1. Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

For any two real (or complex) sequences (or vectors)

$$a=(a_1,a_2,...,a_n), b=(b_1,b_2,...,b_n)$$

the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality states:

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i
ight)^2 \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2
ight) \left(\sum_{i=1}^n b_i^2
ight).$$

This inequality is fundamental in linear algebra, functional analysis, and probability theory. In statistics, it guarantees that the **correlation coefficient**

$$r = \frac{\mathrm{Cov}(X,Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

always satisfies |r|≤1.

Proof (Quadratic Function Method)

We construct a quadratic function that must always be nonnegative:

$$f(t)=\sum_{i=1}^n(a_i-tb_i)^2.$$

1. Nonnegativity:

Since squares are always nonnegative, we have $f(t) \ge 0$ for all real t.

2. Expand the expression:

$$f(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 - 2t \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i + t^2 \sum_{i=1}^n b_i^2.$$

This is a quadratic in t:

$$f(t) = At^2 - 2Bt + C,$$

With

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i^2, \quad B = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i, \quad C = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2.$$

3. **Discriminant condition**:

For f(t) to be nonnegative for all t, the discriminant must satisfy:

$$\Delta = (2B)^2 - 4AC = 4B^2 - 4AC \le 0,$$

which simplifies to

$$B^2 < AC$$
.

4. Conclusion:

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i
ight)^2 \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2
ight) \left(\sum_{i=1}^n b_i^2
ight)$$

5. Equality condition:

Equality holds if and only if there exists a constant λ such that

$$a_i = \lambda b_i$$
 for all i ,

i.e., when the vectors a and b are linearly dependent.

Interpretation in Statistics

If we let $a_i = X_i - \mathbb{E}[X]$ and, $b_i = Y_i - \mathbb{E}[Y]$ then the inequality directly shows that the

Pearson correlation coefficient satisfies:

$$|r| \leq 1$$
.

Thus, Cauchy–Schwarz is the mathematical foundation behind why correlation must always lie between -1 and +1.

2. Concepts of Independence and Uncorrelation

Independence

Two random variables X and Y are **independent** if knowledge of one gives no information about the other. Formally, for all measurable sets A,B:

$$P(X \in A, Y \in B) = P(X \in A) \cdot P(Y \in B).$$

- This is a **strong condition**: it means that the joint distribution factors into the product of the marginals.
- Independence eliminates all forms of dependence—both linear and nonlinear.

Uncorrelation

Two random variables are **uncorrelated** if their covariance is zero:

$$Cov(X,Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])] = 0.$$

- This condition only rules out **linear relationships**.
- However, X and Y may still be related **nonlinearly**.

Key Differences

- Strength:
 - \circ Independence \Rightarrow uncorrelation (if variances are finite).
 - \circ Uncorrelation \Longrightarrow independence.
- Implications:
 - o Independence guarantees that all possible dependencies vanish.
 - o Uncorrelation only ensures the absence of **linear dependence**.

Example:

Let $X \sim \text{Uniform}[-1,1]$, and define $Y = X^2$.

- Then $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$ and Cov(X,Y)=0.
- So X and Y are **uncorrelated**, but they are clearly **dependent** (since knowing X determines Y).

Other Measures of Dependence

Since uncorrelation is limited, other measures are often used:

• Mutual Information (MI):

Captures the overall dependency (linear and nonlinear). MI(X;Y)=0 if and only if X and Y are independent.

• Distance Correlation (dCor):

Detects both linear and nonlinear dependencies. It is zero if and only if X and Y are independent.

Summary

1. Cauchy–Schwarz Inequality:

- o Proved by constructing a nonnegative quadratic function.
- \circ Ensures that correlation coefficients always lie in [-1,1].
- o Equality holds only when the two vectors are proportional.

2. Independence vs. Uncorrelation:

- o Independence is much stronger, eliminating **all** dependencies.
- o Uncorrelation only eliminates linear dependence.
- \circ Example: X uniform on [-1,1], Y= X^2 : uncorrelated but not independent.
- o More general dependence can be measured using **mutual information** and **distance correlation.**