# An Invariance Principle for the Law of the Iterated Logarithm* 

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## Summary

Let $S_{n}$ be the sum of the first $n$ of a sequence of independent identically distributed r. v. s. having mean 0 and variance 1 . One version of the law of the iterated logarithm asserts that with probability one the set of limit points of the sequence

$$
\left((2 n \log \log n)^{-1 / 2} S_{n}\right)_{n \geqq 3}
$$

coincides with $\langle-1,1\rangle=\{x: x$ real and $|x| \leqq 1\}$ (see Hartman-Wintner [6]). Now consider the continuous function $\eta_{n}$ on $\langle 0,1\rangle$ obtained by linearly interpolating $(2 n \log \log n)^{-1 / 2} S_{i}$ at $i / n$. Then we prove (theorem 3) that with probability one the set of limit points of the sequence $\left(\eta_{n}\right)_{n \geqq 3}$ with respect to the uniform topology coincides with the set of absolutely continuous functions $x$ on $\langle 0,1\rangle$ such that

$$
x(0)=0
$$

and

$$
\int \dot{x}^{2} d t \leqq 1
$$

As applications we obtain, e. g.,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{-1-(a / 2)}(2 \log \log n)^{-(a / 2)} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|S_{i}\right|^{a}\right. \\
\left.=\frac{2(a+2)(a / 2)-1}{\left(\int_{0}^{1} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{a}}}\right)^{a}} a^{a / 2}\right\}=1
\end{gathered}
$$

for any $a \geqq 1$, and

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} v_{n}=1-\exp \left\{-4\left(\frac{1}{c^{2}}-1\right)\right\}\right\}=1
$$

where $v_{n}$ is the frequency of the events

$$
S_{i}>c(2 i \log \log i)^{1 / 2}
$$

among the first $n$ integers $i(0 \leqq c \leqq 1)$.
To prove theorem 3, we first derive an analogous result for the ( $k$-dimensional) Brownian Motion using well-known ideas of Kolmogorov [ 7 ] and of Erdös and Kac [4]. Also Chung's profound paper [1] is to be mentioned here. Then we prove

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an invariance principle for the law of the iterated logarithm by a powerful device of Skовокнод's [11], designed by him to yield improvements of the ordinary invariance principle. The paper assumes no knowledge of the classical law of the iterated logarithm.

I would like to thank Professor M. LoEve for directing my attention to the book of Skorokhod and Professor D. Freedman for pointing out an error in the original manuscript.

## 1. Brownian Motion

Let $\zeta$ be the Brownian Motion in $R^{k}$. Define

$$
\zeta_{n}(t)=(2 n \log \log n)^{-1 / 2} \zeta(n t)
$$

for $t \in\langle 0,1\rangle$ and $n \geqq 3$. Let $C$ be the Banach space of continuous maps from $\langle 0,1\rangle$ to $R^{k}$ endowed with the supremum norm $\|\|$, using the euclidean norm in $R^{k} . \zeta_{n}$ is then a r. v. with values in $C$. Let $K$ be the set of absolutely continuous $x \in C$ such that

$$
x(0)=0
$$

and

$$
\int_{0}^{1} \dot{x}(\dot{x}(t))^{2} d t \leqq 1
$$

(where $\dot{x}$ denotes the derivative of $x$ determined almost everywhere with respect to Lebesgue measure and the square is meant as inner product). $K$ is a normcompact subset of $C$ : In fact for $a \leqq b$

$$
\begin{align*}
|x(b)-x(a)| & =\left|\int_{a}^{b} x d t\right| \leqq  \tag{1}\\
& \leqq\left(\int_{a}^{b} d t \int_{a}^{b} x^{2} d t\right)^{1 / 2} \leqq \\
& \leqq \sqrt{b-a}
\end{align*}
$$

so that $K$ is relatively norm-compact. That $K$ is closed follows immediately from a result of F. Riesz (see [10], p. 68, lemma).

If one considers an $x \in C$ as the motion of a mass point with mass 2 from time 0 to time 1, then $K$ consists of those motions for which the mean kinetic energy is $\leqq 1$. This interpretation has a nice feature: The obscure factor $2^{-1 / 2}$ in the definition of $\zeta_{n}$ which has been kept for historical reasons cancels with the factor 2 of the mass of our masspoint, if one connects them by theorem 1. A similar remark applies to theorem 3.

Theorem 1. With probability one the sequence $\left(\zeta_{n}\right)_{n \geqq 3}$ is relatively norm-compact and the set of its (norm-)limit points coincides with $K$.

Proof. Let $\varepsilon>0, K_{\varepsilon}$ be the set of all points in $C$ which have a distance $<\varepsilon$ from $K$. Then if $m$ is any positive integer and $r>1$ real

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\zeta_{n} \notin K_{\varepsilon}\right\} \leqq \operatorname{Pr}\left\{2 m \sum_{i=1}^{2 m}\left(\zeta_{n}\left(\frac{i}{2 m}\right)-\zeta_{n}\left(\frac{i-1}{2 m}\right)\right)^{2}>r^{2}\right\}+ \\
+\operatorname{Pr}\left\{2 m \sum_{i=1}^{2 m}\left(\zeta_{n}\left(\frac{i}{2 m}\right)-\zeta_{n}\left(\frac{i-1}{2 m}\right)\right)^{2} \leqq r^{2} \quad \text { and } \quad \zeta_{n} \notin K_{\varepsilon}\right\}=I+I I \quad \text { (say) }
\end{gathered}
$$

Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{I}=\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\chi_{2 m k}^{2}>\right. & \left.2 r^{2} \log \log n\right\}=\frac{1}{\Gamma(m k)} \int_{r^{2} \log \log n}^{\infty} t^{m k-1} e^{-t} d t \\
& \sim \frac{\left(r^{2} \log \log n\right) m k-1 e-r^{2} \log \log n}{\Gamma(m k)}
\end{aligned}
$$

for $n \rightarrow \infty$ (recall that $k$ is the dimension of the Brownian Motion $\zeta$ ). Moreover, let $\eta_{n}$ be the r. $v$. with values in $C$ obtained by linearly interpolating the points $\zeta_{n}\left(\frac{i}{2 m}\right)$ at $\frac{i}{2 m}(i=1, \ldots, 2 m)$. Then

$$
2 m \sum_{i=1}^{2 m}\left(\zeta_{n}\left(\frac{i}{2 m}\right)-\zeta_{n}\left(\frac{i-1}{2 m}\right)\right)^{2} \leqq r^{2}
$$

means just $\frac{1}{r} \eta_{n} \in K$ and we get

$$
\mathrm{II}=\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\frac{1}{r} \eta_{n} \in K, \zeta_{n} \notin K_{\varepsilon}\right\} \leqq \operatorname{Pr}\left\{\frac{1}{r} \eta_{n} \in K,\left\|\frac{\mathrm{I}}{r} \eta_{n}-\zeta_{n}\right\| \geqq \varepsilon\right\} .
$$

Define the r.v. $T$ by

$$
T= \begin{cases}\min \left\{t: t \in\langle 0,1\rangle,\left|\frac{1}{r} \eta_{n}(t)-\zeta_{n}(t)\right| \geqq \varepsilon\right\} & \text { if this set is nonempty } \\ 2 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

and let $F$ be its d. f., so that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{II} \leqq \int_{0}^{1} \operatorname{Pr}\left\{\left.\frac{1}{r} \eta_{n} \in K \right\rvert\, T=t\right\} d F(t) \\
&=\int_{0}^{1} \operatorname{Pr}\left\{\frac{1}{r} \eta_{n} \in K, \left.\left|\frac{1}{r} \eta_{n}(t)-\zeta_{n}(t)\right|=\varepsilon \right\rvert\, T=t\right\} d F(t) .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $i(t)$ is the smallest $i$ with $\frac{i}{2 m} \geqq t$, the statement

$$
\frac{1}{r} \eta_{n} \in K
$$

implies

$$
\left|\eta_{n}\left(\frac{i(t)}{2 m}\right)-\eta_{n}(t)\right| \leqq r \int_{t}^{i(t) / 2 m}\left|\frac{1}{r} \dot{\eta}_{n}\right| d s \leqq r \int_{i}^{i(t) / 2 m}\left(\frac{1}{r} \dot{\eta}_{n}\right)^{2} d s \frac{1}{\sqrt{2 m}} \leqq \frac{r}{\sqrt{2 m}}
$$

The two statements

$$
\frac{1}{r} \eta_{n} \in K
$$

and

$$
\left|\frac{1}{r} \eta_{n}(t)-\zeta_{n}(t)\right|=\varepsilon
$$

together therefore imply

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left|\zeta_{n}\left(\frac{i(t)}{2 m}\right)-\zeta_{n}(t)\right| \geqq\left|\eta_{n}(t)-\zeta_{n}(t)\right|-\left|\eta_{n}\left(\frac{i(t)}{2 m}\right)-\eta_{n}(t)\right| \\
\text { (remember that } \left.\eta_{n}\left(\frac{i(t)}{2 m}\right)=\zeta_{n}\left(\frac{i(t)}{2 m}\right)\right) \\
\geqq r \varepsilon-(r-1)-\frac{r}{\sqrt{2 m}} \geqq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

if $r$ is chosen close enough to l and $m$ is sufficiently large. Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{II} \leqq \int_{0}^{1} \operatorname{Pr}\left\{\left.\left|\zeta_{n}\left(\frac{i(t)}{2 m}\right)-\zeta_{n}(t)\right| \geqq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \right\rvert\, T=t\right\} d F(t) \leqq \operatorname{Pr}\left\{\left|\zeta_{n}\left(\frac{1}{2 m}\right)\right| \geqq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right\} \int_{0}^{1} d F(t) \\
\leqq \operatorname{Pr}\left\{\left|\zeta\left(\frac{n}{2 m}\right)\right| \geqq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \sqrt{2 n \log \log n}\right\} \sim \Gamma\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)^{-1}\left(\left(\varepsilon^{2} m \log \log n\right) / 2\right)^{k / 2-1} \times \\
\times \exp \left\{\left(-\varepsilon^{2} m \log \log n\right) / 2\right\}
\end{gathered}
$$

(compare the estimation of I). By choosing $m$ and $r$ appropriately and using the above estimates for I and II, it is easily seen that for some $r>1$ and sufficiently large $n$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\zeta_{n} \notin K_{\varepsilon}\right\} \leqq e^{-r^{2} \log \log n} .
$$

If $n_{j}=\left[c^{j}\right]+1$, where $c>1$, then

$$
\sum_{j} \operatorname{Pr}\left\{\zeta_{n_{j}} \notin K_{\varepsilon}\right\} \leqq(\log c)^{-r^{2}} \sum_{j} j^{-r^{2}}<\infty
$$

so that eventually $\zeta_{n s} \in K_{\varepsilon}$ with probability 1 . For $c$ sufficiently close to 1 this implies that eventually $\zeta_{n} \in K_{2 \varepsilon}$ with probability one.

This shows that almost surcly at most the points of $K$ are limit points of $\left(\zeta_{n}\right)_{n \geqq 3}$ and also that almost surely this sequence is relatively compact (for $\left\{\zeta_{n}: n \geqq 3\right\}$ is totally bounded). To prove the theorem it is therefore sufficient (because of the compactness of $K$ ) to show the following: given $x \in K$ and $\varepsilon>0$, the probability that $\zeta_{n}$ is infinitely often in the open $\varepsilon$-sphere $\{x\}_{\varepsilon}$ around $x$ equals one. Let $m \geqq 1$ be an integer, $0<\delta<1$ and $x^{\kappa}, \zeta_{n}^{x}$ be the $x$-th coordinate of $x$ and $\zeta_{n}$ respectively ( $1 \leqq x \leqq k$ ). We denote the event

$$
\left\{\left.\zeta_{n}^{\chi}\left(\frac{i}{m}\right)-\zeta_{n}^{n}\left(\frac{i-1}{m}\right)-\left(x^{\chi}\left(\frac{i}{m}\right)-x^{\chi}\left(\frac{i-1}{m}\right)\right) \right\rvert\,<\delta\right.
$$

for all $i$ with $2 \leqq i \leqq m$ and all $x\}$
by $A_{n}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(A_{n}\right) \geqq \prod_{i=2}^{m} \prod_{x=1}^{k} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}}{ }^{\sqrt{2 \pi \log \log n}}\left(\left|x^{x}\left(\frac{i}{m}\right)-x^{x}\left(\frac{i-1}{m}\right)\right|+\delta\right) \\
& \int_{\sqrt{2 m \log \log n}}^{\left.\sqrt{x}\left(\frac{i}{m}\right)-x^{\star}\left(\frac{i-1}{m}\right) \right\rvert\,} e^{-\left(s^{2} / 2\right)} d s \\
& \geqq \text { const. } \prod_{i=2}^{m} \prod_{n=1}^{k} \frac{\exp \left\{-m\left(x^{\star}\left(\frac{i}{m}\right)-x^{\kappa}\left(\frac{i-1}{m}\right)\right)^{2} \log \log n\right\}}{\sqrt{m \log \log n}}
\end{aligned}
$$

for $n$ sufficiently large (having used $\int_{\mathrm{a}}^{\frac{\mathrm{b}}{\frac{e-\left(s^{2} / 2\right)}{\sqrt{2 \pi}}} \geqq \frac{1}{b \sqrt{2 \pi}} e^{-\left(a^{2} / 2\right)}\left(\mathbf{l}-e^{-1 / 2\left(b^{2}-a^{2}\right)}\right)}$ for $0 \leqq a<b$ ). So by summing up the exponents and using Schwarz's inequality we get

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(A_{n}\right) \geqq \frac{\text { const. }}{\log n \sqrt{m \log \log n}}
$$

for large $n$ ("large" depending on $m$ and $\delta$ ). We now put $n_{j}=m^{j}$. Then the $A_{n_{j}}{ }^{\prime} s$
are mutually independent and

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \operatorname{Pr}\left(A_{n_{j}}\right)=\infty
$$

because $\sum_{j} \frac{1}{j \sqrt{\log j}}$ diverges. Hence by Borel-Cantelli's lemma infinitely many events $A_{n}$ happen almost surely. By what we previously have proved $\zeta_{n}$ is eventually close to $K$, and therefore almost surely we have eventually

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\zeta_{n}(t)-\zeta_{n}(s)\right| \leqq \sqrt{|t-s|}+\delta \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any $s, t \in\langle 0,1\rangle$. Now if $y \in C$ the two statements

$$
|y(t)-y(s)| \leqq \sqrt{|t-s|}+\delta
$$

for all $s, t \in\langle 0,1\rangle$ and

$$
\left|y^{\alpha}\left(\frac{i}{m}\right)-y^{x}\left(\frac{i-1}{m}\right)-\left(x^{\alpha}\left(\frac{i}{m}\right)-x^{\alpha}\left(\frac{i-1}{m}\right)\right)\right|<\delta
$$

for all $i$ and $\chi$ with $2 \leqq i \leqq m$ and $1 \leqq x \leqq k$ together imply

$$
\|y-x\|<\varepsilon,
$$

provided $m$ is sufficiently large and $\delta$ is sufficiently small ("small" depending also on the choice of $m$ ).

Looking at the definition of $A_{n}$, at the fact that $A_{n}$ happens infinitely often a. s. and at (2) we conclude that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\left\|\zeta_{n}-x\right\|<\varepsilon \text { infinitely often }\right\}=1
$$

This proves the theorem.
The discreteness of $n$ is inessential for the previous considerations. So if $u>e$ (base for the natural logarithm) is real and we put

$$
\zeta_{u}(t)=(2 u \log \log u)^{-1 / 2} \zeta(u t)
$$

for $t \in\langle 0,1\rangle$, we have the following
Corollary 1. With probability one the net $\left(\zeta_{u}\right)_{u>e}$ is relatively norm-compact and the set of its norm-limit points as $u$ tends to $\infty$ coincides with $K$.

## 2. The invariance principle

Let $Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \ldots$ be a sequence of independent and identically distributed r. v.s. Assume

$$
E Y_{1}=0
$$

and

$$
E\left(Y_{1}^{2}\right)=1
$$

(no further moments are needed). Put

$$
S_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_{i}, \quad S_{0}=0
$$

and

$$
\eta(t)=([t]+1-t) S_{[t]}+(t-[t]) S_{[t]+1}
$$

i. e., the function $\eta$ is obtained by linearly interpolating $S_{n}$ at $n$.

Theorem 2. The 1-dimensional Brownian Motion $\zeta$ and the above $\eta$ can be redefined on a common probability space without changing their respective laws (the Wiener measure in the case of $\zeta$ ), in such a way that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}(2 t \log \log t)^{-1 / 2} \sup _{\tau \leqq t}|\zeta(\tau)-\eta(\tau)|=0\right\}=1
$$

Proof. This follows easily from an important result of Sковокнор [11], p. 180:
"If a sequence $Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \ldots$ of independent identically distributed real r. v.'s satisfying

$$
E Y_{1}=0
$$

and

$$
E\left(Y_{1}^{2}\right)<\infty
$$

is defined together with a l-dimensional Brownian Motion $\zeta$ on a probability space such that

$$
Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \ldots
$$

and

$$
\zeta
$$

are mutually independent, then there is a sequence

$$
\tau_{1}, \tau_{2}, \ldots
$$

of independent identically distributed nonnegative r. v.'s defined on the same space such that

$$
E \tau_{1}=E\left(Y_{1}^{2}\right)
$$

and such that the process

$$
\zeta\left(\tau_{1}\right), \zeta\left(\tau_{1}+\tau_{2}\right)-\zeta\left(\tau_{1}\right), \ldots, \zeta\left(\sum_{i \leqq n} \tau_{i}\right)-\zeta\left(\sum_{i \leqq n-1} \tau_{i}\right), \ldots
$$

and the process

$$
Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \ldots, Y_{n}, \ldots
$$

have the same distribution."
To apply this result, let us assume that our original sequence $Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \ldots$ and a Brownian Motion $\zeta$ are already defined on the same probability space and are mutually independent (this of course can always be done). Put $\tau_{0}=0$ and

$$
\tilde{Y}_{j}=\zeta\left(\sum_{i=0}^{j} \tau_{i}\right)-\zeta\left(\sum_{i=0}^{j-1} \tau_{i}\right)
$$

for $j \geqq 1$, also

$$
\bar{S}_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{Y}_{i}=\zeta\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \tau_{i}\right), \quad \tilde{S}_{0}=0
$$

and

$$
\tilde{\eta}(t)=([t]+1-t) \tilde{S}_{[t]}+(t-[t]) \tilde{S}_{[t]+1}
$$

for any $t \geqq \mathbf{0}$. Then $\tilde{\eta}$ has the same distribution as $\eta$. Moreover

$$
|\tilde{\eta}(t)-\zeta(t)| \leqq \max \left\{\left|\zeta\left(\sum_{1 \leq i \leq t} \tau_{i}\right)-\zeta(t)\right|, \mid \underset{1 \leqq i \leqq t+1}{\left.\left|\zeta\left(\sum_{i} \tau_{i}\right)-\zeta(t)\right|\right\} . . . . . .}\right.
$$

Let $\varepsilon>0$. By Kolmogoroff's law of large numbers we have for sufficiently large $T$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\left|\sum_{1 \leqq i \leqq t} \tau_{i}-t\right|>t \varepsilon \text { for some } t>T\right\}<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}
$$

and

$$
\underset{1 \leqq i \leqq t+1}{\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\left|\sum_{i} \tau_{i}-t\right|>t \varepsilon \text { for some } t>T\right\}<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}, ~}
$$

so that with probability $>1-\varepsilon$ for all $t>T$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \max \left\{\left|\zeta\left(\sum_{1 \leqq i \leqq t} \tau_{i}\right)-\zeta(t)\right|,\left|\zeta\left(\sum_{1 \leqq i \leq t+1} \tau_{\mathrm{i}}\right)-\zeta(t)\right|\right\} \\
\leqq & \sup \{|\zeta(s)-\zeta(t)|: s \in\langle t(\mathbf{1}-\varepsilon), t(1+\varepsilon)\rangle\} \\
\leqq & 2 \sup \{|\zeta(s)-\zeta(t(1+\varepsilon))|: s \in\langle t(1-\varepsilon), t(1+\varepsilon)\rangle\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore with probability $>1-\varepsilon$ we have for all $t>T$
$(2 t \log \log t)^{-1 / 2}|\tilde{\eta}(t)-\zeta(t)|$
$\leqq 2 \sup \left\{(2 t \log \log t)^{-1 / 2}|\zeta(s)-\zeta(t(1+\varepsilon))|: s \in\langle t(1-\varepsilon), t(1+\varepsilon)\rangle\right\}$
$\leqq 2 \sup \left\{\left((1+\varepsilon) \frac{\log \log (t(1+\varepsilon))}{\log \log t}\right)^{1 / 2}(2 u \log \log u)^{-1 / 2}\left|\zeta\left(s^{\prime} u\right)-\zeta(u)\right|:\right.$ $\left.\frac{1-\varepsilon}{1+\varepsilon} \leqq s^{\prime} \leqq 1\right\}$
where we put $u=t(\mathbf{1}+\varepsilon)$. For large $t$ this may be continued

$$
\leqq 4 \sup \left\{\left|\zeta_{t(1+\varepsilon)}\left(s^{\prime}\right)-\zeta_{t(1+\varepsilon)}(1)\right|: 1-2 \varepsilon \leqq s^{\prime} \leqq 1\right\}
$$

Applying corollary l, we see that if we restrict attention to a suitable event of somewhat smaller but still large probability (say $>1-2 \varepsilon$ ), then for $t>T^{\prime}$ (nonrandom) we have $\zeta_{t(1+\varepsilon)} \in K_{\varepsilon}$, so that

$$
4 \sup \left\{\left|\zeta_{t(1+\varepsilon)}\left(s^{\prime}\right)-\zeta_{t(1+\varepsilon)}(1)\right|: 1-2 \varepsilon \leqq s^{\prime} \leqq 1\right\} \leqq 4(\sqrt{2 \varepsilon}+2 \varepsilon)
$$

(recall (1)). So given $\varepsilon>0$ there is a $T^{\prime}$ such that
$\operatorname{Pr}\left\{(2 t \log \log t)^{-1 / 2}|\tilde{\eta}(t)-\zeta(t)| \leqq 4(\sqrt{2 \varepsilon}+2 \varepsilon)\right.$ for all $\left.t>T^{\prime}\right\} \geqq 1-2 \varepsilon$.
This implies

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}(2 t \log \log t)^{-1 / 2}|\tilde{\eta}(t)-\zeta(t)|=0\right\}=1
$$

and this implies the theorem.
Put

$$
\eta_{n}(t)=(2 n \log \log n)^{-1 / 2} \eta(n t)
$$

for $t \in\langle 0,1\rangle$ and $n \geqq 3$, i. e., $\eta_{n}$ is the r. v. with values in $C$ (where $k=1$ ) which is obtained by interpolating linearly

$$
(2 n \log \log n)^{-1 / 2} S_{i}
$$

at $\frac{i}{n}$. Then we have
Theorem 3. With probability one the sequence $\left(\eta_{n}\right)_{n \geqq 3}$ is relatively norm-compact and the set of its norm-limit points coincides with $K$.

Proof. Replacing $t$ by $n$ in theorem 2 we get

$$
\underset{n \rightarrow \infty}{\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\lim _{n}\left\|\zeta_{n}-\eta_{n}\right\|=0\right\}=1 .}
$$

Theorem 3 then follows from theorem 1.

## 3. Some applications and comments

Let again

$$
Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \ldots
$$

be a sequence of independent identically distributed real r. v.'s with

$$
E Y_{1}=0
$$

and

$$
E\left(Y_{1}^{2}\right)=1 .
$$

(i) The ordinary law of the iterated logarithm for the sequence $Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \ldots$ follows from theorem 3. In fact (1) with $a=0$ and $b=1$ yields

$$
\sup _{x \in K} x(1)=1
$$

where the supremum is attained for and only for $x=t$. In view of theorem 3 this means

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty}(2 n \log \log n)^{-1 / 2} S_{n}=1\right\}=1
$$

Moreover for small $\varepsilon>0$ and sufficiently large $n$ ("large" depending on $\varepsilon$ and on chance)

$$
(2 n \log \log n)^{-1 / 2} S_{n}>1-\varepsilon
$$

happens only if the sequence

$$
S_{1}, S_{2}, \ldots, S_{n}
$$

has an approximately linear shape (here we make use of the compactness of $K$ ).
(ii) Let $f$ be any Riemann integrable real function on $\langle\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{l}\rangle$,

$$
F(t)=\int_{i}^{1} f(s) d s
$$

for $t \in\langle 0,1\rangle$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(2 n^{3} \log \log n\right)^{-1 / 2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f\left(\frac{i}{n}\right) S_{i}=\left(\int_{0}^{1} F(t)^{2} d t\right)^{1 / 2}\right\}=1 . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular (putting $f(t)=t^{\alpha}$ )

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(2 n^{2 \alpha+3} \log \log n\right)^{-1 / 2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} i^{\alpha} S_{i}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{\left(\alpha+\frac{3}{2}\right)(\alpha+2)}}\right\}=1
$$

for any $\alpha>-1$.
To prove (3) we make use of the following
Corollary of Theorem 3. If $\varphi$ is a continuous map from C(=Banach space of continuous real functions on $\langle 0,1\rangle$ ) to some Hausdorff space $H$ (in all following applications $H$ will be the set of real numbers), then with probability 1 the sequence $\left(\varphi\left(\eta_{n}\right)\right)_{n \geqq 3}$ is relatively compact and the set of its limit points coincides with $\varphi(K)$.

Proof. In general if a relatively compact sequence $\left(y_{n}\right)_{n \geq 1}$ of points in $C$ has some (compact) $K$ as the set of its limit points, then $\varphi(K)$ is the set of limit points of $\left(\varphi\left(y_{n}\right)\right)_{n} \geqq 1$. The corollary follows if we assume the basic probability space to be complete (so as to be sure that the event of coincidence between the set of limit points of $\left(\varphi\left(\eta_{n}\right)\right)_{n \geqq 3}$ and $\varphi(K)$ is measurable).

We apply this corollary to the function $\varphi$ defined by

$$
\varphi(x)=\int_{0}^{1} x(t) f(t) d t, \quad(x \in C)
$$

to get

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{0}^{1} \eta_{n}(t) f(t) d t=\sup \varphi(K)\right\}=1 .
$$

But

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sup \varphi(K) & =\sup _{x \in K} \int_{0}^{1} x(t) f(t) d t \\
& =\sup _{x \in K} \int_{0}^{1} F(t) \dot{x}(t) d t \\
& =\sup \left\{\int_{0}^{1} F(t) y(t) d t: \int_{0}^{1} y^{2}(t) d t \leqq 1\right\} \\
& =\left(\int_{0}^{1}(F(t))^{2} d t\right)^{1 / 2}
\end{aligned}
$$

(evaluation of the supremum of a linear functional on the unit sphere of a Hilbert space).

An elementary consideration yields

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f\left(\frac{i}{n}\right)(2 n \log \log n)^{-1 / 2} S_{i}=\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{0}^{1} f(t) \eta_{n}(t) d t\right\}=1
$$

so that (3) is proved.
(iii) Let $a \geqq 1$ be real. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{-1-(a / 2)}(2 \log \log n)^{-a / 2} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|S_{i}\right|^{a}=\frac{2(a+2)^{(a / 2)-1}}{\left(\int_{0}^{1} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{a}}}\right)^{a} a^{a / 2}}\right\}=1, \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

in particular

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{-3 / 2}(2 \log \log n)^{-1 / 2} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|S_{i}\right|=\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right\}=1
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{-2}(2 \log \log )^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} S_{i}^{2}=\frac{4}{\pi^{2}}\right\}=1
$$

One reduces the proof of (4) in an entirely analogous way as above to that of the following assertion:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sup _{x \in K} \int_{0}^{1}|x(t)|^{a} d t=\frac{2(a+2)(a / 2)-1}{\left(\int_{0}^{1} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{\overline{1-t^{a}}}}\right)^{a} a^{a / 2}} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now if $\Lambda^{2}$ is the Hilbert space of all absolutely continuous $x \in C$ such that

$$
x(0)=0
$$

and

$$
\int_{0}^{1} \dot{x}^{2} d t<\infty
$$

endowed with the inner product

$$
((x, y))=\int_{0}^{1} x \dot{y} d t
$$

we have

$$
\sup _{x \in K} \int_{0}^{1}|x|^{a} d t=\sup \left\{\int_{0}^{1}|x|^{a} d t: x \in \Lambda^{2} \text { and }((x, x))=1\right\}
$$

The right-hand side can be evaluated by classical methods of the calculus of variations. We know that the supremum is obtained by some $x$ (because $K$ is a norm compact subset of $C$ and any $x \in K$ which maximizes $\int|x|^{a} d t$ satisfies $((x, x))=1)$. Without loss of generality we may assume $x \geqq 0$. A necessary condition for $x$ is the existence of a Lagrange multiplier $\beta$ such that for all $y \in \Lambda^{2}$

$$
\int_{0}^{1} a x^{a-1} d t=\beta 2 \int_{0}^{1} \dot{x} \dot{y} d t
$$

(the left-hand side is the derivative of the functional $\int|x|^{a} d t$ at $x$ applied to $y$, i. e.,

$$
\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \varepsilon} \int_{0}^{1}|x+\varepsilon y|^{a} d t\right)_{\varepsilon=0}
$$

(see [2]), the right-hand side is $\beta$ times the derivative of the functional $((x, x))$ at $x$ applied to $y$ ). Partial integration of the left-hand side yields

$$
\int_{0}^{1} \int_{i}^{1} a(x(s))^{a-1} d s \dot{y}(t) d t=2 \beta \int_{0}^{1} \dot{x} \dot{y} d t
$$

therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{t}^{1} a x^{a-1} d s=2 \beta \dot{x}(t) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

which shows that $\dot{x}$ has a continuous derivative (of course $\beta \neq 0$ ) and also that

$$
\dot{x}(\mathrm{l})=0 .
$$

Differentiating, multiplying with $\dot{x}(t)$ and integrating again yields

$$
x^{a}+\beta \dot{x^{2}}=x(1)^{a}+\beta \dot{x}(1)^{2}=x(1)^{a} .
$$

From the significance of $x$ and from our assumption $x \geqq 0$ it follows that $x$ is nondecreasing, $x(\mathrm{l})>0$, so from the above equation

$$
\begin{gathered}
\dot{x}(0)>0, \\
\beta=\frac{x(1)^{a}}{\dot{x}(0)^{2}}>0 .
\end{gathered}
$$

Using (6) we see also that

$$
\dot{x}(t)>0
$$

for all $t$. The last equation becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{a}+\frac{x(1)^{a}}{\dot{x}(0)^{2}} \dot{x}^{2}=x(1)^{a} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Separation of variables and integration yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
t=\int_{0}^{x(t)} \frac{d u}{\dot{x}(0) \sqrt{1-\frac{u^{a}}{x(1)^{a}}}} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that

$$
\mathbf{1}=\frac{x(1)}{x(0)} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{d v}{\dot{x}(0) \sqrt{1-v^{a}}}=\frac{x(1)}{x(0)} \gamma \quad \text { (say) }
$$

Now, on the one hand, using (7) and $\int x^{2} d t=1$

$$
\int_{0}^{1} x^{a} d t=x(1)^{a}\left(1-\frac{1}{\dot{x}(0)^{2}}\right),
$$

on the other hand, using (8)

$$
\int_{0}^{1} x^{a} d t=\int_{0}^{x(1)} \frac{u^{a} d u}{\dot{x}(0) \sqrt{1-\left(u^{a} / x(1)^{a}\right)}}=\frac{2 x(1)^{a+1}}{(a+2) \dot{x}(0)} \gamma .
$$

Eliminating $x(1)$ and $x(0)$ from the last 3 equations we get the desired conclusion (5).
Remarks: If a is an integer, $\left|S_{i}\right|^{a}$ in (4) can of course be replaced by $S_{i}^{a}$. Also: For sufficiently large $n$ ("large" being random) whenever

$$
n^{-1-(a / 2)}(2 \log \log n)^{-a / 2} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|S_{i}\right|^{a}
$$

is close to its limes superior

$$
\frac{2(a+2)(a / 2)-1}{\gamma^{a} a^{a / 2}}
$$

then $\eta_{n}$ is close to either $\psi$ or $-\psi$, where

$$
t=\frac{1}{\gamma} \int_{0}^{\gamma(a / a+2)^{1 / 2} \psi(t)} \frac{d v}{\sqrt{1-v^{a}}}
$$

(e. g., if $a=2$, we have $\psi(t)=(\sqrt{8} / \pi) \sin (\pi / 2) t$ ).

On might inquire about

$$
\limsup _{i \rightarrow \infty} n_{i}^{-2}\left(2 \log \log n_{i}\right)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_{i}} S_{j}^{2},
$$

where $n_{i}$ runs through all $n$ such that

$$
S_{n} S_{n-1} \leqq 0
$$

It is easy to see that the above quantity equals almost surely

$$
\sup \left\{\int_{0}^{1} x^{2} d t: x \in K \text { and } x(1)=0\right\}
$$

This supremum equals $1 / \pi^{2}$ and is obtained by the two functions $\pm \sqrt{2} / \pi \sin \pi t$, as can be derived from (8) using a symmetry argument, or directly from Wirtinger's lemma.
(iv)

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\lim \sup (2 n \log \log n)^{-1 / 2} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} S_{i}^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|S_{i}\right|}=2 p\right\}=1
$$

where $p$ is the largest solution of

$$
\sqrt{1-p} \sin \frac{\sqrt{1-p}}{p}+\cos \frac{\sqrt{1-p}}{p}=0
$$

for $0<p<1$.
Again one has only to prove

$$
\sup \left\{\frac{\int x^{2} d t}{\int|x| d t}: x \in \Lambda^{2} \text { and }((x, x))=1\right\}=2 p
$$

The supremum is attained, say at $x$. We may assume $x \geqq 0$, in fact $x(t)>0$ for all $t>0$. Taking derivatives we get with a Lagrange multiplier $\beta$

$$
\left(\int x d t \int 2 x y d t-\int x^{2} d t \int y d t\right)\left(\int x d t\right)^{-2}=\beta \int 2 \dot{x} \dot{y} d t
$$

for all $y \in \Lambda^{2}$ as a necessary condition on $x$. Substituting for $y$ functions of the form

$$
\dot{y}_{s}(t)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{s} & \text { if } t \in\left\langle t_{0}, s\right\rangle \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

we see that $x$ has a continuous derivative. Putting

$$
\alpha=\left(\int x d t\right)^{2} \beta
$$

we obtain by a partial integration from the above equation

$$
\int x d t \int 2 x y d t-\int x^{2} d t \int y d t=2 \alpha \dot{x}(1) y(1)-2 \alpha \int \ddot{x} y d t
$$

and therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 x \int x d t-\int x^{2} d t+2 \alpha \ddot{x}=0 \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\dot{x}(1)=0
$$

Multiplying (9) by $x$ and integrating we get

$$
x^{2} \int x d t-x \int x^{2} d t+\alpha\left(\dot{x}^{2}-\dot{x}(0)^{2}\right)=0
$$

Integrating from 0 to 1

$$
\dot{x}(0)=1
$$

Any solution of (9) has the form

$$
z(t)=p+q \cos \lambda t+r \sin \lambda t
$$

The conditions $z(0)=0, \dot{z}(0)=1, \dot{z}(1)=0$ and $\int \dot{z}^{2} d t=1$ specify $p, q, r, \lambda$ :

$$
z(t)=p-p \cos \frac{\sqrt{1-p}}{p} t+\frac{p}{\sqrt{1-p}} \sin \frac{\sqrt{1-p}}{p} t
$$

where $-\infty<p<1, p \neq 0$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sqrt{1-p} \sin \frac{\sqrt{1-p}}{p}+\cos \frac{\sqrt{1-p}}{p}=0 . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

For any such $p$ the corresponding $z$ actually solves (9) and satisfies the side conditions. Moreover

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int z^{2} d t & =\frac{2 p^{2}}{1-p}, \\
\int z d t & =\frac{p}{1-p},
\end{aligned}
$$

so that

$$
\frac{\int z^{2} d t}{\int z d t}=2 p
$$

One easily checks that the $z$ corresponding to the largest value of $p<1$ satisfying ( $\mathbf{l} 0$ ) is positive in $(0, \mathbf{l}\rangle$, so that it must coincide with $x$.
(v) In view of the ordinary law of the iterated logarithm it seems natural to ask about the relative frequency of events

$$
S_{n}>(1-\varepsilon)(2 n \log \log n)^{1 / 2}
$$

Let $0 \leqq c \leqq 1$ and

$$
c_{i}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } S_{i}>c(2 i \log \log i)^{1 / 2} \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=3}^{n} c_{i}=1-\exp \left\{-4\left(\frac{1}{c^{2}}-1\right)\right\}\right\}=1 \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $c=\frac{1}{2}$ as an example we get the somewhat surprising result that with probability one for infinitely many $n$ the percentage of times $i \leqq n$ when

$$
S_{i}>\frac{1}{2}(2 i \log \log i)^{1 / 2}
$$

exceeds 99.999 , but only for finitely many $n$ exceeds 99.9999 .
It suffices to prove (11) for $0<c<1$. One easily shows, using the fact that for any $\alpha \in(0,1)$

$$
\log \log \alpha n \sim \log \log n
$$

that with probability one

$$
\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=[\alpha n]}^{n} c_{i} \leqq \sup _{x \in K} m\left\{t: \alpha \leqq t \leqq 1 \text { and } x(t) \geqq c^{\prime} \sqrt{t}\right\}
$$

and

$$
\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=[\alpha n]}^{n} c_{i} \geqq \sup _{x \in K} m\left\{t: \alpha \leqq t \leqq 1 \text { and } x(t) \geqq c^{\prime \prime} \sqrt{t}\right\}
$$

where $c^{\prime}<c<c^{\prime \prime}$ arbitrary and $m$ denotes Lebesgue measure (note that

$$
m\{t: \alpha \leqq t \leqq 1 \text { and } x(t) \geqq c \sqrt{t}\}
$$

is not a continuous function of $x$, so that one has to go back to theorem 3 instead of using its corollary). For continuity reasons it is therefore sufficient to prove

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sup _{x \in K} m\{t: x(t) \geqq c \sqrt{t}\}=1-\exp \left\{-4\left(\frac{1}{c^{2}}-1\right)\right\} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now $m\{t: x(t) \geqq c \sqrt{t}\}$ is upper semicontinuous in $x$, so that the supremum is attained, say by $x_{0} \in K$. It is easy to see that all functions $y_{0}$ for which the supremum is attained have to satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int \dot{y}_{0}^{2} d t=1 \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

(one uses the fact that for $c>0$ the set $\left\{t: y_{0}(t)<c \sqrt{t}\right\}$ is not empty). Generally if $0 \leqq t_{0}<t_{1} \leqq 1$ and $x \in K$ (only $x \in \Lambda^{2}$ is needed), then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{i_{0}}^{t_{1}} \dot{x}^{2} d t \geqq \frac{\left(x\left(t_{1}\right)-x\left(t_{0}\right)\right)^{2}}{t_{1}-t_{0}} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

where equality holds if $x$ is linear. This follows from Jensen's inequality (see [3]) and is known in point mechanics. The linear connection of $x\left(t_{0}\right)$ with $x\left(t_{1}\right)$ will be called the $\left(t_{0}, t_{1}\right)$-secant of $x$.

The set $\left\{t: x_{0}(t)>c \sqrt{t}\right\}$ is empty. Otherwise there would exist $t_{0}, t_{1}$ such that $0 \leqq t_{0}<t_{1} \leqq 1, x_{0}$ is not linear in $\left\langle t_{0}, t_{1}\right\rangle$ and the $\left(t_{0}, t_{1}\right)$-secant of $x_{0}$ would still be greater than $c \sqrt{t}$ in $\left\langle t_{0}, t_{1}\right\rangle$. Replacing $x_{0}$ by its $\left(t_{0}, t_{1}\right)$-secant in $\left\langle t_{0}, t_{1}\right\rangle$ we would get a $y_{0}$ contradicting (13).

The point 0 is not an accumulation point of $\left\{t: x_{0}(t)=c \sqrt{t}\right\}$. Otherwise there would be $1 \geqq t_{1}>t_{2}>\cdots$ such that for all $i$

$$
\sqrt{t_{i+1}}<\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{t_{i}}
$$

and

$$
x\left(t_{i}\right)=c \sqrt{t_{i}}
$$

But then using (14)

$$
1 \geqq \int_{0}^{t_{1}} \dot{x}_{0}^{2} d t \geqq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \int_{t_{i+1}}^{t_{i}} \dot{x}_{0}^{2} d t \geqq \sum_{i \geqq 1} \frac{c^{2}\left(\sqrt{t_{i}}-\sqrt{t_{i+1}}\right)^{2}}{t_{i}-t_{i+1}}>\sum_{i \geqq 1} \frac{c^{2}}{4}=\infty .
$$

Therefore the open set

$$
\left\{t: x_{0}(t)<c \sqrt{t}\right\}
$$

which as any open set is the disjoint union of open intervals, contains among its components an interval of the form $\left(0, s_{0}\right)$. By (13) and (14) $x_{0}$ is linear in $\left\langle 0, s_{0}\right\rangle$ and

$$
\int_{0}^{s o} \dot{x}_{0}^{2} d t=c^{2}
$$

(note that this value does not depend on $s_{0}$ ). If $\left\{t: x_{0}(t)<c \sqrt{t}\right\} \neq\left(0, s_{0}\right)$, there is another nonempty open interval $\left(s_{1}, s_{2}\right)$ such that $x_{0}(t)<c \sqrt{t}$ on $\left(s_{1}, s_{2}\right)$ and $x_{0}\left(s_{1}\right)=c \sqrt{s_{1}}, x_{0}\left(s_{2}\right)=c \sqrt{s_{2}}$. But then consider the function $y_{0}$ defined by

$$
y_{0}(t)=\left\{\begin{array}{lr}
\frac{t c}{\sqrt{s_{0}+s_{2}-s_{1}}} & \text { if } \quad 0 \leqq t \leqq s_{0}+s_{2}-s_{1} \\
c \sqrt{s_{0}+s_{2}-s_{1}}+x_{0}\left(t-s_{2}+s_{1}\right)-x_{0}\left(s_{0}\right) & \text { if } \quad s_{0}+s_{2}-s_{1} \leqq t \leqq s_{2} \\
c \sqrt{s_{0}+s_{2}-s_{1}}+x_{0}\left(s_{1}\right)-x_{0}\left(s_{0}\right)+x_{0}(t)-x_{0}\left(s_{2}\right) \quad \text { if } s_{2} \leqq t \leqq 1
\end{array}\right.
$$

We have

$$
\begin{gathered}
y_{0} \in \Lambda^{2} \\
m\left\{t: y_{0}(t) \geqq c \sqrt{t}\right\} \geqq m\left\{t: x_{0}(t) \geqq c \sqrt{t}\right\} \\
\int_{0}^{1} \dot{y}_{0}^{2} d t=c^{2}+\int_{s_{0}}^{s_{1}} \dot{x}_{0}^{2} d t+\int_{s_{2}}^{1} \dot{x}_{0}^{2} d t=1-\int_{s_{1}}^{s_{2}} \dot{x}_{0}^{2} d t<1
\end{gathered}
$$

contradicting (13). So $x_{0}$ is linear in $\left\langle 0, s_{0}\right\rangle$ and coincides with $c \sqrt{t}$ in $\left\langle s_{0}, 1\right\rangle$. $\int \dot{x}_{0}^{2} d t=1$ determines $s_{0}$ as $\exp \left\{-4\left(\left(1 / c^{2}\right)-1\right)\right\}$, which proves (ll).
(vi) Though $K \subseteq \Lambda^{2}$ and $\eta_{n} \in \Lambda^{2}$ for all $n \geqq 3$, the sequence $\left(\eta_{n}\right)_{n \geqq 3}$ with probability one has no limit points in $\Lambda^{2}$ with respect to the Hilbert space norm. In fact

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \int\left(\dot{\eta}_{n}\right)^{2} d t=\infty\right\}=1
$$

For any strictly increasing sequence of integers $a_{n} \geqq 0$ such that $a_{0}=0$ and

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_{n}}=1
$$

let $\tilde{\eta}_{n} \in C$ be obtained by linearly interpolating

$$
\left(2 a_{n} \log \log a_{n}\right)^{-1 / 2} S_{a_{t}}
$$

at $a_{i} / a_{n}$ for $0 \leqq i \leqq n$. It would be interesting to know for which sequences $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \geqq 0}$ with probability one the set of limit points of $\left(\tilde{\eta}_{n}\right)_{n \geqq 3}$ with respect to the Hilbert space norm in $\Lambda^{2}$ coincides with the unit sphere $K$ in $\Lambda^{2}$. In this connection see also Lamperti [8].

It would also be very interesting to find the strong form (in the sense of FelLER [5]) of our law of the iterated logarithm, at least for Brownian Motion.

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[^0]:    * This paper was prepared with the partial support of the Office of Naval Research, Contract Nonr-222-43. This paper in whole or in part may be reproduced for any purpose of the U.S. Government.

