR correlation, respectively. 123

# 124 2. SOME PRELIMINARIES

# 125 2.1 The Computational Complexities

We provide explicit forms for (1.2), (1.3) and (1.4) first. Suppose  $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i), i = 1, \ldots, 6\}$  are six independent copies of  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ . Let  $\mathbf{z}$  be either  $\mathbf{x}$  or  $\mathbf{y}$ . We define  $a(\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, \mathbf{z}_3, \mathbf{z}_4, \mathbf{z}_5) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} ang(\mathbf{z}_1 - \mathbf{z}_5, \mathbf{z}_2 - \mathbf{z}_5) + ang(\mathbf{z}_3 - \mathbf{z}_5, \mathbf{z}_4 - \mathbf{z}_5) - ang(\mathbf{z}_1 - \mathbf{z}_5, \mathbf{z}_3 - \mathbf{z}_5) - ang(\mathbf{z}_2 - \mathbf{z}_5, \mathbf{z}_4 - \mathbf{z}_5)$ , where  $ang(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=}$ 

#### 2. SOME PRELIMINARIES

 $\operatorname{arccos} \{(\mathbf{a}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{b})/(\|\mathbf{a}\|\|\mathbf{b}\|)\}$  stands for the angle between the two vectors  $\mathbf{a}$  and 130 **b** and  $\operatorname{arccos}(\cdot)$  is the inverse cosine function. If  $\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{z}_j$  and  $\mathbf{z}_k$  are all distinc-131 tive,  $ang(\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{z}_k, \mathbf{z}_j - \mathbf{z}_k)$  is well defined and ranges from 0 to  $\pi$ . Following 132 Escanciano (2006) and Zhu et al. (2017), we define  $ang(\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{z}_k, \mathbf{z}_j - \mathbf{z}_k) = 0$ , if 133  $\mathbf{z}_i = \mathbf{z}_j \neq \mathbf{z}_k$ , or  $\mathbf{z}_i = \mathbf{z}_k \neq \mathbf{z}_j$ , or  $\mathbf{z}_j = \mathbf{z}_k \neq \mathbf{z}_i$ , and  $\operatorname{ang}(\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{z}_k, \mathbf{z}_j - \mathbf{z}_k) = -\pi$ 134 if  $\mathbf{z}_i = \mathbf{z}_j = \mathbf{z}_k$ . We further define  $b(\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, \mathbf{z}_3, \mathbf{z}_4) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} ||\mathbf{z}_1 - \mathbf{z}_2|| + ||\mathbf{z}_3 - \mathbf{z}_3|| + ||\mathbf{z}_3 - \mathbf$ 135  $\mathbf{z}_4 \| - \| \mathbf{z}_1 - \mathbf{z}_3 \| - \| \mathbf{z}_2 - \mathbf{z}_4 \|$ . Székely et al. (2007) and Székely and Rizzo 136 (2009) showed that DC( $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ ) =  $E\{b(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{x}_4)b(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \mathbf{y}_3, \mathbf{y}_4)\}/4$ . By 137 Theorem 1 of Zhu et al. (2017), the explicit form of projection correlation 138 is given by  $PC(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = E\{a(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{x}_4, \mathbf{x}_5)a(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \mathbf{y}_3, \mathbf{y}_4, \mathbf{y}_5)\}/4$ . Kim 139 et al. (2018, Theorem 7.2) derived that the multivariate BKR correlation 140 has the form of mBKR( $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ ) =  $E\{a(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{x}_4, \mathbf{x}_5)a(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \mathbf{y}_3, \mathbf{y}_4, \mathbf{y}_6)\}/4$ . 141 With a random sample of size n, say,  $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i), i = 1, ..., n\}$ , we estimate 142  $DC(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ ,  $PC(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  and  $mBKR(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  with U-statistic theory. In particular, 143

$$\widehat{\mathrm{DC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{4(n)_4\}^{-1} \sum_{(i,j,k,l)}^n b(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{x}_l) b(\mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{y}_j, \mathbf{y}_k, \mathbf{y}_l),$$

$$\widehat{\mathrm{PC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{4(n)_5\}^{-1} \sum_{(i,j,k,l,r)}^n a(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{x}_l, \mathbf{x}_r) a(\mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{y}_j, \mathbf{y}_k, \mathbf{y}_l, \mathbf{y}_r)$$

146 and

<sup>147</sup> 
$$\widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{4(n)_6\}^{-1} \sum_{(i,j,k,l,r,s)}^n a(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{x}_l, \mathbf{x}_r) a(\mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{y}_j, \mathbf{y}_k, \mathbf{y}_l, \mathbf{y}_s),$$

149

#### 2. SOME PRELIMINARIES

where  $(n)_m \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} n(n-1)\cdots(n-m+1)$ . The summations

$$\sum_{(i,j,k,l)}^{n}, \sum_{(i,j,k,l,r)}^{n} \text{ and } \sum_{(i,j,k,l,r,s)}^{n}$$

<sup>150</sup> are taken over the indexes that are different from each other.

<sup>151</sup> Next we compare the computational complexity of calculating  $\widehat{PC}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ , <sup>152</sup>  $\widehat{DC}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  and  $\widehat{mBKR}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ . The sample distance covariance is a *U*-statistic <sup>153</sup> of order four, the sample projection covariance is a *U*-statistic of order five, <sup>154</sup> and the sample multivariate BKR correlation is a *U*-statistic of order six. <sup>155</sup> Székely and Rizzo (2013) and Yao et al. (2018) stated that

156 
$$\widehat{\mathrm{DC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \{n(n-3)\}^{-1} \Big[ \mathrm{tr}(\widetilde{\mathbf{A}}\widetilde{\mathbf{B}}) \Big]$$

$$+\{(n-1)_2\}^{-1}\mathbf{1}_n^{\mathrm{T}}\widetilde{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{1}_n\mathbf{1}_n^{\mathrm{T}}\widetilde{\mathbf{B}}\mathbf{1}_n-2(n-2)^{-1}\mathbf{1}_n^{\mathrm{T}}\widetilde{\mathbf{A}}\widetilde{\mathbf{B}}\mathbf{1}_n\right](2.5)$$

where  $\mathbf{1}_{n} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$  is a vector of ones,  $\widetilde{\mathbf{A}} = (\|\mathbf{x}_{i} - \mathbf{x}_{j}\|)_{n \times n} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $\widetilde{\mathbf{B}} = (\|\mathbf{y}_{i} - \mathbf{y}_{j}\|)_{n \times n} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . That is, the computational complexity of  $\widehat{\mathrm{DC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ is of order  $O(n^{2})$ . To calculate  $\widehat{\mathrm{PC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  and  $\widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ , we define  $\mathbf{A}_{k} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (a_{ijk}) \in \mathbb{R}^{(n-1) \times (n-1)}$  and  $\mathbf{B}_{k} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (b_{ijk}) \in \mathbb{R}^{(n-1) \times (n-1)}$ , where  $a_{ijk} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathrm{ang}(\mathbf{x}_{i} - \mathbf{x}_{k}, \mathbf{x}_{j} - \mathbf{x}_{k}), b_{ijk} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathrm{ang}(\mathbf{y}_{i} - \mathbf{y}_{k}, \mathbf{y}_{j} - \mathbf{y}_{k})$ , for  $i \neq k, j \neq k$  and  $k = 1, \ldots, n$ .

#### SOME PRELIMINARIES 2.

With some straightforward algebraic calculations, it can be verified that 163

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 & & \sum_{(i,j,k)}^{n} a_{ijk} b_{ijk} &=& \sum_{k=1}^{n} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}_{k} \mathbf{B}_{k}), \\
 & & & \sum_{(i,j,k,l)}^{n} a_{ijl} b_{ikl} &=& \sum_{l=1}^{n} \{\mathbf{1}_{(n-1)}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{A}_{l} \mathbf{B}_{l} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)} - \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}_{l} \mathbf{B}_{l})\}, \\
 & & & & \\
 & & & \sum_{(i,j,k,l,r)}^{n} a_{ijr} b_{klr} &=& \sum_{r=1}^{n} \{\mathbf{1}_{(n-1)}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{A}_{r} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{B}_{r} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)} \\
 & & & -4\mathbf{1}_{(n-1)}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{A}_{r} \mathbf{B}_{r} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)} + 2\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}_{r} \mathbf{B}_{r}) \\
\end{array}$$

Collecting these results, we have 168

169 
$$\widehat{PC}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \{n(n-1)(n-4)\}^{-1} \sum_{r=1}^{n} \left[ \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}_{r} \mathbf{B}_{r}) + \{(n-2)_{2}\}^{-1} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{A}_{r} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{B}_{r} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)} \right]$$

171

 $-2(n-3)^{-1}\mathbf{1}_{(n-1)}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{A}_{r}\mathbf{B}_{r}\mathbf{1}_{(n-1)}\Big].$ (2.6)

Thus, the computational complexity of  $\widehat{PC}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  is of order  $O(n^3)$ . Simi-172 larly, we can verify that 173

$$\widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \{n(n-1)(n-2)(n-5)\}^{-1} \sum_{r \neq s}^{n} \left[ \mathrm{tr}(\mathbf{A}_{r} \mathbf{B}_{s}) + \{(n-3)_{2}\}^{-1} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{A}_{r} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{B}_{s} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)} - 2(n-4)^{-1} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{A}_{r} \mathbf{B}_{s} \mathbf{1}_{(n-1)} \right], \qquad (2.7)$$

indicating that estimating the multivariate BKR correlation requires  $O(n^4)$ 177 operations. Calculating distance correlation has the smallest complexity. 178

# 179 2.2 The Permutation Procedure

Zhu et al. (2017) and Székely et al. (2007) showed that the U-statistic 180 estimates,  $\widehat{DC}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  and  $\widehat{PC}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ , are *n*-consistent under  $H_0$  and root-*n*-181 consistent under fixed alternatives, respectively. Consequently,  $n DC(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ 182 and  $n \widehat{PC}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  converge in distribution to their respective nondegenerate 183 limits under  $H_0$  and diverge to infinity under fixed alternatives. Following 184 Zhu et al. (2017), we can establish the distribution theory for mBKR un-185 der both the null and the alternative hypotheses. To be precise, mBKR 186 is *n*-consistent under  $H_0$  and root-*n*-consistent under fixed alternatives. 187 Therefore, we reject  $H_0$  when  $n \ \widehat{\mathrm{DC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}), \ n \ \widehat{\mathrm{PC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  and  $n \ \widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}$  are 188 greater than or equal to certain critical values. However, the asymptotic 189 null distributions of  $n \ \widehat{\mathrm{DC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}), n \ \widehat{\mathrm{PC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  and  $n \ \widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}$  are not tractable 190 when p > 1 or q > 1. To address this issue, Zhu et al. (2017) and Székely 191 et al. (2007) suggested to approximate the critical values adaptively using 192 the following random permutation approach. 193

194	1. Suppose $\{i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_n\}$ and $\{j_1, j_2, \ldots, j_n\}$ are two random permuta-
195	tions of $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ . Define $\mathbf{x}_k^b \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbf{x}_{i_k}$ and $\mathbf{y}_k^b \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbf{y}_{j_k}$ , for $k = 1, \ldots, n$ .
196	Re-estimate $DC(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ , $PC(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ and $mBKR(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ using $\{(\mathbf{x}_k^b, \mathbf{y}_k^b), k = $
197	$1, \ldots, n$ . Denote the resulting estimates by $\widehat{\mathrm{DC}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b), \ \widehat{\mathrm{PC}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b)$
198	and $\widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b)$ , respectively. Replicate this permutation proce-

# 2. SOME PRELIMINARIES

199	dure B times, say, $B = 1000$ , to approximate the asymptotic null
200	distributions of $\widehat{\mathrm{DC}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b)$ , $\widehat{\mathrm{PC}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b)$ and $\widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b)$ .
201	2. Denote the observations $\mathcal{D}_n \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \{(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i), i = 1, \cdots, n\}$ . We define the
202	critical values at the significance level $\alpha$ by
203	$q_{\alpha,n}^{DC} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \inf \left[ t \in \mathbb{R} : 1 - \alpha \le \operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{DC}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \le t \mid \mathcal{D}_{n}\} \right],  (2.8)$
204	$q_{\alpha,n}^{PC} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \inf \left[ t \in \mathbb{R} : 1 - \alpha \le \operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{PC}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \le t \mid \mathcal{D}_{n}\} \right],  (2.9)$
205	$q_{\alpha,n}^{mBKR} \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \inf \left[ t \in \mathbb{R} : 1 - \alpha \le \operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b) \le t \mid \mathcal{D}_n\} \right],$
206	(2.10)
206 207	(2.10) We approximate $\operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{DC}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b) \leq t \mid \mathcal{D}_n\}, \ \operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{PC}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b) \leq t \mid \mathcal{D}_n\}$
206 207 208	(2.10) We approximate $\operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{DC}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b) \leq t \mid \mathcal{D}_n\}$ , $\operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{PC}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b) \leq t \mid \mathcal{D}_n\}$ and $\operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b) \leq t \mid \mathcal{D}_n\}$ with empirical probabilities
206 207 208 209	(2.10) We approximate $\operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{DC}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \leq t \mid \mathcal{D}_{n}\}, \operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{PC}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \leq t \mid \mathcal{D}_{n}\}\$ and $\operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \leq t \mid \mathcal{D}_{n}\}\$ with empirical probabilities $B^{-1}\sum_{b=1}^{B} I\left\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{DC}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \leq t\right\},  B^{-1}\sum_{b=1}^{B} I\left\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{PC}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \leq t\right\},$

210

This is in spirit to approximate the asymptotic null distributions of  $n \ \widehat{\mathrm{DC}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b), n \ \widehat{\mathrm{PC}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b) \text{ and } n \ \widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{y}^b), \text{ respectively.}$ 211

This random permutation procedure is intuitively valid and thus widely 212 used in multiple testing problems and independence tests. A random per-213 mutation procedure is said to be consistent if it provides a reasonable ap-214

proximation to the asymptotic null distribution. The consistency of random 215 permutation has been extensively studied by Romano and Wolf (2005) in 216 the context of multiple testing problems. However, its consistency is rarely 217 discussed in the context of independence tests. In Theorem 1 we show that 218 this permutation procedure is consistent in all three independence tests. 219 The detailed proofs are given in the Supplementary Material. Throughout 220  $pr(\cdot \mid H_0)$  and  $pr(\cdot \mid H_1)$  stand for the respective probabilities of a random 221 event occurs under  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ . They are not conditional probabilities. 222

223 Theorem 1. As  $n \to \infty$ , both

224 
$$\sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{PC}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \le t \mid \mathcal{D}_{n}\} - \operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{PC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \le t \mid H_{0}\} \right|$$

225 and

<sup>226</sup> 
$$\sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \leq t \mid \mathcal{D}_{n}\} - \operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq t \mid H_{0}\} \right|$$

<sup>227</sup> converge in probability to 0. If we assume  $E(||\mathbf{x}||^2) + E(||\mathbf{y}||^2) < \infty$ , then

$$\sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{DC}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \le t \mid \mathcal{D}_{n}\} - \operatorname{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\operatorname{DC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \le t \mid H_{0}\} \right|$$

<sup>229</sup> converges in probability to 0 as  $n \to \infty$ .

We require the condition  $E(||\mathbf{x}||^2) + E(||\mathbf{y}||^2) < \infty$  to ensure that the kernel of the *U*-statistic estimate  $\widehat{DC}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  is uniformly integrable. Theorem 1 guarantees that this random permutation procedure approximates

the asymptotic null distributions precisely as long as the sample size n is 233 sufficiently large. In other words, the type-I error rates of all projection-234 pursuit independence tests are asymptotically controllable. This allows us 235 to analyze statistical power of these projection-pursuit independence tests. 236 Exhausting all possible permutations is usually computationally pro-237 hibitive and practically infeasible. Therefore, we provide a random approx-238 imation in the above permutation procedure. Proposition 1 states that, as 239 long as the number of random permutations, B, is sufficiently large, the 240 random approximation is asymptotically valid. 241

PROPOSITION 1. Given the data  $\mathcal{D}_n$ ,

<sup>243</sup> 
$$\sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \left| B^{-1} \sum_{b=1}^{B} I\left\{ n \ \widehat{\mathrm{PC}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \leq t \right\} - \mathrm{pr}\left\{ n \ \widehat{\mathrm{PC}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \leq t \mid \mathcal{D}_{n} \right\} \right|,$$
<sup>244</sup>

<sup>245</sup> 
$$\sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \left| B^{-1} \sum_{b=1}^{B} I\left\{ n \ \widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \le t \right\} - \mathrm{pr}\{n \ \widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \le t \mid \mathcal{D}_{n} \} \right|,$$

246 and

<sup>247</sup> 
$$\sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \left| B^{-1} \sum_{b=1}^{B} I\left\{ n \ \widehat{\mathrm{DC}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \le t \right\} - \mathrm{pr}\left\{ n \ \widehat{\mathrm{DC}}(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{b}) \le t \mid \mathcal{D}_{n} \right\} \right.$$

<sup>248</sup> converge in probability to 0, as  $B \to \infty$ .

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26

# 249 3. ROBUSTNESS STUDY

<sup>250</sup> We first highlight the robustness of the projection correlation test and the <sup>251</sup> multivariate BKR correlation test in a Huber contamination model. The <sup>252</sup> following is an  $\epsilon$ -contamination model:

(**x**, **y**) ~ 
$$F_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}} = (1 - \epsilon) F_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}^{(1)} + \epsilon H_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}^{(n)},$$
 (3.11)

where  $F_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(1)}$  and  $H_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(n)}$  are two distributional functions,  $F_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(1)}$  is fixed yet  $H_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(n)}$ may vary with n, and  $0 < \epsilon < 1$ . We remark here that  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are dependent if  $(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) \sim F_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(1)}$  and independent if  $(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) \sim H_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(n)}$ . We use the  $\epsilon$ -contamination model (3.11) to evaluate whether an independence test can maintain adequate power when  $H_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(n)}$  has an adverse impact on its power performance. The test functions using distance correlation, projection correlation and the multivariate BKR correlation are defined, respectively, by

$$\Phi_{\alpha}^{DC} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} I\{n \ \widehat{\text{DC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ge q_{\alpha, n}^{DC}\}, \quad \Phi_{\alpha}^{PC} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} I\{n \ \widehat{\text{PC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ge q_{\alpha, n}^{PC}\},$$

$$\Phi_{\alpha}^{mBKR} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} I\{n \ \widehat{\text{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ge q_{\alpha, n}^{mBKR}\},$$

where  $q_{\alpha,n}^{DC}$ ,  $q_{\alpha,n}^{PC}$  and  $q_{\alpha,n}^{mBKR}$  are the critical values defined in (2.8), (2.9) and (2.10) through random permutations, and I(A) is an indicator function, which equals one if A is true and zero otherwise. For all three projectionpursuit independence tests, we reject  $H_0$  at the significance level  $\alpha$  when

#### 3. ROBUSTNESS STUDY

the estimates of projection-pursuit correlations are larger than their critical values, that is, when  $n \ \widehat{DC}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ge q_{\alpha,n}^{DC}$ ,  $n \ \widehat{PC}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ge q_{\alpha,n}^{PC}$  and  $n \ \widehat{mBKR}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ge q_{\alpha,n}^{mBKR}$ . We study the robustness of projection-pursuit independence tests through comparing their power performance in that Theorem 1 ensures that one can always use random permutations to control the type-I error rate.

Theorem 2 states that the independence tests built upon projection correlation and the multivariate BKR correlation are uniformly powerful over different types of contaminations. By contrast, the distance correlation test becomes asymptotically powerless against certain contaminations.

Theorem 2. Suppose  $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i), i = 1, ..., n\}$  are generated independently from model (3.11) with the contamination ratio  $\epsilon = cn^{-1/2}$ , where c is a small positive constant not depending on n, and there exist three positive constants,  $\varpi$ ,  $\varpi'$  and  $\varpi''$ , such that  $PC(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ge \varpi$ ,  $DC(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ge \varpi'$  and mBKR $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ge \varpi''$  for sufficiently large n.

1. The projection correlation test and the multivariate BKR correlation test are asymptotically powerful uniformly over  $H_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(n)}$  in the sense that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \inf_{H_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(n)}} \operatorname{pr}(\Phi_{\alpha}^{PC} = 1 \mid H_1) = 1 \text{ and } \lim_{n \to \infty} \inf_{H_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(n)}} \operatorname{pr}(\Phi_{\alpha}^{mBKR} = 1 \mid H_1) = 1.$$

#### 3. ROBUSTNESS STUDY

2. Assume  $E(\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2) < \infty$  if  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \sim F_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}^{(1)}$ , and if  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \sim H_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}^{(n)}$ ,  $n\{\operatorname{var}(\|\mathbf{x}\|) \operatorname{var}(\|\mathbf{y}\|)\}^{-1/2} = o(1)$ . The distance correlation test is asymptotically powerless against such choices of  $H_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}^{(n)}$  in the sense of

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \inf_{H_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(n)}} \operatorname{pr}(\Phi_{\alpha}^{DC} = 1 \mid H_1) \le \alpha.$$

The first assertion of Theorem 2 implies that the projection correlation test and the multivariate BKR correlation test are insensitive to the presence of outliers. In the second statement of Theorem 2, we assume  $n\{var(||\mathbf{x}||) var(||\mathbf{y}||)\}^{-1/2} = o(1)$  if  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \sim H_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}^{(n)}$ , which allows  $var(||\mathbf{x}||)$ and  $var(||\mathbf{y}||)$  to be divergent, and accordingly, model (3.11) to yield outliers. We impose this condition to demonstrate that the distance correlation test might lose power in the presence of outliers.

We conduct simulations to illustrate Theorem 2 with finite sample size. Following Davison and Hinkley (1997), we set B = 1000 throughout our numerical studies.

**Example 1.** In the  $\epsilon$ -contamination model (3.11), we consider an extreme case for  $F_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(1)}$ : **x** follows multivariate standard normal distribution, and **y** equals **x** exactly. This ensures that **x** and **y** are dependent. In other words, the observations are drawn under  $H_1$ . In addition, we set

<sup>296</sup> 
$$H_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(n)} = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-p/2} \exp\{-(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x})^2/(2\sigma^2)\} \prod_{k=1}^p I(0 \le Y_k \le 1).$$

We consider two scenarios for  $(\epsilon, \sigma)$ . In the first scenario,  $\epsilon = 0.5n^{-1/2}$ 297 and  $\sigma = \{1, 2.5, 5, 10, 20, 40, 80\}$ . In the second scenario,  $\sigma = 100$  and  $\epsilon =$ 298  $cn^{-1/2}$ , for  $c = \{0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6\}$ . Both  $\sigma$  and  $\epsilon$  control the degree 299 of heavy-tailedness. As  $\sigma$  and c increase, the distance between  $H_0$  and 300  $H_1$  is smaller and the probabilities of observing extreme values from  $H_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(n)}$ 301 increase as well. We fix p = q = 10, n = 30, and decide the critical values 302 with permutations at the significance level  $\alpha = 0.05$ . The simulations are 303 replicated 1000 times. The empirical powers of the projection correlation 304 test, the distance correlation test and the multivariate BKR correlation test 305 are summarized in Figure 1. It can be clearly seen that, the empirical powers 306 of the projection correlation test and the multivariate BKR correlation test 307 are very close to one throughout, indicating that the projection correlation 308 test and the multivariate BKR correlation test are consistently robust to 309 the changes of  $\sigma$  and  $\epsilon$ . By contrast, the empirical power of the distance 310 correlation test drops down very quickly as  $\sigma$  and  $\epsilon$  increase. The distance 311 correlation test is completely powerless when  $\sigma$  or  $\epsilon$  is sufficiently large. 312

**Example 2.** In the  $\epsilon$ -contamination model (3.11), we set  $H_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(n)}$  to be the product of (p+q) independent t distributions with one degree of freedom, and  $F_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(1)}$  to be the Dirac measure of the form  $F_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(1)} = I(\mathbf{x} = \kappa \mathbf{1}_p)I(\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x})$ , for  $\kappa = \{5, 15\}$ , where  $\mathbf{1}_p$  is a *p*-vector of ones. Let  $\epsilon = cn^{-1/2}$ , for c =

# 3. ROBUSTNESS STUDY



Figure 1: The empirical powers of the projection correlation test (solid line), the distance correlation test (dotted line) and the multivariate BKR correlation test (dotdash line) when the random sample is drawn from the  $\epsilon$ -contamination model (3.11) with different  $\epsilon$  and  $\sigma$ .

 $\{0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0\}$ . As *c* increases, the probabilities of observing extreme values from  $H_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}}^{(n)}$  increase as well, which, as stated in Theorem 2, may affect the power performance of independence tests. Let  $p = q = \{5, 10, 20\}$  and n = 30. The significance level is set to be  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

The empirical powers are summarized in Tables 1 and 2 based on 1000 replications. Following the suggestion of an anonymous reviewer, we also

#### 4. MINIMAX OPTIMALITY

include the distance correlation based t-test (Székely and Rizzo, 2013) into 323 our comparison. We denote this test by SR, the initials of the authors' 324 last names. The SR test is asymptotically distribution-free. Therefore, we 325 use its asymptotic null distribution directly to decide the critical values. It 326 is expected that, the projection correlation test and the multivariate BKR 327 correlation test are significantly more powerful than the distance correla-328 tion test and the distance correlation t-test across all scenarios. When c329 decreases from 1 to 0.2, p and q increase from 5 to 20, or  $\kappa$  increase from 5 330 to 15, the deviation from  $H_0$  is accumulating. The powers of the projection 331 correlation test and the multivariate BKR correlation test increase signifi-332 cantly. By contrast, the distance correlation test loses its power completely 333 when  $\kappa = 5$ . Since the SR test was specifically developed for large dimen-334 sions, it is more powerful than the distance correlation test, especially when 335 p = 20. However, the SR test is still inferior significantly to the projection 336 correlation test and the multivariate BKR correlation test in terms of power 337 performance, particularly when p and c are relatively small. 338

## 339 4. MINIMAX OPTIMALITY

Next we study the minimax optimality of the projection correlation test, the distance correlation test and the multivariate BKR correlation test. To

Table 1: The empirical powers of the projection correlation test ("PC"), the distance correlation test ("DC"), the multivariate BKR correlation test ("mBKR") and the distance correlation t-test ("SR") in Example 2 with three different settings of dimension when  $\kappa = 5$  and the nominal level is 0.05.

		c = 1.0	c = 0.8	c = 0.6	c = 0.4	c = 0.2
p = 5	$\mathbf{PC}$	0.152	0.391	0.635	0.808	0.907
	DC	0.056	0.069	0.104	0.158	0.219
	mBKR	0.114	0.303	0.534	0.725	0.841
	$\mathbf{SR}$	0.059	0.102	0.247	0.386	0.457
p = 10	$\mathbf{PC}$	0.198	0.458	0.701	0.851	0.946
	DC	0.051	0.063	0.083	0.123	0.160
	mBKR	0.164	0.397	0.616	0.798	0.884
	$\operatorname{SR}$	0.058	0.143	0.295	0.479	0.542
p = 20	PC	0.231	0.544	0.777	0.897	0.955
	DC	0.053	0.061	0.078	0.089	0.109
	mBKR	0.182	0.410	0.647	0.841	0.916
	$\mathbf{SR}$	0.074	0.221	0.346	0.552	0.703

simplify subsequent illustration, let  $\Phi_{\alpha}$  be a level- $\alpha$  test function, which equals 1 if one rejects  $H_0$  and 0 otherwise. Denote by  $\operatorname{pr}(\cdot \mid H_0)$  and  $\operatorname{pr}(\cdot \mid$  $H_1)$  the probabilities evaluated under  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ , respectively. Accordingly, pr( $\Phi_{\alpha} = 1 \mid H_0$ ) is the type-I error rate and  $\operatorname{pr}(\Phi_{\alpha} = 0 \mid H_1)$  is the type-II error rate. We define the class of level- $\alpha$  test functions by  $\mathcal{T}_{\alpha} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{\Phi_{\alpha} :$ pr( $\Phi_{\alpha} = 1 \mid H_0$ )  $\leq \alpha$ }. We measure the dependence between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ 

Table 2: The empirical powers of the projection correlation test ("PC"), the distance correlation test ("DC"), the multivariate BKR test ("mBKR") and the distance correlation t-test ("SR") in Example 2 with three different settings of dimension when  $\kappa = 15$  and the nominal level is 0.05.

		c = 1.0	c = 0.8	c = 0.6	c = 0.4	c = 0.2
p = 5	$\mathbf{PC}$	0.216	0.508	0.749	0.876	0.948
	DC	0.112	0.239	0.394	0.512	0.620
	mBKR	0.195	0.482	0.711	0.804	0.896
	$\mathbf{SR}$	0.132	0.384	0.508	0.615	0.732
p = 10	$\mathbf{PC}$	0.272	0.592	0.791	0.913	0.971
	DC	0.082	0.177	0.282	0.401	0.512
	mBKR	0.266	0.514	0.750	0.875	0.914
	$\mathbf{SR}$	0.190	0.455	0.682	0.796	0.889
p = 20	PC	0.318	0.655	0.852	0.940	0.977
	DC	0.061	0.110	0.188	0.264	0.354
	mBKR	0.287	0.568	0.796	0.918	0.962
	$\mathbf{SR}$	0.242	0.544	0.751	0.885	0.951

<sup>348</sup> by projection correlation, distance correlation and the multivariate BKR
 <sup>349</sup> correlation, respectively. Define

$$\mathcal{U}^{PC}(c) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) : \mathrm{PC}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ge cn^{-1} \}, \quad \mathcal{U}^{DC}(c) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) : \mathrm{DC}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ge cn^{-1} \},$$

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$$\mathcal{U}^{mBKR}(c) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) : \text{mBKR}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ge cn^{-1}\}.$$

### 4. MINIMAX OPTIMALITY

If the degree of dependence between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  is weak, it may be difficult to distinguish between  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ . Theorem 3 states that, for all level- $\alpha$  tests, there exist  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{U}^{PC}(c_0)$  for the projection correlation test,  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{U}^{DC}(c_0)$  for the distance correlation test and  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{U}^{mBKR}(c_0)$ for the multivariate BKR correlation test, such that their type-II error rates,  $\operatorname{pr}(\Phi_{\alpha} = 0 \mid H_1)$ , are not asymptotically negligible even when  $n \to \infty$ . The specified constant  $c_0$  is quantifies the degree of deviation from  $H_0$ .

Theorem 3. For any  $0 < \xi < 1 - \alpha$ , there exists  $c_0 > 0$  such that the minimax type-II error rates are lower bounded as  $n \to \infty$ , namely

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \inf_{\Phi_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{T}_{\alpha}} \sup_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{U}^{PC}(c_0)} \operatorname{pr}(\Phi_{\alpha}^{PC} = 0 \mid H_1) \ge \xi,$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \inf_{\Phi_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{T}_{\alpha}} \sup_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{U}^{mBKR}(c_0)} \operatorname{pr}(\Phi_{\alpha}^{mBKR} = 0 \mid H_1) \ge \xi$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \inf_{\Phi_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{T}_{\alpha}} \sup_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{U}^{DC}(c_0)} \operatorname{pr}(\Phi_{\alpha}^{DC} = 0 \mid H_1) \ge \xi$$

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Theorem 3 indicates that, the projection-pursuit independence tests can not maintain adequate power even if the dependence between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are  $cn^{-1}$  far apart in terms of PC( $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ ), mBKR( $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ ) or DC( $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ ), respectively, for an arbitrarily small c. However, if we allow c to diverge to infinity, the story will be different. To be specific, the type-II error rates of these independence tests shrink to zero as  $n \to \infty$ . This is formulated in Theorem 4. Define

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# 4. MINIMAX OPTIMALITY

$$\begin{split} \Phi_{\alpha}^{DC} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} I\{n \ \widehat{\mathrm{DC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \geq q_{\alpha,n}^{DC}\}, \quad \Phi_{\alpha}^{PC} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} I\{n \ \widehat{\mathrm{PC}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \geq q_{\alpha,n}^{PC}\}\\ \Phi_{\alpha}^{mBKR} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} I\{n \ \widehat{\mathrm{mBKR}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \geq q_{\alpha,n}^{mBKR}\},\\ \text{where } q_{\alpha,n}^{DC}, q_{\alpha,n}^{PC} \text{ and } q_{\alpha,n}^{mBKR} \text{ are defined in (2.8), (2.9) and (2.10).}\\ \text{Theorem 4. The minimax type-II error rate of the projection correlation test tends to zero uniformly over  $\mathcal{U}^{PC}(c_n)$  with  $c_n \to \infty$  as  $n \to \infty$ , namely  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sup_{(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})\in\mathcal{U}^{PC}(c_n)} \operatorname{pr}(\Phi_{\alpha}^{PC}=0\mid H_1)=0. \end{split}$ 
The minimax type-II error rate of the multivariate BKR correlation test tends to zero uniformly over  $\mathcal{U}^{mBKR}(c_n)$  with  $c_n \to \infty$  as  $n \to \infty$ , namely  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sup_{(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})\in\mathcal{U}^{mBKR}(c_n)} \operatorname{pr}(\Phi_{\alpha}^{mBKR}=0\mid H_1)=0. \end{cases}$ 
Furthermore, if  $\|\mathbf{x}\|$  and  $\|\mathbf{y}\|$  are squared-integrable, the minimax type-II error rate of the distance correlation test tends to zero uniformly over  $\mathcal{U}^{DC}(c_n)$  with  $c_n \to \infty$  as  $n \to \infty$ , namely  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sup_{(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})\in\mathcal{U}^{DC}(c_n)} \operatorname{pr}(\Phi_{\alpha}^{mBKR}=0\mid H_1)=0. \end{cases}$$$

Theorem 4, together with Theorem 3, indicates that the minimax lower bound of the minimum separation rate is  $n^{-1}$ . This lower bound is asymp-totically tight for the projection correlation test and the multivariate BKR 

correlation test. If  $\|\mathbf{x}\|$  and  $\|\mathbf{y}\|$  are squared-integrable, this lower bound is also asymptotically tight for the distance correlation test.

# 391 5. DISCUSSION

We consider three projection-pursuit correlations, namely, distance corre-392 lation, projection correlation and the multivariate BKR correlation. All 393 these correlations quantify the difference between the joint distribution 394 function and the product of the marginal distribution functions. These 395 three projection-pursuit correlations differ only in the weight function. We 396 investigate their robustness, and compare the power performance of inde-397 pendence tests built upon these projection-pursuit correlations under a min-398 imax framework. We also seek for conditions under which these projection-399 pursuit independence tests are minimax rate optimal. 400

It is practically interesting yet theoretically challenging to characterize the exact value of c in  $\mathcal{U}^{DC}(c)$ ,  $\mathcal{U}^{PC}(c)$  and  $\mathcal{U}^{mBKR}(c)$  that separates the testable region from the non-testable one. This is because the class of alternatives we are targeting is very huge owing to the existence of nonlinear dependence. This issue is beyond the scope of the present context though, it deserves further investigations.

407	Supplementary Materials The supplementary materials contain	
408	proofs of $(1.2)$ , Proposition 1 and Theorems 1-4.	
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