

# Inequalities, Theorems, & Functions

## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Useful Inequalities</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Useful Theorems</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>Useful Functions</b>	<b>6</b>

## 1 Useful Inequalities

**Inequality 1.1** (Jensen's Inequality). *Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space,  $X$  integrable, and  $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  some convex function with  $\mathbb{E}[|\varphi(X)|] < \infty$ . Then*

$$\varphi(\mathbb{E}[X]) \leq \mathbb{E}[\varphi(X)].$$

*Equality holds if  $X$  is degenerate (a.s. constant), or if  $\varphi$  is affine (linear plus constant) on the support of  $X$ .*

**Remark 1.2** (Convexity). A function  $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is *convex* if for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\varphi(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) \leq \lambda \varphi(x) + (1 - \lambda)\varphi(y).$$

Equivalently:

- If  $\varphi$  is differentiable, convexity is equivalent to  $\varphi'$  being nondecreasing.
- If  $\varphi$  is twice differentiable, convexity is equivalent to  $\varphi''(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ .

**Inequality 1.3** (Cauchy–Schwarz Inequality). *For  $x, y$  in an inner-product space,*

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \|y\|.$$

*Integral form: if  $f, g \in L^2(\mu)$ ,*

$$\left| \int f g \, d\mu \right| \leq \left( \int |f|^2 \, d\mu \right)^{1/2} \left( \int |g|^2 \, d\mu \right)^{1/2}.$$

*Equality iff  $x, y$  are linearly dependent (a.e. for functions).*

**Inequality 1.4** (Markov's Inequality). *If  $X \geq 0$  and  $a > 0$ ,*

$$\mathbb{P}(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{a}.$$

*More generally, for  $p > 0$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(X \geq a) \leq \mathbb{E}[X^p]/a^p$ .*

**Inequality 1.5** (Chebyshev's Inequality). *(A generalization of Markov's inequality.)*

*Let  $X$  be a random variable with finite mean  $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$  and variance  $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(X) < \infty$ . Then for any  $k > 0$ ,*

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \geq k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}.$$

*Equivalently, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,*

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \geq \epsilon) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2}.$$

*Interpretation: The probability that  $X$  deviates from its mean by more than  $k$  standard deviations is at most  $1/k^2$ .*

**Remark 1.6** (Big-O Interpretation). Chebyshev's inequality provides an explicit bound on tail probabilities:

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \geq k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}.$$

In asymptotic notation this means the probability of a  $k$ -standard-deviation deviation is bounded above on the order of  $O(1/k^2)$ . It is stronger than a generic Big-O statement; however, it should not be interpreted as an  $o(1/k^2)$  bound, since the decay of the tail probability may in some cases be exactly of order  $1/k^2$ , not strictly faster.

**Inequality 1.7** (Hölder's Inequality). *Let  $p, q \in (1, \infty)$  be conjugate exponents, meaning*

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1.$$

*If  $f \in L^p(\mu)$  and  $g \in L^q(\mu)$ , then*

$$\int |fg| d\mu \leq \|f\|_{L^p} \|g\|_{L^q}.$$

*Where:*

- $L^p(\mu)$  is the space of measurable functions with finite  $p$ -norm:

$$L^p(\mu) = \left\{ f : \int |f|^p d\mu < \infty \right\}.$$

- The  $p$ -norm of  $f$  is

$$\|f\|_{L^p} = \left( \int |f|^p d\mu \right)^{1/p}.$$

- The exponents  $p$  and  $q$  are linked: e.g. if  $p = 2$ , then  $q = 2$ ; if  $p = 3$ , then  $q = 3/2$ .

*Equality holds if and only if  $|f|^p$  and  $|g|^q$  are proportional almost everywhere.*

**Inequality 1.8** (Minkowski's Inequality (Triangle in  $L^p$ )). For  $p \in [1, \infty]$  and  $f, g \in L^p(\mu)$ ,

$$\|f + g\|_{L^p} \leq \|f\|_{L^p} + \|g\|_{L^p}.$$

This applies strictly to sums like  $f + g$ . For differences, one typically uses the triangle inequality in the form

$$\|f - g\|_{L^p} = \|f + (-g)\|_{L^p} \leq \|f\|_{L^p} + \|g\|_{L^p},$$

which follows by applying Minkowski with  $-g$  in place of  $g$ .

**Inequality 1.9** (Triangle Inequality). For any normed vector space  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$  and any  $x, y \in V$ ,

$$\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|.$$

In words: the length of one side of a triangle is at most the sum of the lengths of the other two sides.

- In  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the Euclidean norm, this corresponds to the geometric triangle inequality.
- In  $L^p$  spaces, this is exactly Minkowski's inequality.

**Inequality 1.10** (Young's Inequality (for products)). If  $a, b \geq 0$  and  $p, q > 1$  with  $1/p + 1/q = 1$ , then

$$ab \leq \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q}.$$

Equality iff  $a^p = b^q$  (equivalently,  $a^{p-1} = b^{q-1}$ ).

**Inequality 1.11** (Cramér–Rao (CR) Inequality). Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  have density  $f_\theta$  satisfying standard regularity conditions. If  $T = T(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  is unbiased for  $g(\theta)$ ,  $\mathbb{E}_\theta[T] = g(\theta)$ , then

$$\text{Var}_\theta(T) \geq \frac{(g'(\theta))^2}{\mathcal{I}_n(\theta)}, \quad \mathcal{I}_n(\theta) = n\mathcal{I}(\theta)$$

Equality holds if the estimator is efficient, i.e. it achieves the bound. In many cases, such an estimator is also UMVU.

**Inequality 1.12** (Bernstein's Inequality (bounded/sub-exponential)). Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be independent with  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = 0$ ,  $|X_i| \leq M$  a.s., and  $\sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2$ . For all  $t > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \geq t\right) \leq \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2\sigma^2 + \frac{2}{3}Mt}\right).$$

Equivalently, for  $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum X_i$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \geq \epsilon) \leq \exp\left(-\frac{n\epsilon^2}{2\text{Var}(X_1) + \frac{2}{3}M\epsilon}\right).$$

Note: Stronger moment or tail assumptions can yield sharper bounds with faster rates of convergence, but for this course, we typically use Bernstein's inequality in the bounded/sub-exponential form given above (thus far).

**Inequality 1.13** (Hoeffding's Inequality (bounded differences)). *Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be independent with  $a_i \leq X_i \leq b_i$  a.s. Set  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  and  $\mu = \mathbb{E}[S_n]$ . Then for all  $t > 0$ ,*

$$\mathbb{P}(|S_n - \mu| \geq t) \leq 2 \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right).$$

*In particular, if  $a \leq X_i \leq b$ ,*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(|\bar{X} - \mathbb{E}[X_1]| \geq \epsilon\right) \leq 2 \exp\left(-\frac{2n\epsilon^2}{(b-a)^2}\right).$$

*Note: same note as for Bernstein's Inequality.*

## 2 Useful Theorems

**Theorem 2.1** (Fubini's Theorem). *Let  $f$  be Lebesgue integrable on the rectangle  $X \times Y \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then the double integral of  $f$  can be computed as an iterated integral:*

$$\iint_{X \times Y} f(x, y) d(x, y) = \int_X \left( \int_Y f(x, y) dy \right) dx = \int_Y \left( \int_X f(x, y) dx \right) dy.$$

*Remark 2.2* (Tonelli (Nonnegative Fubini)). If  $f \geq 0$  is measurable on  $X \times Y$ , then the same equalities hold (with value possibly  $+\infty$ ) without assuming  $f \in L^1$ .

**Theorem 2.3** (Volterra's Theorem: Differentiation under the Integral Sign). *Let  $f : [a, b] \times (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be continuous and  $\partial f / \partial \theta$  be continuous on  $[a, b] \times (\alpha, \beta)$ . Then for  $\theta \in (\alpha, \beta)$ ,*

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \int_a^b f(x, \theta) dx = \int_a^b \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x, \theta) dx.$$

*A common generalization is that continuity of  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x, \theta)$  can be replaced by the existence of an integrable dominating function  $g(x)$  such that*

$$\left| \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x, \theta) \right| \leq g(x) \quad \text{for all } \theta \text{ in the parameter range.}$$

*Then, by the Dominated Convergence Theorem, the derivative can be moved inside the integral:*

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \int f(x, \theta) dx = \int \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x, \theta) dx.$$

**Theorem 2.4** (Squeeze (Sandwich) Theorem).

*(Sequences). If  $a_n, x_n, b_n$  satisfy*

$$a_n \leq x_n \leq b_n \quad \text{for all } n,$$

*and*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L,$$

*then*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = L.$$

*(Functions). If  $g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x)$  near  $x_0$  and*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} h(x) = L,$$

*then*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L.$$

### 3 Useful Functions

**Definition 3.1** (Convolution). Let  $f, g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (or  $\mathbb{C}$ ) be integrable functions. Their *convolution* is defined by

$$(f * g)(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau) g(t - \tau) d\tau, \quad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Properties:

- Commutativity:  $f * g = g * f$ .
- Associativity:  $(f * g) * h = f * (g * h)$ .
- Distributivity:  $f * (g + h) = f * g + f * h$ .
- Convolution theorem:  $\widehat{f * g}(\xi) = \widehat{f}(\xi) \widehat{g}(\xi)$  (Fourier transform turns convolution into multiplication).

In probability, if  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables with densities  $f_X$  and  $f_Y$ , then the density of  $X + Y$  is the convolution  $f_X * f_Y$ .

**Definition 3.2** (Characteristic Function). For a real-valued random variable  $X$  with distribution function  $F_X$ , the characteristic function is

$$\varphi_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{itX}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{itx} dF_X(x), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

If  $X$  has a probability density function  $f_X$ , then

$$\varphi_X(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{itx} f_X(x) dx.$$

The characteristic function uniquely determines the distribution of  $X$ , satisfies  $\varphi_X(0) = 1$ , and has some other properties not noted here.

$$\varphi_{aX+b}(t) = e^{itb} \varphi_X(at), \quad a, b \in \mathbb{R}.$$

**Definition 3.3** (Empirical Characteristic Function). Given a random sample  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  from a distribution, the empirical characteristic function (ECF) is defined by

$$\hat{\varphi}_n(t) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n e^{itX_j}, \quad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Properties:

- $\hat{\varphi}_n(0) = 1$  always.
- Each term  $e^{itX_j}$  has modulus 1, hence  $\hat{\varphi}_n(t)$  always exists for any finite sample.
- $\hat{\varphi}_n(t)$  is an unbiased estimator of the true characteristic function:

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\varphi}_n(t)] = \varphi_X(t).$$

- As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\hat{\varphi}_n(t) \rightarrow \varphi_X(t)$  almost surely for each fixed  $t$  (law of large numbers).

*Remark 3.4* (Why Fourier Transforms?). The Fourier transform is often used to simplify problems involving integrals and convolutions by moving from the time or spatial domain into the *frequency (spectral) domain*. In this domain, operations such as convolution become easier to evaluate, and dependence on variables like  $x$  can often be removed or simplified.

**Definition 3.5** (Fourier Transform). For  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ , define

$$\widehat{f}(\xi) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i\xi x} dx, \quad \xi \in \mathbb{R}.$$

This extends to  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$  (up to sets of measure zero) with Plancherel's theorem (not detailed here).

**Definition 3.6** (Inverse Fourier Transform). If  $\widehat{f} \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ , then

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \widehat{f}(\xi) e^{i\xi x} d\xi, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Under mild conditions (e.g., both  $f$  and  $\widehat{f}$  in  $L^1$ ), this inversion holds pointwise at continuity points of  $f$  (conditions not exhaustively detailed, but seem fairly tame compared to typical kde-based assumptions).