# Topics in Statistical Theory — Summary

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### 1 Basic concepts

#### 1.1 Parametric vs nonparametric models

**Definition 1.1.** A statistical model is a family of possible data-generating mechanisms. If the parameter space  $\Theta$  is finite-dimensional, we speak of a parametric model.

A model is called well-specified if there is a  $\vartheta_0 \in \Theta$  for which the data was generated from the distribution with parameter  $\vartheta_0$ , and otherwise it is called misspecified.

**Recap 1.2.** Let  $(Y_n)$  be a sequence of random vectors and Y a random vector.

- 1. We say that  $(Y_n)$  converges almost surely to Y, notation  $Y_n \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{\to} Y$ , if  $\mathbb{P}(Y_n \to Y) = 1$ .
- 2. We say that  $(Y_n)$  converges in probability to Y, notation  $Y_n \stackrel{P}{\to} Y$ , if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  we have  $\mathbb{P}(\|Y_n Y\| > \varepsilon) \to 0$ .
- 3. We say that  $(Y_n)$  converges in distribution to Y, notation  $Y_n \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{\to} Y$ , if  $\mathbb{P}(Y_n \leq y) \to \mathbb{P}(Y \leq y)$  for all y where the distribution function of Y is continuous.

This is equivalent to the condition that  $\mathbb{E}[f(Y_n)] \to \mathbb{E}[f(Y)]$  for all bounded Lipschitz functions f.

It is known that  $Y_n \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{\to} Y \implies Y_n \stackrel{\text{p}}{\to} Y \implies Y_n \stackrel{\text{d}}{\to} Y.$ 

If  $(Y_n)$  is a sequence of random vectors and  $(a_n)$  is a positive sequence, then we write  $Y_n = O_p(a_n)$  if, for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists C > 0 such that for sufficiently large n we have

$$\mathbb{P}\bigg(\frac{\|Y_n\|}{a_n} > C\bigg) < \varepsilon.$$

We write  $Y_n = o_n(a_n)$  if  $Y_n/a_n \stackrel{p}{\to} 0$ .

In a well-specified parametric model, the maximum likelihood estimator (MLE)  $\hat{\vartheta}_n$  typically satisfies  $\hat{\vartheta}_n - \vartheta_0 \in O_p(n^{-1/2})$ . On the other hand, if the model is misspecified, any inference can give very misleading results. To circumvent this problem, we consider nonparametric models, which make much weaker assumptions. Such infinite-dimensional models are much less vulnerable to model misspecification, however we will typically pay a price in terms of a slower convergence rate than in well-specified parametric models.

Example 1.3. Examples of nonparametric models include:

- 1. Assume  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F$  for some unknown distribution function F.
- 2. Assume  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f$  for some unknown density f belonging to a smoothness class.
- 3. Assume  $Y_i = m(x_i) + \varepsilon_i$  (i = 1, ..., n), where the  $x_i$  are known, m is unknown and belongs to some smoothness class, and the  $\varepsilon_i$  are i.i.d. with  $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_i) = 0$  and  $\operatorname{Var}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$ .

### 1.2 Estimating an arbitrary distribution function

**Definition 1.4.** Let  $\mathcal{F}$  denote the class of all distribution functions on  $\mathbb{R}$  and suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F \in \mathcal{F}$ . The *empirical distribution function*  $\hat{F_n}$  of  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  is defined as

$$\hat{F}_n(x) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{X_i \le x\}}.$$

**Recap 1.5.** The strong law of large numbers tells us that if  $(Y_n)$  are i.i.d. with finite mean  $\mu$ , then  $\bar{Y} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{\to} \mu$ .

Note that the strong law of large numbers immediately implies that  $\hat{F}_n(x)$  converges almost surely to F(x) as  $n \to \infty$ . However, the following stronger result states that this convergence holds uniformly in x:

**Theorem 1.6** (Glivenko-Cantelli). Let  $X_1, X_2, \ldots \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F$ . Then we have

$$\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \hat{F}_n(x) - F(x) \right| \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{\to} 0.$$

*Proof.* See lecture notes. The main idea of the proof is to "control"  $\hat{F_n}$  in a finite number of points  $x_1, \ldots, x_k$ , and then deduce what happens between those points using the fact that distributions are increasing and right-continuous. On Wikipedia, a simplified proof can be found assuming that F is continuous, which still encapsulates the main idea.

**Theorem 1.7** (Dvoretzky-Kiefer-Wolfowitz). Under the conditions of theorem 1.6, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  it holds that

$$\mathbb{P}_F\left(\sup_{x\in\mathbb{R}}\left|\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)\right| > \varepsilon\right) \le 2e^{-2n\varepsilon^2},$$

and this is a tight bound.

We will not prover this theorem, however, we will explore a few consequences. One of these consequences is the following:

Corollary 1.8 (Uniform Glivenko-Cantelli theorem). Under the conditions of theorem 1.6, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , it holds that

$$\sup_{F\in\mathcal{F}} \mathbb{P}_F\left(\sup_{m>n}\sup_{x\in\mathbb{R}} \left| \hat{F}_m(x) - F(x) \right| > \varepsilon \right) \to 0 \quad as \ n \to \infty.$$

*Proof.* By a union bound, the DKW inequality, and convergence of the geometric series we have

$$\sup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} \mathbb{P}_F \left( \sup_{m \ge n} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \hat{F}_m(x) - F(x) \right| > \varepsilon \right) \le \sup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} \sum_{m = n} \mathbb{P}_F \left( \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \hat{F}_n(x) - F(x) \right| > \varepsilon \right)$$

$$\le 2 \sum_{m = n}^{\infty} e^{-2m\varepsilon^2},$$

which converges to 0 as it is the tail of a converging sum.

For another consequence, we consider the problem of finding a confidence band for F. Given  $\alpha \in (0,1)$ , set  $\varepsilon_n := \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2n} \log(\alpha/2)}$ . Then the DKW inequality tells us that

$$\mathbb{P}_F\left(\sup_{x\in\mathbb{R}}\left|\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)\right| > \varepsilon_n\right) \le \alpha,$$

or equivalently, that

$$\mathbb{P}_F\Big(\hat{F}_n(x) - \varepsilon_n \le F(x) \le \hat{F}_n(x) + \varepsilon_n \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}\Big) \ge 1 - \alpha.$$

We can say even more.

**Recap 1.9.** For any distribution function F, its quantile function is defined as

$$F^{-1}: (0,1] \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}: p \mapsto \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid F(x) \ge p\}.$$

When necessary, we also define  $F^{-1}(0) := \sup \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid F(x) = 0\}.$ 

If  $U \sim U(0,1)$  and  $X \sim F$ , then for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  we have

$$\mathbb{P}(F^{-1}(U) \le x) = \mathbb{P}(U \le F(x)) = F(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x).$$

This can be written simply as  $F^{-1}(U) \stackrel{d}{=} X$ .

Let  $U_1, \ldots, U_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} U(0,1)$  with empirical distribution function  $\hat{G}_n$ , and let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F$ . Then, we have

$$\hat{G}_n(F(x)) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{U_i \le F(x)\}} \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{X \le x\}} = \hat{F}_n(x),$$

where  $\stackrel{d}{=}$  means equality in distribution. It follows that

$$\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \hat{F}_n(x) - F(x) \right| \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \hat{G}_n(F(x)) - F(x) \right| \le \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \left| \hat{G}_n(t) - t \right|,$$

with equality if F is continuous. We conclude that if F is continuous, the distribution of  $\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \hat{F}_n(x) - F(x) \right|$  does not depend on F.

Other generalisations of theorem 1.6 include Uniform Laws of Large Numbers. Let  $X, X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be i.i.d. on a measurable space  $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{A})$ , and  $\mathcal{G}$  a class of measurable functions on  $\mathcal{X}$ . We say that  $\mathcal{G}$  satisfies a ULLN if

$$\sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(X_i) - \mathbb{E}[g(X)] \right| \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{\to} 0.$$

In theorem 1.6, we showed that  $\mathcal{G} = \{1_{\{\cdot \leq x\}} \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$  satisfies a ULLN.

**Recap 1.10.** We recall the central limit theorem: if  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are i.i.d. random variables with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2 < \infty$ , then  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu) \stackrel{d}{\to} N(0, \sigma^2)$ .

Dividing by  $\sigma$  yields

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X_n} - \mu)}{\sigma} \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{\to} N(0, 1),$$

and multiplying both sides by n and writing  $V_i = \sum_{j=1}^i X_j$  we obtain

$$\frac{V_i - \mathbb{E}V_i}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(V_i)}} \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{\to} N(0, 1).$$

Another extension starts with the observation that  $\sqrt{n}(\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)) \stackrel{d}{\to} N(0, \sigma^2)$ , where

$$\sigma^2 = \operatorname{Var}(\mathbb{1}_{\{X \le x\}}) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_{X \le x}^2] - \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_{X \le x}]^2 = F(x) - F(x)^2 = F(x)(1 - F(x)).$$

This can be strengthened by considering  $(\sqrt{n}(\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)) \stackrel{\text{d}}{\to} N(0, \sigma^2) \mid x \in \mathbb{R})$  as a stochastic process.

#### Order statistics and quantiles 1.3

**Definition 1.11.** Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F \in \mathcal{F}$ . The *order statistics* are the ordered samples  $X_{(1)} \leq \cdots \leq X_{(n)}$  (where the original order is preserved in case of a tie).

The order statistics of the uniform distribution can be computed explicitly:

**Proposition 1.12.** Let  $U_1, \ldots, U_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} U(0,1)$ , let  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_{n+1} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \operatorname{Exp}(1)$ , and write  $S_j := \sum_{i=1}^j Y_j$ (j = 1, ..., n + 1). Then

$$U_{(j)} \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} \frac{S_j}{S_{n+1}} \sim \operatorname{Beta}(j, n-j+1) \quad \text{for } j = 1, \dots, n.$$

*Proof.* See example sheet 1, question 1.

**Definition 1.13.** Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F$ . Then the sample quantile function is defined as

$$\hat{F}_n^{-1}(p) = \inf \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid \hat{F}_n(x) \ge p \right\}.$$

**Proposition 1.14.** It holds that  $\hat{F}_n^{-1}(p) = X_{(\lceil np \rceil)}$ .

*Proof.* By definition,  $\hat{F}_n^{-1}(p)$  is the smallest value of x for which  $\hat{F}(x)$  is larger than p. Note that

$$\hat{F}(x) \geq p \iff \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{X_i \leq x\}} \geq p \iff \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{X_i \leq x\}} \geq np \iff \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{X_i \leq x\}} \geq \lceil np \rceil.$$

The smallest value of x for which this occurs is the smallest value of x such that exactly  $\lceil np \rceil$  of the variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  satisfy  $X_i \leq x$ . We conclude that  $\hat{F}_n^{-1}(p) = X_{(\lceil np \rceil)}$ 

For  $p = \frac{1}{2}$  for example, this proposition tells us that  $\hat{F}_n^{-1}(p) = X_{(\lceil n/2 \rceil)}$ , the median of the data. We now explore the distribution of  $X_{(\lceil np \rceil)}$ .

#### **Recap 1.15.** We recall two theorems. The first is *Slutsky's theorem*:

**Theorem 1.16.** Let  $(Y_n)$  and  $(Z_n)$  be sequences of random vectors with  $Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} Y$  and  $Z_n \stackrel{p}{\to} c$  for some constant c. If g is a continuous real-valued function, then  $g(Y_n, Z_n) \stackrel{d}{\to} g(Y, c)$ .

The second is the *delta method*:

**Theorem 1.17.** Let  $(Y_n)$  be a sequence of random vectors such that  $\sqrt{n}(Y_n - \mu) \stackrel{d}{\to} Z$ . If  $g: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at  $\mu$ , then

$$\sqrt{n}(g(Y_n) - g(\mu)) \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{\to} g'(\mu)Z.$$

**Lemma 1.18.** If  $U_1, \ldots, U_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} U(0,1)$  and  $p \in (0,1)$ , then  $\sqrt{n}(U_{\lceil np \rceil} - p) \stackrel{\text{d}}{\rightarrow} N(0, p(1-p))$ .

*Proof.* Let  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_{n+1} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \operatorname{Exp}(1)$ ,  $V_n := \sum_{i=1}^{\lceil np \rceil} Y_i$  and  $W_n := \sum_{i=\lceil np \rceil+1}^{n+1} Y_i$ . Then  $V_n$  and  $W_n$  are independent, and we have seen that  $U_{\lceil np \rceil} \sim \frac{V_n}{V_n + W_n}$ . Noting that  $\mathbb{E} V_n = \operatorname{Var}(V_n) = \lceil np \rceil$  we find

$$\sqrt{n} \left( \frac{V_n}{n} - p \right) = \frac{\sqrt{\lceil np \rceil}}{\sqrt{n}} \left( \frac{V_n - \lceil np \rceil}{\sqrt{\lceil np \rceil}} \right) + \frac{\lceil np \rceil - np}{\sqrt{n}}$$
$$= \frac{\sqrt{\lceil np \rceil}}{\sqrt{n}} \left( \frac{V_n - \mathbb{E}V_n}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(V_n)}} \right) + \frac{\lceil np \rceil - np}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

Now, by the central limit theorem, the term between brackets converges to a standard N(0,1) distribution. The term  $\sqrt{\lceil np \rceil} \sqrt{n}$  converges to  $\sqrt{p}$  and the term  $(\lceil np \rceil - np)/\sqrt{n}$  converges to 0, so by Slutsky's lemma, we find

 $\sqrt{n}\left(\frac{V_n}{n}-p\right) \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{\to} \sqrt{p}N(0,1) = N(0,p).$ 

An analogous calculation shows that  $\sqrt{n}\left(\frac{W_n}{n}-(1-p)\right)\to N(0,1-p)$ . Now we define  $g\colon (0,\infty)^2\to (0,\infty)$  by  $g(x,y)\coloneqq x/(x+y)$ , which is differentiable at (p,1-p). Note that the distribution of  $(V_n,W_n)$  is an  $N(0,\binom{p}{0}\binom{q}{q})$  distribution. By the delta method we find

$$\begin{split} \sqrt{n} \left( U_{\lceil np \rceil} - p \right) & \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} \sqrt{n} \left( g \left( \frac{V_n}{n}, \frac{W_n}{n} \right) - g(p, q) \right) \\ & \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{\to} g'(p, 1 - p) N \left( 0, \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 \\ 0 & q \end{pmatrix} \right) \\ & = N \left( 0, g'(p, 1 - p) \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 \\ 0 & q \end{pmatrix} g'(p, 1 - p)^{\top} \right) \\ & = N(0, p(1 - p)). \end{split}$$

We now relate what we know about the uniform distribution to the quantile function:

**Theorem 1.19.** Let  $p \in (0,1)$  and let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F$ . Suppose that F is differentiable at  $\xi_p :=$  $F^{-1}(p)$  with derivative  $f(\xi_n)$ . Then

$$\sqrt{n}\left(X_{(\lceil np \rceil)} - \xi_p\right) \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{\to} N\left(0, \frac{p(1-p)}{f(\xi_p)^2}\right).$$

*Proof.* Let  $U_1, \ldots, U_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} U(0,1)$ , then we know that  $F^{-1}(U_i) \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} X_i$  and thus  $F^{-1}(U_{(\lceil np \rceil)}) \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} X_{(\lceil np \rceil)}$ . Applying the delta method with  $g = F^{-1}$ , together with the previous theorem yields

$$\sqrt{n}\left(X_{(\lceil np \rceil)} - \xi_p\right) = \sqrt{n}\left(F^{-1}(U_{(\lceil np \rceil)}) - F^{-1}(p)\right) \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{\to} (F^{-1})'(p) \cdot N(0, p(1-p)).$$

Noting that  $(F^{-1})'(p) = \frac{1}{f(\xi_p)}$  yields the result.

#### 1.4 Concentration inequalities

We turn our attention to concentration inequalities, with a focus on finite-sample results (instead of results that only hold for  $n \to \infty$ ).

**Definition 1.20.** A random variable X with mean 0 is called *sub-Gaussian* with parameter  $\sigma^2$  if

$$M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}(e^{tX}) \le e^{t^2\sigma^2/2}$$

for every  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Note that equality holds when  $X \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ , since the MGF of an  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  distribution is given by  $t \mapsto \exp(\mu t + \sigma^2 t^2/2)$ .

**Recap 1.21.** Recall the tail bound formula for the expectation: if X is a nonnegative random variable, then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_0^\infty \mathbb{P}(X > x) \, \mathrm{d}x.$$

Furthermore, recall that the gamma function is defined for  $z \in (0, \infty)$  by

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty x^{z-1} e^{-x} \, \mathrm{d}x$$

and satisfies  $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Finally, recall the following inequality: for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $p \geq 1$ 

$$(a+b)^p < 2^{p-1}(a^p + b^p).$$

This follows from the convexity of the function  $x \mapsto x^p$ .

#### **Proposition 1.22.** We consider some characterisations of sub-Gaussianity:

(a) Let X be sub-Gaussian with parameter  $\sigma^2$ . Then

$$\max \left\{ \mathbb{P}(X \ge x), \mathbb{P}(X \le -x) \right\} \le e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)} \quad \text{for every } x \ge 0. \tag{1}$$

(b) Let X be a random variable which satisfies  $\mathbb{E}(X) = 0$  and eq. (1). Then for every  $q \in \mathbb{N}$  it holds that

$$\mathbb{E}(X^{2q}) \le 2 \cdot q! (2\sigma^2)^q \le q! (2\sigma)^{2q}.$$

(c) If X is a random variable with  $\mathbb{E}(X) = 0$  and  $\mathbb{E}(X^{2q}) \leq q!C^{2q}$  for all  $q \in \mathbb{N}$ , then X is sub-Gaussian with parameter  $4C^2$ .

*Proof.* (a) We first consider  $\mathbb{P}(X \geq x)$ . By Markov's inequality, we have for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  that

$$\mathbb{P}(X \ge x) = \mathbb{P}(e^{tX} \ge e^{tx}) \le e^{-tX} \mathbb{E}(e^{tX}) \le e^{-tx + t^2 \sigma^2/2}.$$

Since the LHS is independent of t, we can take the infimum over t on the RHS and obtain

$$\mathbb{P}(X \ge x) \le \inf_{t \in \mathbb{R}} e^{-tx + t^2 \sigma^2/2} = e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)},$$

since the infimum of  $t^2\sigma^2/2 - tx$  is attained at  $t = x/\sigma^2$  (this method is called *Chernoff bounding*). For  $\mathbb{P}(X \le -x) = \mathbb{P}(-X \ge x)$  we can use the fact that -X is also sub-Gaussian with parameter  $\sigma^2$ .

(b) By the previous part, we have  $\mathbb{P}(|X| \geq x) \leq 2e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)}$ . Some calculations give

$$\mathbb{E}(X^{2q}) = \int_0^\infty \mathbb{P}(X^{2q} \ge x) \, \mathrm{d}x = \int_0^\infty \mathbb{P}(|X| \ge x^{1/(2q)})$$
$$= 2q \int_0^\infty x^{2q-1} \mathbb{P}(|X| \ge x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$
$$\le 4q \int_0^\infty x^{2q-1} e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)} \, \mathrm{d}x.$$

Now set  $t=x^2/2\sigma^2$ , so that  $x=\sigma(2t)^{1/2}$  and thus  $\mathrm{d}x=\sigma(2t)^{-1/2}\,\mathrm{d}t$ . Plugging that in we get

$$\mathbb{E}(X^{2q}) \le 4q \int_0^\infty (\sigma(2t)^{1/2})^{2q-1} e^{-t} \sigma(2t)^{-1/2} dt = 2^{q+1} q \sigma^{2q} \int_0^\infty t^{q-1} e^{-t} dt$$
$$= 2^{q+1} q \sigma^{2q} \Gamma(q) = 2 \cdot q! (2\sigma)^q.$$

(c) Note that  $x \mapsto e^{-tx}$  is convex for every  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , so  $\mathbb{E}(e^{-tX}) \geq e^{-t\mathbb{E}(X)} = e^0 = 1$  by Jensen's inequality. Let X' denote an independent copy of X: then X - X' has a symmetric distribution, so all its odd moments vanish. Therefore we find

$$\mathbb{E}[e^{tX}] \leq \mathbb{E}[e^{-tX'}]\mathbb{E}[e^{tX}] = \mathbb{E}[e^{t(X-X')}] = \mathbb{E}\sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \left[\frac{t^{2q}(X-X')^{2q}}{(2q)!}\right]$$

$$= \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^{2q}\mathbb{E}[(X-X')^{2q}]}{(2q)!} \leq \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^{2q-1}t^{2q}\left(\mathbb{E}[X^{2q}] + \mathbb{E}[(X')^{2q}]\right)}{(2q)!}$$

$$\leq \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^{2q-1}t^{2q}2q!C^{2q}}{(2q)!} = \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2tC)^{2q}q!}{(2q)!} = \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2tC)^{2q}}{\prod_{j=1}^{q}(q+j)}$$

$$\leq \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2tC)^{2q}}{\prod_{j=1}^{q}(2j)} = \sum_{q=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2t^{2}C^{2})^{q}}{q!} = e^{2t^{2}C^{2}}.$$

This shows that X is sub-Gaussian with parameter  $4C^2$ .

Note that the proposition is not an "if and only if"-type theorem: suppose we start with a sub-Gaussian variable X with parameter  $\sigma^2$ . Then by (b), we have  $\mathbb{E}[X^{2q}] \leq q!(2\sigma)^{2q}$ , and (c) then implies that X is sub-Gaussian with parameter  $16\sigma^2$ .

**Theorem 1.23** (Hoeffding's inequality). Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be independent sub-Gaussian random variables, with  $X_i$  having parameter  $\sigma_i^2$ . Then  $\bar{X}$  is sub-Gaussian with parameter  $\bar{\sigma}^2$ . In particular, we have

$$\max\left\{\mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \geq x), \mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \leq -x)\right\} \leq e^{-nx^2/(2\overline{\sigma^2})}$$

*Proof.* For  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have

$$\mathbb{E}[e^{t\bar{X}}] = \mathbb{E}[e^{(t/n)\sum_i X_i}] = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[e^{(t/n)X_i}] \le \prod_{i=1}^n e^{t^2\sigma_i^2/(2n^2)} = e^{t^2\overline{\sigma^2}/(2n)},$$

which shows  $\bar{X}$  is sub-Gaussian with parameter  $\overline{\sigma^2}/n$ . Applying part (a) of the previous proposition shows the second result.

Remark. A direct consequence of Hoeffding's inequality is that

$$\mathbb{P}(\left|\bar{X}\right| \ge x) \le 2e^{-nx^2/(2\overline{\sigma^2})}.$$

The inequality is often stated in this weaker way.

**Lemma 1.24** (Hoeffding's lemma). Let X be a random variable with  $\mathbb{E}X = 0$  that satisfies  $a \leq X \leq b$ . Then X is sub-Gaussian with parameter  $(b-a)^2/4$ .

*Proof.* See Example Sheet 1, question 2.

**Corollary 1.25.** Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be independent random variables where  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu_i$  and  $a_i \leq X_i \leq b_i$ . Then we have

$$\mathbb{P}(\bar{X} - \bar{\mu} \ge x) \le \exp\left(-\frac{2n^2x^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right).$$

*Proof.* By Hoeffding's lemma,  $X_i - \mu_i$  is sub-Gaussian with parameter  $(b_i - a_i)^2/4$  for each i. The result now follows from theorem 1.23.

Note that when X takes values in [a, b], its variance is at most  $(b - a)^2$ . However, when  $Var(X_i) \ll (b_i - a_i)^2$ , Hoeffding's inequality can be loose (for example, when  $X_i \sim Bern(p_i)$  with  $p_i$  small). In such circumstances, Bennett's or Bernstein's inequality may give better results.

**Theorem 1.26** (Bennett's inequality). Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be independent random variables with  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = 0$ ,  $\sigma_i^2 := \operatorname{Var}(X_i) < \infty$ , and  $X_i \leq b$  for some b > 0. Define  $S := \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ ,  $\nu := \nu$  and  $\varphi \colon \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  by  $\varphi(u) := e^u - 1 - u = \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{u^k}{k!}$ , then for every t > 0 we have

$$\log \mathbb{E}[e^{tS}] \le \frac{n\nu}{b^2} \varphi(bt).$$

Defining  $h: (0,\infty) \to [0,\infty)$  by  $h(u) := (1+u)\log(1+u) - u$ , we have for every x > 0 that

$$\mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \ge x) \le \exp\left(-\frac{n\nu}{b^2}h\left(\frac{bx}{\nu}\right)\right).$$

*Proof.* Define  $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  by

$$g(u) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{u^k}{(k+2)!} = \begin{cases} \frac{\varphi(u)}{u^2} & \text{if } u \neq 0, \\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } u = 0. \end{cases}$$

Then one can check that g is increasing on  $\mathbb{R}$ , so

$$e^{tX_i} - 1 - tX_i = t^2 X_i^2 g(tX_i) \le t^2 X_i^2 g(tb) = X_i^2 \frac{\varphi(bt)}{h^2},$$

and therefore

$$e^{tX_i} \le 1 + tX_i + X_i^2 \frac{\varphi(bt)}{b^2} \implies \mathbb{E}[e^{tX_i}] \le 1 + \mathbb{E}[X_i^2] \frac{\varphi(bt)}{t^2} = 1 + \operatorname{Var}(X_i) \frac{\varphi(bt)}{b^2}.$$

Hence for t > 0 we have

$$\log \mathbb{E}[e^{tS}] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \mathbb{E}[e^{tX_i}] \le n \cdot \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left( 1 + \operatorname{Var}(X_i) \frac{\varphi(bt)}{b^2} \right)$$

$$\stackrel{*}{\le} n \log \left( 1 + \frac{\nu \varphi(bt)}{b^2} \right) \stackrel{**}{\le} \frac{n\nu}{b^2} \varphi(bt).$$

Here, (\*) follows from the fact that log is a concave function while (\*\*) follows from the fact that  $\log(1+u) \le u$  for all  $u \ge 0$ . This concludes the proof for the first part of the theorem.

Now, we apply the method of Chernoff bounding and find

$$\mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \ge x) = \mathbb{P}(S \ge nx) \le \inf_{t>0} e^{-ntx} \mathbb{E}[e^{tS}] \le \inf_{t>0} e^{-ntx + n\nu\varphi(bt)/b^2} = \exp\left(-\frac{n\nu}{b^2} h\left(\frac{bx}{\nu}\right)\right),$$

since once can check that the infimum is attained at  $t = b^{-1} \log(1 + bx/\nu)$ .

**Definition 1.27.** A random variable X with  $\mathbb{E}X=0$  is called *sub-Gamma in the right tail* with variance factor  $\sigma^2>0$  and scale c>0 if

$$\mathbb{E}[e^{tX}] \le \exp\left(\frac{\sigma^2 t^2}{2(1-ct)}\right)$$

for all  $t \in [0, 1/c)$ .

Note that this definition looks like that of sub-Gaussianity, except that  $e^{tX}$  can explode as t approaches 1/c. We give some characteristics of sub-Gamma distributions:

**Definition 1.28.** For any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  we define  $x_+ := \max(x,0)$ .

**Proposition 1.29.** (a) Let X be sub-Gamma in the right tail with variance factor  $\sigma^2$  and scale c. Then

$$\mathbb{P}(X \ge x) \le \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2(\sigma^2 + cx)}\right)$$

for all  $x \geq 0$ .

(b) Let X be a random variable with  $\mathbb{E}X = 0$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[X^2] \le \sigma^2$  and  $\mathbb{E}[(X_+)^q] \le q!\sigma^2c^{q-2}/2$  for all  $q \ge 3$ . Then X is sub-Gamma in the right tail with variance factor  $\sigma^2$  and scale parameter c.

Proof. (a) Again, we apply a Chernoff bound: we have

$$\mathbb{P}(X \ge x) \le \inf_{t \in [0,1/c)} e^{-tx} \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}] \le \inf_{t \in [0,1/c)} \exp\left(-tx + \frac{\sigma^2 t^2}{2(1-ct)}\right)$$
$$\le \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2(\sigma^2 + cx)}\right),$$

where we have set  $t = x/(\sigma^2 + cx) \in [0, 1/c)$  in the final step.

(b) Recall from the proof of Bennett's inequality that g is increasing and therefore for  $u \leq 0$  we have  $\varphi(u) = u^2 g(u) \leq u^2 g(0) = \frac{u^2}{2}$ . Therefore, for every  $u \in \mathbb{R}$  we have

$$\varphi(u) \le \frac{u^2}{2} + \sum_{q=3}^{\infty} \frac{(u_+)^q}{q!}.$$

We deduce that for  $t \in [0, 1/c)$  we have (note  $\log(x) \le x - 1$  for all x):

$$\log \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}] \le \mathbb{E}(e^{tX}) - 1 = \mathbb{E}[\varphi(tX)] \le \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{t^2X^2}{2} + \sum_{q=3}^{\infty} \frac{t^qX_+^q}{q!}\right].$$

By Fubini's theorem, since the infinite sum has only positive terms we may interchange sum and expectation to obtain

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{t^2X^2}{2} + \sum_{q=3}^{\infty} \frac{t^q \mathbb{E}[X_+^q]}{q!}\right] = \frac{t^2 \operatorname{Var}[X]}{2} + \sum_{q=3}^{\infty} \frac{t^q \mathbb{E}[X_+^q]}{q!} \leq \frac{\sigma^2 t^2}{2} \sum_{q=2}^{\infty} t^{q-2} c^{q-2} = \frac{\sigma^2 t^2}{2(1-ct)}.$$

Following this proposition, we can prove Bernstein's inequality:

**Theorem 1.30** (Bernstein's inequality). Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be independent random variables with  $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Var}(X_i) \leq \sigma^2$  and  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}[(X_i)_+^q] \leq q! \sigma^2 c^{q-2}/2$  some  $\sigma, c > 0$  and for all  $q \geq 3$ . Then  $S := \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$  is sub-Gamma in the right tail with variance factor  $n\sigma^2$  and scale parameter c. In particular we have

$$\mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \ge x) \le \exp\left(-\frac{nx^2}{2(\sigma^2 + cx)}\right).$$

*Proof.* We have by part (b) of the previous proposition

$$\log \mathbb{E}[e^{tS}] = \sum_{i=1}^n \log \mathbb{E}[e^{tX_i}] \le n \frac{\sigma^2 t^2}{2(1-ct)},$$

and the second claim follows from part (a) of the previous proposition:

$$\mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \ge x) = \mathbb{P}(S \ge nx) \le \exp\left(-\frac{nx^2}{2(\sigma^2 + cx)}\right).$$