Nonparametric Network Dependence Testing By Diffusion Maps

Abstract

Investigating how network structures are associated with nodal attributes of interest is a core problem in network science. As the network topology is a structured and often high-dimensional object, many traditional nonparametric tests are no longer applicable and parametric approaches are dominant in graph inferences. Here we propose a new procedure to testing dependence between graphs and attributes, via diffusion distances and distance-based correlation testing. We demonstrate that our nonparametric method not only yields a consistent test statistic under common network models, but also significantly surpasses the testing power of existing benchmarks under various circumstances.

Keywords: testing independence, exchangeable graph, diffusion distance, distance correlation, multiscale generalized correlation

1 Introduction

Propelled by increasing demand and supply of graph data from various disciplines, the ubiquitous influence of network inferences has motivated numerous recent advances and applications in statistics, physics, computer science, biology, social science, etc., which further poses many new challenges to data scientists. One of the most fundamental statistical questions is to determine and characterize the relationship among multiple modalities of a given data set, for which the first step is to test the existence of any dependency. However, the lack of a principal notion of correlation in the graph domain has not only hindered the progress of nonparametric dependency testing methods, but also deterred a rich literature of statistical techniques in other inferences (e.g., regression, feature screening, two-sample test) from being directly applied to graphs.

Mathematically, a graph (or equivalently a network) $\mathbf{G} = (V, E)$ consists of a set V of nodes (or vertices) together with a set E of edges, which is often represented via an adjacency matrix $\mathbf{A} = \{A_{ij} : i, j = 1, ..., n\}$, e.g. for an unweighted and undirected network, $A_{ij} = 1$ if node i and node j are connected by an edge, and zero otherwise. Therefore, \mathbf{A} is a symmetric square matrix that does not satisfy traditional data assumptions, e.g., each observation can be assumed independently and identically distributed, the sample size increases faster than the feature dimension, etc., which is a notable obstacle for directly applying conventional statistical methods. Therefore, graph inferences have long relied on specifying a particular statistical model, such as the Erdos-Renyi model [2, 4], stochastic block model [8, 12, 18, 20] and its degree-corrected version [10, 27], the latent position model [3, 24], the random dot product model [21, 26], etc.

When it comes to investigating the relationships among network data, a core problem is to detect dependency between network topology and nodal attributes, i.e., certain properties defined on nodes. For example, each person on Facebook not only has a number of distinct attributes (e.g., occupations, sex, personal behaviors), but also interacts with other persons via the social network; in neuro-science, each brain region has its own functionality, and is connected with other regions in the brain map. Identifying dependency between network and nodal attributes has also primarily focused on their relationship explained only by network model under the boundary of model assumption [3, 9, 25]. For example, the test by Fosdick and Hoff [3] estimates the latent factor of each node, then proceeds to test network dependence on the covariance via assuming a multivariate normal distribution of the latent factors. To our best knowledge so far, there is no principled method to compute a model-free correlation measure for testing network dependency.

On the other hand, the general problem of dependence testing between two random vectors has seen notable progress in recent years. The Pearson's correlation [15] is the most classical approach, which determines the existence of linear relationship via a correlation coefficient in the range of [-1, 1], with 0 indicating no linear association while ±1 indicating perfect linear association. To capture all types of dependencies not limited to linear relationship, new correlation measures and nonparametric statistics have been suggested recently, such as the Mantel coefficient [13], RV coefficient [17], distance correlation and energy statistic [16, 22, 23], kernel-based independence test [5], HHG test by chi-square table [6, 7], and multiscale generalized correlation [19]. In particular, the distance correlation by Szekely et al. [23] is the first correlation measure that is consistent against all possible dependencies (with finite moments), and the multiscale generalized correlation (MGC) statistic by Shen et al. [19] inherits the same consistency of distance correlation with remarkable better finite-sample testing powers under high-dimensional and nonlinear dependencies, via defining a family of distance-based local correlations and efficiently searching the optimal correlation in testing. Since all above methods are non-parametric and do not depend on particular models, the network dependency testing may be significantly improved if some of them can be employed on graphs.

To overcome the theoretical barricades by the distinct structure of network data, and to relax the limitations of model-based method for network testing, we come up with a solution that is theoretically sound and numerically superior: we first define a family of distance metrics on network data via the diffusion maps, then employ MGC to compute the optimal local correlation between the diffusion distance of the network topology and the Euclidean distance of the nodal attributes. Theoretical results show

that under very mild condition, the diffusion maps, acting as a node-specific random vector, can allow distance-based correlation measures to be consistent in testing network dependencies. Moreover, the MGC statistic offers major power improvement under various scenarios in finite-sample testing. The combined advantages of diffusion maps and MGC over the existing benchmarks are illustrated via comprehensive simulations under popular network models.

2 Results

2.1 Diffusion Maps and Diffusion Distances

In this section, we introduce a family of network geometries of an exchangeable graph [1] that can yield node-wise conditional i.i.d. samples.

A graph **G** is called exchangeable if and only if its adjacency matrix **A** is jointly exchangeable [14], i.e. for every permutation σ of n, $(A_{ij}) \stackrel{d}{=} (A_{\sigma(i)\sigma(j)})$. Most generative statistical network models satisfy this property, including all aforementioned graph models.

Coifman and Lafon [1, 11] proposed multiscale geometries of data called diffusion maps, which is constructed by iterating the transition matrix that determines random walk on graph. Given an $n \times n$ adjacency matrix \mathbf{A} , the $n \times n$ transition matrix of \mathbf{P} is defined by $P_{ij} = A_{ij} / \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij}$, indicating the probability of moving forward from node i to node j for i, j = 1, ..., n. The diffusion maps at time t are computed as follows:

$$\mathbf{U}_t(i) = \{\mathbf{U}_t(1), \dots, \mathbf{U}_t(n)\}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1^t \phi_1(i) & \lambda_2^t \phi_2(i) & \cdots & \lambda_q^t \phi_q(i) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^q.$$

where $\{\lambda_j\}$ and $\{\phi_j\}$ are the non-zero eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors of the transition matrix \mathbf{P} , q is the number of non-zero eigenvalues, and λ_j^t is the tth power of the eigenvalue. Then diffusion maps locate each node's position at every diffusion time and provide node-specific multivariate coordinates through $\mathbf{U}_t(i)$.

Under an exchangeable graph, Lemma 2.1 proves that the node-specific multivariate coordinates $\{\mathbf{U}_t\}_{t\in\mathbb{N}}$ can furnish conditional i.i.d samples

Lemma 2.1 (Exchangeability and *i.i.d* of diffusion maps \mathbf{U}_t). Assume that \mathbf{G} is an exchangeable random graph that is connected. Then the diffusion maps $\{\mathbf{U}_t(i): i=1,\ldots,n\}$ are conditionally *i.i.d* given its

underlying distribution.

cs: removed undirected and unweighted for now; I still need to change proof accordingly cs: add in a lemma saying all models above are exchangeable

Then we can define the *diffusion distance* between each pair of nodes, by computing the Euclidean distance of the diffusion maps.

$$C_t^2[i,j] := || \mathbf{U}_t(i) - \mathbf{U}_t(j) || \quad i,j = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$
 (1)

As diffusion time t increases, the corresponding diffusion distance C_t reveals the geometric structure of the network topology in a larger and larger scale, and is thus more likely to take into account of two nodes which are relatively difficult to reach each other. Figure 1 shows how diffusion distance can better reflects the connectivity and exhibits the community structure in a graph, when a reasonable t is chosen in the family of diffusion distances $\{C_t : t \in \mathbb{N}\}$. In practice, $t \in [5, 20]$ usually yields similar diffusion distance and suffices for later inferences. Compared to adjacent relation or geodesic distance, diffusion distance better reflects the connectivity since it takes into account every possible path between the two nodes.

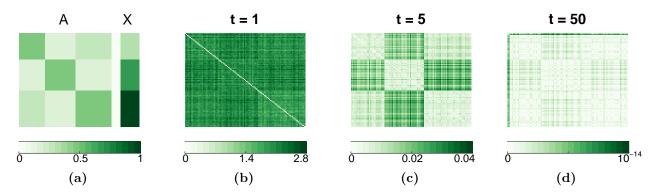


Figure 1: Panel (a) shows data generating probability of an adjacency matrix \mathbf{A} and nodal attributes \mathbf{X} . Diffusion distances, as a proposed network metric, provides one-parameter family of network-based distances where as time goes by the pattern shown in the distance matrix changes, and at time point t = 5, distance distance in panel (c) illustrates most clear block structures and the most distinct dependency to the attributes \mathbf{X} .

2.2 Dependence Testing via MGC

The results in Section 2.1 allow us to cast the network dependency test into the following framework: given sample data $(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{X}) = \{(\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{x}_i); i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$ that are identically distributed as $(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times q_x}$ (q and q_x are the respective feature dimension), we are looking to test whether their joint distribution

equals the product of the marginals, i.e.,

$$H_0: f_{\mathbf{u}\mathbf{x}} = f_{\mathbf{u}}f_{\mathbf{x}},$$

$$H_A: f_{\mathbf{u}\mathbf{x}} \neq f_{\mathbf{u}}f_{\mathbf{x}}.$$

If $(\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{x}_i)$ can be further assumed independently distributed for each i, we can directly use a wide range of consistent test statistics, including the distance correlation, HHG test [6], and MGC. For example, the distance correlation is computed as follows: denote $C_{ij} = \|\mathbf{u}_i - \mathbf{u}_j\|$ and $D_{ij} = \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|$ for i, j = 1, 2, ..., n, where $\|\cdot\|$ is the Euclidean distance. The distance covariance is defined as

$$dCov(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} \tilde{C}_{ij} \tilde{D}_{ij}, \qquad (2)$$

where \tilde{C} and \tilde{D} is doubly-centered C and D by its column mean and row mean respectively, i.e., $\tilde{C} = HCH$, where $H = I_n - \frac{J_n}{n}$ (the double centering matrix), I_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix (ones on the diagonal, zeros elsewhere), and J_n is the $n \times n$ matrix of all ones. The distance correlation dCorr follows by normalizing the distance covariance and is in the range of [0,1]. The best property of distance correlation is its consistency against almost all alternatives, i.e., dCorr(U, X) has testing power 1 for n large, for any joint distributions of finite moment. The MGC test inherits the consistency of distance correlation, and significantly improves the finite-sample testing power via locating the optimal local correlation, i.e., excluding far away distances in the computation of distance correlation.

However, as the i.i.d. assumption is not satisfied under network topology, the consistency of distance correlation is no longer guaranteed when applied to arbitrary distance metric of the graph. For example, neither the Euclidean distance of the adjacency vector nor the shortest-path distance can work together with distance correlation without breaking its consistency proof.

Based on Lemma 2.1, our next result shows that the both dCorr and MGC defined on the diffusion distance can have the same consistency when extended to network dependency test. This offers a principal approach to define correlations and testing dependency on network data.

Theorem 2.2. Assume that **G** is an exchangeable random graph that is connected, undirected and unweighted with n vertices with the diffusion maps **U** at certain t; and the nodal attributes $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_i, i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$ is i.i.d. as a random vector \mathbf{x} of finite moment.

Then $dCorr(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{X}) \longrightarrow 0$ as $n \to \infty$ if and only if \mathbf{U} is independent of \mathbf{X} . Then both dCorr and

MGC are consistent for testing dependence between U and X.

cs: not sure if thm 2 is necessary or not, excluded for now. : Yes, it might be redundant in this papar. I think I would include it in arxiv version since I applied MGC to FH network factors.

2.3 Measure for Node Contribution

Can we just include MGC statistic? Without explaining (k,l) it becomes confusing to explain node contribution. On the other hand, some nodes often exert more reliance on their attributes than the others. Here we suggest the measure of node's contribution to detecting dependence as a byproduct of MGC statistic. Let (k^*, l^*) be the optimal neighborhood choice in distance matrix (C, D) respectively. Denote the contribution of node $v \in V(G)$ to the testing statistic by $c(\cdot) : v \to \mathbb{R}$

$$c(v) \propto \sum_{j=1}^{n} \tilde{C}_{jv} \tilde{D}_{jv} I(r(C_{jv}) \le k^*) I(r(D_{jv}) \le l^*), \tag{3}$$

which is proportional to v^{th} column-sum of the pre-summed test statistic of MGC. Note that the deviation of non-negative MGC statistic from zero implies departure from the independence and also note that we truncate the correlation in dCov by column entry's rank. Thus $\tilde{C}_{jv}\tilde{D}_{jv}$ would not be truncated if node j ($\in \{1, 2, ..., n\} \setminus \{v\}$) is important to node v and its larger, positive value would contribute to the statistic more. The statistic c(v) comes out from these observations.

3 Simulation Study

Next we investigate our approach via simulated models and empirical performances. In the simulation studies, we compare the empirical testing powers of four test statistics: MGC, dCorr, Heller-Heller-Gorfine (HHG), and likelihood ratio test of Fosdick and Hoff (FH) [3]. For the first three statistics, we further experiment on three different metrics of the network topology: the Euclidean distances of the diffusion maps (DF), of the adjacency vectors ((Adj)), and of the latent factors (LT, which is based on singular value decomposition of the adjacency matrix). The FH likelihood ratio test must always be based on the latent factors.

For each simulation model and each test, we repeatedly generate sample data for 500 times, carry out the permutation test, and reject the null if the resulting p-value is less than 0.05. The testing power of each method equals the percentage of correct rejection.

3.1 Stochastic Block Model

We first consider a Stochastic Block Model (SBM) with 3 blocks, i.e., partition the vertices into 3 communities, and generate the edges by a Bernoulli random variable whose probability that is determined by the communities of the connecting vertices. Assume n = 100 vertices whose class label \mathbf{x}_i takes values in 0, 1, 2 equally likely. The edge probability is designed as

$$E(A_{ij}|X_i, X_j) = 0.5I(|X_i - X_j| = 0) + 0.2I(|X_i - X_j| = 1) + 0.3I(|X_i - X_j| = 2), \quad i, j = 1, \dots, n = 100.$$
(4)

Namely, within-block edge probability is 0.5, between-block edge probability is 0.2 or 0.3 depending on the communities. This 3-block model describes a nonlinear dependency between the network topology and the class labels, where MGC should work the best when coupled with a proper metric. Indeed, Figure 2 illustrates that MGC combined with diffusion maps yields the most superior power comparing to all other benchmarks. cs: I will say t = 5 here, and add t = 3 to 10 is very similar.

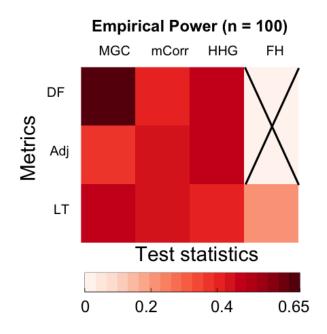


Figure 2: This power heatmap illustrates the superior power of multiscale generalized correlation (MGC) with diffusion distance in the three-block SBM (equation 4), compared to all other choices of distance metric and all other test statistics.

cs: change mcorr to dcorr in figure 2-5

To further validate the advantage of our procedure, and better understand the advantage of MGC, next we control the amount of nonlinear dependency through changing the value of $\theta \in (0,1)$ in the edge probability by the following model

$$E(A_{ij}|X_i,X_j) = 0.5I(|X_i-X_j|=0) + 0.2I(|X_i-X_j|=1) + \theta I(|X_i-X_j|=2), \quad i,j=1,\ldots,n=100.$$
 (5)

When $\theta > 0.2$, the network dependency changes from a close to linear relationship to strongly nonlinear, and Figure 3 shows how the power change with respect to θ . There is a clear trend that both the dcorr and FH tests have deteriorating power, while MGC under the graph domain still inherits its advantage in tackling nonlinear dependency. The same advantage holds by varying the SBM parameters.

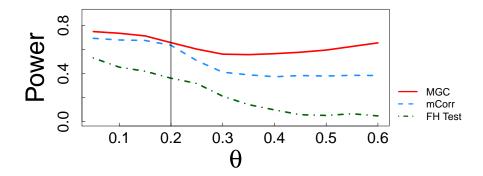


Figure 3: This demonstrates how the MGC statistic can better capture the nonlinear dependencies than other statistics. X-axis of θ controls the existence/amount of nonlinear dependency, where strong nonlinearity exists when $\theta > 0.2$ and gets stronger as θ increases. You can see the discrepancy in power between global and local scale tests also gets larger accordingly, mostly due to decreasing power of mCorr or FH test but relatively stable power of MGC under nonlinear dependency.

On the other hand, the SBM connotes that all nodes within the same block have the same expected degree. Thus, this block model is limited by homogeneous distribution within block and provides a poor fit to networks with highly varying node degrees within block or community. Instead the Degree-Corrected Stochastic Block model (DCSBM) proposed by [10] add another random variable associated with each node to vary the node degrees. In the model 6, we controlled the amount of such variability by τ ; the larger the value τ is, the more variability degree or edge distribution has. In Figure 4, power based on Euclidean distance of \mathbf{A} or that of estimated network factors (locations) becomes less sensitive as τ increases. Compared to these two, diffusion maps are more robust to such variability.

$$E(A_{ij}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{V}) = 0.2V_i V_j \cdot I(|X_i - X_j| = 0) + 0.05V_i V_j \cdot I(|X_i - X_j| = 1),$$
(6)

where $X_i \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} Bern(0.5); V_i \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} Uniform(1-\tau,1+\tau), i=1,\ldots,250$. cs: it is a bit confusing figure 3 & 4 has different legends. Let us do MGC \circ DM, MGC \circ AM, MGC \circ LF for the legends.

3.2 Node Contribution Test

To examine the effectiveness of node contribution measure in testing dependency as presented in the statistic 3, we deliberately simulate the network and its nodal attributes as half of the nodes are

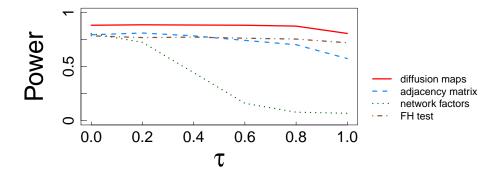


Figure 4: In degree-corrected SBM where the variability in degree distribution increases as τ increases, testing power of diffusion maps are more likely to be robust against increasing variability compared to other network metrics, e.g. adjacency matrix or latent positions. FH test statistics allowing different dimensions of network factors perform consistently well but still have less power than MGC.

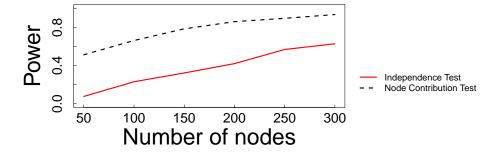


Figure 5: This plot describes that both power of MGC and the rate of correctly-ranked node contribution increase as the number of nodes increases when only half of the nodes for each simulation actually are set to be dependent on network, which validates the use of node contribution measure in independence test.

independent while the other half are dependent on network (model 7).

$$X_{i} \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} Bern(0.5) \quad i = 1, \dots, n/2, \dots, n$$

$$E(A_{ij}|X_{i}, X_{j}) \stackrel{d}{=} \begin{cases} 0.4I(|X_{i} - X_{j}| = 0) + Bern(0.1)I(|X_{i} - X_{j}| > 0) & i = 1, \dots, n/2 \\ 0.25 & i = 1 + n/2, \dots, n \end{cases}$$

$$(7)$$

As an ad hoc test of node contribution, we rank the nodes in terms of decreasing order of c(v) and count the ratio of dependent samples's ranks within the number of dependent nodes. If it works perfectly, all dependent nodes would take higher rank than every independent node so thus the rate equals to one. We call this rate as *inclusion rate*:

inclustion rate
$$(c(v)) = \sum_{v \in V(\mathbf{G})} \{rank_{c(v)}(v) \le m\}/m,$$
 (8)

where $m(\leq |V(\mathbf{G})|)$ is the number of nodes under network dependence. We set m = n/2 out of $n = |V(\mathbf{G})|$.

4 Conclusion

In this paper, we convince that MGC, merged with a family of diffusion distance, provides us powerful independence test statistics in network. Having multiscale statistics, i.e. one parameter family of statistics, is not avoidable because we regard distance between the nodes over network as a dynamic process. Through simulation studies, we demonstrate that our methods perform better than the others especially under nonlinear dependency, and we are able to measure each node's contribution to detecting dependency. Deriving the contributions is particularly important when there have possibly different amounts of the dependencies among the nodes.

However obtaining a full family of statistics are computationally infeasible. Also we did not suggest any theoretically supported tools to select one metrics among them so thus we have one single statistic. As an ad hoc, we selected an *optimal* diffusion time t with highest power from t = 1 to t = 10 for our simulation since we could observe a stabilized empirical power within this period. Developing the adaptive method to find this optimal t where dependence is maximized would be a natural next step. Despite these shortcomings, we expect that we could also enjoy the properties of MGC and a family of diffusion distances in solving diverse problems which require to utilize local relationship of the data sets. For instance, we might be able to implement independence testing between two networks of same size by using diffusion distance of each network to investigate whether a pair of networks are topologically or structurally independent. This kind of work would shed light on revealing any relationship between the data sets which are not necessarily a random vector.

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5 Appendix

5.1 Lemmas and Theorems

Proof of Lemma 2.1. Diffusion map at time t is represented as follows:

$$\mathbf{U}_t(i) = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1^t \phi_1(i) & \lambda_2^t \phi_2(i) & \cdots & \lambda_q^t \phi_q(i) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^q.$$
 (9)

where $\Phi = \Pi^{-1/2}\Psi$ and $Q = \Psi\Lambda\Psi^T = \Pi^{1/2}P\Pi^{-1/2}$. Thus $P\Pi^{-1/2}\Psi = \Pi^{-1/2}\Psi\Lambda$. Then for any rth row $(r \in \{1, 2, ..., q\}, (q \leq n))$, we can see that $P\phi_r = \lambda_r\phi_r$ where $\phi_r = \left(\psi_r(1)/\sqrt{\pi(1)} \ \psi_r(2)/\sqrt{\pi(2)} \ \cdots \ \psi_r(n)/\sqrt{\pi(n)}\right)$. Therefore to guarantee exchangeability (or i.i.d) of \mathbf{U}_t , it suffices to show exchangeability (or i.i.d) of P.

Assume joint exchangeability of **G**, i.e. $(A_{ij}) \stackrel{d}{=} (A_{\sigma(i)\sigma(j)})$. Since A_{ij} is binary, $A_{ij}/\sum_{j} A_{ij} = A_{ij}/(1+\sum_{l\neq j} A_{il})$. Moreover, A_{ij} and $(1+\sum_{l\neq j} A_{il})$ are independent given its link function g, and $A_{\sigma(i)\sigma(j)}$ and $(1+\sum_{l\neq j} A_{\sigma(i)\sigma(l)})$ are independent also given g. Then the following joint exchangeability of transition probability holds for $i\neq j; i,j=1,2,\ldots,n$:

$$\left(P_{ij}\right) = \left(\frac{A_{ij}}{1 - A_{ij} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij}}\right) \stackrel{d}{=} \left(\frac{A_{\sigma(i)\sigma(j)}}{1 - A_{\sigma(i)\sigma(j)} + \sum_{\sigma(j)=1}^{n} A_{\sigma(i)\sigma(j)}}\right) = \left(P_{\sigma(i)\sigma(j)}\right) \tag{10}$$

When $i=j, P_{ij}=P_{\sigma(i)\sigma(j)}=0$ for $i=1,2,\ldots,n$. Thus, transition probability is also exchangeable. This results exchangeable eigenfunctions $\{\Phi(1),\Phi(2),...,\Phi(n)\}$ where $\Phi(i):=\left(\phi_1(i) \quad \phi_2(i) \quad \cdots \quad \phi_q(i)\right)^T$, $i=1,2,\ldots,n$. Thus diffusion maps at fixed $t, \mathbf{U}_t=\left(\Lambda^t\Phi(1) \quad \Lambda^t\Phi(2) \quad \cdots \quad \Lambda^t\Phi(n)\right)$ are exchangeable. Furthermore by de Finetti's Theorem, we can say that $\mathbf{U}(t)=\{\mathbf{U}_t(1),\mathbf{U}_t(2),\ldots,\mathbf{U}_t(n)\}$ are conditionally independent on their underlying distribution.

Proof of Theorem 2.2 Consistency of dCorr applied to exchangeable variables. For exchangeable sequence of $(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{X}) = \{(\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{x}_i); i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$ which is identically distributed as (\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) with finite second moment, we have

$$\mathcal{V}_n^2(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{X}) \longrightarrow \mathcal{V}^2(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) \quad \text{as } n \to \infty$$
 (11)

where $\mathcal{V}^2(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}) := \|g_{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}}(t, s) - g_{\mathbf{u}}(t)g_{\mathbf{x}}(s)\|^2$, and g is a characteristic function, e.g., $g_{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x}}(t, s) = E\{\exp\{i\langle t, \mathbf{u}\rangle + i\langle s, \mathbf{x}\rangle\}\}$. This follows exactly the same as *Theorem 1* in [23]. Note that this Lemma always holds without any assumption on $\{(\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{x}_i), i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$.

Followed by de Finetti's Theorem, if and only if $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}$ are (infinitely) exchangeable, there exists an underlying distribution $f_{\mathbf{u}}$ of \mathbf{u} such that $\mathbf{u}_i \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} f_{\mathbf{u}}$. By the same logic there exists a random, we have an underlying distribution $f_{\mathbf{x}}$ where $\mathbf{x}_i \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} f_{\mathbf{x}}$. Let $(\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{x}_i) \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} f_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{x}}$. Then under the assumption of finite second moment of the underlying distributions and measurable, conditioned random functions, we have

a strong large number for V-statistics followed by [23], i.e.,

$$\int_{D(\delta)} \|g_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{x}}^n(t,s) - g_{\mathbf{u}}^n(t)g_{\mathbf{x}}^n(s)\|^2 dh \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} \int_{D(\delta)} \|g_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{x}}(t,s) - g_{\mathbf{u}}(t)g_{\mathbf{x}}(s)\|^2 dh, \tag{12}$$

where $D(\delta) = \{(t,s) : \delta \le |t|_p \le 1/\delta, \delta \le |s|_q \le 1/\delta\}$, and h(t,s) is the weight function chosen in [23]. It follows that

$$\mathcal{V}_n^2(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{X}) \to 0 \quad \text{as } n \to \infty$$
 (13)

if and only if $g_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{x}}(t,s) = g_{\mathbf{u}}(t)g_{\mathbf{x}}(s)$, i.e., \mathbf{u} is independent of \mathbf{x} . Therefore, the dCorr or mCorr converges to 0 if and only if underlying distributions are independent; and its testing power converges to 1 under any joint distribution of finite moments. Since the multiscale generalized correlation based on any consistent global correlation is also consistent [19], MGC statistic constructed by dCorr or mCorr is also consistent in testing dependence.