

## AN EXTENSION OF THE ERDÖS-RÉNYI NEW LAW OF LARGE NUMBERS

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**ABSTRACT.** If  $S_n$  is the  $n$ th partial sum of a sequence of independent, identically distributed random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  such that  $E(X_1) = 0$  and  $E(\exp(tX_1)) < \infty$  for some nonempty interval of  $t$ 's, then, for a wide range of positive numbers  $\lambda$ , Erdős and Rényi (1970) showed that  $\Sigma(N, [C(\lambda)\log N])$  converges with probability one to  $\lambda$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , where  $\Sigma(N, K)$  is the maximum of the  $N - K + 1$  averages of the form  $K^{-1}(S_{n+K} - S_n)$  for  $0 \leq n \leq N - K$ , and  $C(\lambda)$  is a known constant depending on  $\lambda$  and the distribution of  $X_1$ . The objective of the present article is to state and prove the Erdős-Rényi theorem for the  $N - K + 1$  "averages" of the form  $K^{-1/r}(S_{n+K} - S_n)$ , where  $1 < r < 2$ . This form of the Erdős-Rényi theorem arises from the extended form of the strong law of large numbers which asserts that, if  $E(|X_1|^r) < \infty$  for some  $r$ ,  $1 \leq r < 2$ , and  $E(X_1) = 0$ , then  $n^{-1/r}S_n$  converges with probability one to 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**0. Introduction.** If  $\{X_n : 1 \leq n < \infty\}$  is a sequence of independent, identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables, with partial sums  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_k$ , then there are  $N - K + 1$  successive averages of the form  $K^{-1}(S_{n+K} - S_n)$ , one for each value of  $n$  between 0 and  $N - K$ , inclusive. We denote the largest of these averages by  $\Sigma(N, K)$ , i.e.

$$\Sigma(N, K) = \max \{K^{-1}(S_{n+K} - S_n) : 0 \leq n \leq N - K\}.$$

Then, by the Borel-Cantelli lemma,  $P\{\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma(N, 1) = \mu\} = 1$  if  $\mu \leq \infty$  is the essential supremum of  $X_1$ . If  $E(X_1) = 0$ , the strong law of large numbers asserts that  $P\{\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma(N, N) = 0\} = 1$ . What happens to  $\Sigma(N, K)$  for values of  $K$  between 1 and  $N$  was the subject of the 1970 article [4] by Erdős and Rényi. If  $X_1$  has moment-generating function  $\phi(t) = E(\exp(tX_1)) < \infty$  for a sufficiently large interval of  $t$ 's, then for every  $\lambda$  between 0 and  $\mu$  (exclusive

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of the endpoints), Erdős and Rényi showed that there exists a constant  $C(\lambda)$ , whose value can be determined, depending on  $\lambda$  and the distribution of  $X_1$ , such that

$$P \left\{ \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma(N, [C(\lambda) \log N]) = \lambda \right\} = 1.$$

Here  $[y]$  denotes the greatest integer  $\leq y$ . Erdős and Rényi called their result "a new law of large numbers" because of the fundamental relation it bears to the strong law of large numbers. The theorem in [2] extends the Erdős-Rényi result to the case of weighted sums of i.i.d. random variables.

It is the objective of the present article to extend the Erdős-Rényi theorem to averages of the form  $K^{-1/r}(S_{n+K} - S_n)$  for  $1 < r < 2$ . Toward this end, we define

$$\Sigma_r(N, K) = \max\{K^{-1/r}(S_{n+K} - S_n) : 0 \leq n \leq N - K\}.$$

Again  $P\{\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma_r(N, 1) = \mu\} = 1$  and, if  $E(X_1) = 0$  and  $E(|X_1|^r) < \infty$ , the strong law of large numbers asserts that  $P\{\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma_r(N, N) = 0\} = 1$ . The strong law of large numbers in the form  $P(n^{-1/r}S_n \rightarrow 0) = 1$  for  $1 < r < 2$  can be found in Loève's text [7, p. 243]. In the present article, we intend to show that, for every positive  $\lambda$ ,  $0 < \lambda < \infty$ .

$$P \left\{ \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma_r(N, [(2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{r/(2-r)}]) = \lambda \right\} = 1$$

as long as there exists some nondegenerate interval of  $t$ 's, containing the origin in its interior, for which  $\phi(t) = E(\exp(tX_1)) < \infty$ . Note that, in the present situation,  $\phi(t)$  is required to exist only in a nondegenerate interval, not necessarily a sufficiently large one, and that the constant  $2\lambda^{-2}$  depends only on  $\lambda$  and is independent of the distribution of  $X_1$ .

Erdős and Rényi based their proof on the large deviation theorem of Cramér [3], in the form due to Bahadur and Ranga Rao [1], which asserts that

$$P(S_n \geq \lambda n) \sim (2\pi n)^{-1/2} \rho^n b_n,$$

where  $\rho = \exp(-1/C(\lambda))$ ,  $\{b_n : 1 \leq n < \infty\}$  is a bounded sequence, and the symbol " $\sim$ " indicates that the ratio of the two sides tends to 1 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . To provide a point of departure for the theorem of the present article, we need a large deviation theorem also, one due to Petrov [8], which can be found in the most easily usable form in the monograph of Ibragimov and Linnik [6]. Petrov's theorem, which is a generalization of and has the same form as the original Cramér theorem, implies in our situation, for  $1 < r < 2$ , that

$$P(S_n \geq \lambda n^{1/r}) \sim (2\pi n^\alpha)^{-1/2} \lambda^{-1} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}\lambda^2 n^\alpha(1 + o(1))\}$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , where  $\alpha = (2 - r)/r$ . Note that if  $r = 1$ , then  $\alpha = 1$ , and the above statement is somewhat reminiscent of the Bahadur-Ranga Rao result.

Petrov's large deviation theorem and the corollary of it that we use are recorded in §1. §2 contains the extension of the Erdős-Rényi theorem. In §3, we briefly compare the main theorem of this article with the original Erdős-Rényi theorem, focusing on the relationship between  $C(\lambda)$  and  $2\lambda^{-2}$ .

1. Petrov's theorem and its corollary. We consider throughout the paper a sequence of nondegenerate i.i.d. random variables  $\{X_n : 1 \leq n < \infty\}$  such that  $E(X_1) = 0$ ,  $\text{Var}(X_1) = 1$ , and  $\phi(t) = E(\exp(tX_1)) < \infty$  for  $|t| < B$ , where  $0 < B \leq \infty$ .

For the theorem of the present article, we need no condition on the moment-generating function (m.g.f.)  $\phi$  beyond its existence in a nondegenerate interval containing the origin in its interior. Bahadur and Ranga Rao, and therefore Erdős and Rényi, had to require that the function  $Q(t) = \phi'(t)/\phi(t)$  take on the value  $\lambda$  at some point  $t = t_\lambda$ . (An analogous condition is required in the case of weighted sums that is studied in [2].) That assumption is vital in their situation, however, because  $C(\lambda)$  turns out to be the reciprocal of  $\lambda t_\lambda - \log \phi(t_\lambda)$ . Moreover, a sufficient condition for the existence of  $t_\lambda = Q^{-1}(\lambda)$  is that  $\phi(t) < \infty$  for all real  $t$  and  $P(X_1 > \lambda) > 0$ . Now, if  $P(X_1 > \lambda) = 0$ , particularly if  $\lambda > \mu$ , the essential supremum of  $X_1$ , then  $\Sigma(N, K) \leq \mu < \lambda$  for all  $N$  and  $K$  so that  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma(N, K) = \lambda$  is not possible. In our case, on the other hand,  $\Sigma_r(N, K) > \lambda$  is possible even if  $\lambda > \mu$ , so no such condition relating  $\phi$  and  $\lambda$  is necessary.

We consider a sequence of numbers  $\{z_n : 1 \leq n < \infty\}$  such that  $z_n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $n^{-1/2}z_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and we want to study the probability  $P(n^{-1/2}S_n \geq z_n)$ , where  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_k$ . We will be especially interested in the case  $z_n = \lambda n^{\alpha/2}$ , where  $\alpha = (2 - r)/r$  for  $1 < r < 2$ . In the case  $r = 2$ ,  $\alpha = 2$  and we know by the most elementary form of the central limit theorem that

$$P(n^{-1/2}S_n \geq \lambda) \rightarrow 1 - \Phi(\lambda) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_\lambda^\infty \exp(-u^2/2) du \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

For  $r < 2$ ,  $\alpha > 0$  so that  $P(n^{-1/2}S_n \geq \lambda n^{\alpha/2})$  tends to 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . The rate at which this probability tends to 0 when  $r = 1$  is the subject of Cramér [3] and Bahadur and Ranga Rao [1]. We now deal with the case  $1 < r < 2$ .

Under the conditions discussed above, we have the following large deviation theorem, which can be found in [6, p. 171]:

**Theorem 1.1 (Petrov).** *If  $\phi(t) < \infty$  for  $|t| < B$ , where  $0 < B \leq \infty$ , and  $z_n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $n^{-1/2}z_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then*

$P(n^{-1/2} S_n \geq z_n) = \{1 - \Phi(z_n)\} \exp\{n^{-1/2} z_n^3 \lambda(n^{-1/2} z_n)\} \{1 + O(n^{-1/2} z_n)\}$ ,  
 where

$$\Phi(z) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^z \exp(-t^2/2) dt$$

and  $\lambda(z)$  is the Cramér series.

In Petrov's theorem, the Cramér series  $\lambda(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda_k z^k$  is a power series whose coefficients depend on the moments and semi-invariants of  $X_1$  and which converges for all sufficiently small values of  $z$ , the radius of convergence depending on  $\phi$ . Further details about the series are available, for example, in Cramér's original article [3] and in Chapter 7 of Ibragimov and Linnik's book [6]. In addition, by a fact proved in Feller's text [5, p. 175],  $z_n \rightarrow \infty$  implies that

$$(*) \quad 1 - \Phi(z_n) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} z_n^{-1} \exp(-z_n^2/2) \{1 + o(1)\}$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Petrov's theorem then yields

**Corollary 1.2.** For  $1 < r < 2$  and  $\alpha = (2 - r)/r$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$P(S_n \geq \beta n^{1/r}) = (2\pi \beta^2 n^\alpha)^{-1/2} \cdot \exp\{-1/2 \beta^2 n^\alpha (1 - \beta n^{(a-1)/2} \lambda(\beta n^{(a-1)/2}))\} (1 + o(1)).$$

**Proof.** In Theorem 1.1 and (\*) above, we take  $z_n = \beta n^{(2-r)/2r} = \beta n^{\alpha/2}$ , where  $0 < \alpha < 1$ . Therefore  $z_n^{-1} = \beta^{-1} n^{-\alpha/2}$ ,  $z_n^2 = \beta^2 n^\alpha$ ,  $z_n^3 = \beta^3 n^{3\alpha/2}$ , and  $n^{-1/2} z_n = \beta n^{(\alpha-1)/2} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . We can therefore write that

$$P(S_n \geq \beta n^{1/r}) = P(n^{-1/2} S_n \geq \beta n^{\alpha/2}).$$

The result follows by inserting (\*) into the conclusion of Theorem 1.1 and then making the substitutions for  $z_n$ .

The following corollary expresses the large deviation result in the form needed for the proof of the main theorem:

**Corollary 1.3.** If  $\phi(t) < \infty$  for  $|t| < B$ , where  $0 < B \leq \infty$ , then for all  $\beta > 0$  and all sufficiently large  $n$ , there exist numbers  $\theta_n$  depending on  $\lambda$  and  $\phi$  such that  $\theta_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and

$$\begin{aligned} \exp\{-1/2 \beta^2 n^\alpha (1 + |\theta_n|)\} &\leq 2(2\pi \beta^2 n^\alpha)^{1/2} P(n^{-1/r} S_n \geq \beta) \\ &\leq 3 \exp\{-1/2 \beta^2 n^\alpha (1 - |\theta_n|)\}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $1 < r < 2$  and  $\alpha = (2 - r)/r$ .

**Proof.** We apply Corollary 1.2, noting that  $0 < \alpha < 1$  and that  $\lambda(z)$  converges for all sufficiently small  $z$ . We then set

$$\theta_n = \beta_n^{(\alpha-1)/2} \lambda(\beta_n^{(\alpha-1)/2}),$$

and we take  $n$  large enough so that  $0.5 < 1 + o(1) < 1.5$ .

2. **The law of large numbers.** This section contains the proof of the main theorem of this article, the extension of the Erdős-Rényi new law of large numbers. For  $1 < r < 2$  and  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_k$ , we define

$$\Sigma_r(N, K) = \max \{K^{-1/r}(S_{n+K} - S_n) : 0 \leq n \leq N - K\}.$$

We now state and prove the main theorem:

**Theorem 2.1.** *If  $\{X_n : 1 \leq n < \infty\}$  is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with  $E(X_1) = 0$ ,  $\text{Var}(X_1) = 1$ , and m.g.f.  $\phi(t) < \infty$  for  $|t| < B$ , where  $0 < B \leq \infty$ , and  $1 < r < 2$ , then, for every  $\lambda > 0$ ,*

$$P \left\{ \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma_r(N, [(2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha}]) = \lambda \right\} = 1,$$

where  $\alpha = (2 - r)/r$ .

**Proof.** We take  $K_N = [(2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha}]$ , and to simplify the notation, we set

$$\Sigma(r, \lambda, N) = \Sigma_r(N, K_N) \quad \text{and} \quad S_N(n, \lambda) = K_N^{-1/r}(S_{n+K_N} - S_n).$$

For  $\epsilon > 0$  arbitrary, we define  $\lambda'' = \lambda + \epsilon$ , and we obtain from Corollary 1.3 that

$$\begin{aligned} P(\Sigma(r, \lambda, N) \geq \lambda'') &= P\left(\max_{0 \leq n \leq N - K_N} S_N(n, \lambda) \geq \lambda''\right) \\ &\leq \sum_{n=0}^{N - K_N} P(S_N(n, \lambda) \geq \lambda'') \\ &\leq (N - K_N + 1)3(2\lambda'')^{-1}(2\pi K_N^\alpha)^{-1/2} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(\lambda'')^2 K_N^\alpha (1 - |\theta''_{K_N}|)\}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\theta''_n = \theta_n(\lambda'')$ . We can choose  $N''$  so large that, for  $N \geq N''$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2}(\lambda'')^2 K_N^\alpha (1 - |\theta''_{K_N}|) &= \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2(1 + \lambda^{-1}\epsilon)^2 \{K_N(K_N + 1)^{-1}\}^\alpha (K_N + 1)^\alpha (1 - |\theta''_{K_N}|) \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2(1 + \delta_1)2\lambda^{-2} \log N = (1 + \delta_1) \log N \end{aligned}$$

as  $K_N + 1 > (2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha}$ , where  $\delta_1 > 0$  is a constant depending only on  $\lambda$  and  $\epsilon$ . Increasing  $N''$ , if necessary, so that also  $\{K_N(K_N + 1)^{-1}\}^\alpha > \frac{1}{2}$  for  $N \geq N''$ , we have that

$$P(\Sigma(r, \lambda, N) \geq \lambda'') \leq 3N(2\lambda)^{-1}(4\pi\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{-1/2} \exp\{-(1 + \delta_1) \log N\} \\ \leq 3(\log N)^{-1/2} N^{-\delta_1} \leq 3N^{-\delta_1}.$$

For all large values of  $N$  such that  $[(2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha}] = j$ , we have  $j \leq (2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha} < j + 1$ , so that

$$\exp\{1/2 \lambda^2 j^\alpha\} \leq N < \exp\{1/2 \lambda^2 (j + 1)^\alpha\}.$$

We denote  $[\exp(1/2 \lambda^2 j^\alpha)]$  by  $E_j$ , and then we define  $N_j$  to be the largest integer such that  $[(2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha}] = j$ , so that  $N_j \geq E_j$ . It follows that, for  $j'' = [(2\lambda^{-2} \log N'')^{1/\alpha}]$ ,

$$\sum_{j=j''}^{\infty} P(\Sigma_r(N_j, j) \geq \lambda'') \leq \sum_{j=j''}^{\infty} 3N_j^{-\delta_1} \leq 3 \sum_{j=j''}^{\infty} E_j^{-\delta_1} < \infty,$$

since the series converges by the integral test. Therefore, by the Borel-Cantelli lemma, the probability is one that  $\Sigma_r(N_j, j) < \lambda''$  for all but finitely many values of  $j$ . But, for each  $N$ , such that  $N_{j-1} < N \leq N_j$ , we have  $\Sigma_r(N, j) \leq \Sigma_r(N_j, j)$  because  $N \leq N_j$ , so that  $\Sigma_r(N, j) \geq \lambda''$  implies  $\Sigma_r(N_j, j) \geq \lambda''$  as well. Therefore the probability is one that  $\Sigma_r(N, j) < \lambda''$  for all but finitely many values of  $j$ , where  $j = K_N = [(2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha}]$ . It follows that

$$P\left\{\limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma_r(N, [(2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha}]) < \lambda + \epsilon\right\} = 1,$$

and, since  $\epsilon > 0$  is arbitrary, we have

$$P\left\{\limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma_r(N, [(2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha}]) \leq \lambda\right\} = 1.$$

On the other hand, we take  $\epsilon > 0$  arbitrary and define  $\lambda' = \lambda - \epsilon$ . Then, using  $S_N[m, \lambda]$  to denote  $K_N^{-1/\alpha} (S_{(m+1)K_N} - S_{mK_N})$  for integer values of  $m$ , we have that

$$P\{\Sigma(r, \lambda, N) < \lambda'\} = P\left\{\max_{0 \leq n \leq N - K_N} S_N(n, \lambda) < \lambda'\right\} \\ \leq P\{S_N[m, \lambda] < \lambda' \text{ for } 0 \leq m \leq [NK_N^{-1}] - 1\}$$

since  $mK_N = n$  and  $0 \leq n \leq N - K_N$  imply that  $0 \leq mK_N \leq N - K_N$ , and  $(m + 1)K_N = N$  if and only if  $m = NK_N^{-1} - 1$ . By independence of the incre-

ments, we have

$$P\{\Sigma(r, \lambda, N) < \lambda'\} \leq \prod_{m=0}^{[NK_N^{-1}]-1} P\{S_N[m, \lambda] < \lambda'\} \leq \{P(K_N^{-1/r} S_{K_N} < \lambda')\}^{[NK_N^{-1}]}$$

From Corollary 1.3, we can write that

$$P\{K_N^{-1/r} S_{K_N} < \lambda'\} = 1 - P\{S_{K_N} \geq \lambda' K_N^{1/r}\} \\ \leq 1 - (2\lambda')^{-1} (2\pi K_N^\alpha)^{-1/2} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(\lambda')^2 K_N^\alpha (1 + |\theta'_{K_N}|)\},$$

where  $\theta'_n = \theta'_n(\lambda')$ . Now  $\lambda' = \lambda - \epsilon$  and  $K_N \leq (2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha}$  imply that

$$\frac{1}{2}(\lambda')^2 K_N^\alpha (1 + |\theta'_{K_N}|) \leq \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2 (1 - \epsilon\lambda^{-1})^2 (2\lambda^{-2} \log N) (1 + |\theta'_{K_N}|) \\ \leq (1 - \epsilon\lambda^{-1})(\log N)(1 + |\theta'_{K_N}|).$$

We can choose  $N'$  so large that  $(1 - \epsilon\lambda^{-1})(1 + |\theta'_{K_N}|) < 1 - 3\delta_2$ , where  $\delta_2 > 0$  is a constant depending only on  $\lambda$  and  $\epsilon$ . Therefore

$$P\{K_N^{-1/r} S_{K_N} < \lambda'\} \leq 1 - (2\lambda)^{-1} (2\pi 2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{-1/2} N^{-(1-3\delta_2)} \\ \leq 1 - (16\pi \log N)^{-1/2} N^{-(1-3\delta_2)} \\ \leq 1 - N^{-(1-2\delta_2)} \leq \exp\{-N^{-(1-2\delta_2)}\},$$

taking  $N'$  also large enough so that  $(16\pi \log N)^{-1/2} \geq N^{-\delta_2}$ . It follows that, for all  $N \geq N'$ ,

$$P\{\Sigma(r, \lambda, N) < \lambda'\} \leq \exp\{-[NK_N^{-1}] N^{-(1-2\delta_2)}\} \leq \exp\{-N^{\delta_2}\},$$

if we take  $N'$  large enough so that  $K_N \leq N^{\delta_2}$  and  $[NK_N^{-1}] \geq N^{1-\delta_2}$ . Then

$$\sum_{N=N'}^{\infty} P\{\Sigma(r, \lambda, N) < \lambda'\} \leq \sum_{N=N'}^{\infty} \exp\{-N^{\delta_2}\} < \infty$$

by the integral test. Therefore, the Borel-Cantelli lemma asserts that, with probability one, only finitely many  $\Sigma(r, \lambda, N)$  are less than  $\lambda'$ . Therefore

$$P\left\{\liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma(r, \lambda, N) \geq \lambda'\right\} = 1.$$

Since  $\lambda' = \lambda - \epsilon$ , where  $\epsilon > 0$  is arbitrary, this means that

$$P\left\{\liminf_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma_r(N, [(2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha}]) \geq \lambda\right\} = 1,$$

and the theorem follows.

3. Comparison with the Erdős-Rényi theorem. The Erdős-Rényi theorem makes the following assertion:

**Theorem 3.1 (Erdős-Rényi).** *If  $\{X_n : 1 \leq n < \infty\}$  is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with  $E(X_1) = 0$ ,  $\text{Var}(X_1) = 1$ , and m.g.f.  $\phi(t) < \infty$  for a  $|t| < B$ , where  $0 < B \leq \infty$ , then, for every  $\lambda$  in the range of  $Q(t) = \phi'(t)/\phi(t)$ ,*

$$P \left\{ \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma_1(N, [C(\lambda)\log N]) = \lambda \right\} = 1,$$

where  $C(\lambda) = \{\lambda Q^{-1}(\lambda) - \log \phi(Q^{-1}(\lambda))\}^{-1}$ .

We note that in going from Theorem 2.1 (which holds only for  $1 < r < 2$ ) to Theorem 3.1 (which holds only for  $r = 1$ ), the quantity  $2\lambda^{-2}$  suddenly jumps to  $C(\lambda)$ . Why does that instantaneous jump occur? We observe that, by L'Hôpital's Rule,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} 2\lambda^{-2}/C(\lambda) &= 2 \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} \lambda^{-2} \{\lambda Q^{-1}(\lambda) - \log \phi(Q^{-1}(\lambda))\} \\ &= \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} \lambda^{-1} Q^{-1}(\lambda) = (Q^{-1})'(0) = 1, \end{aligned}$$

as  $\text{Var}(X_1) = 1$ . This seems to say that as  $\lambda n$  gets closer to  $\lambda n^{1/r}$  (by the process of  $\lambda$  tending to 0),  $C(\lambda)$  gets closer to  $2\lambda^{-2}$ , which would be its actual value if  $\lambda n$  really were  $\lambda n^{1/r}$  for  $1 < r < 2$ .

In the special case of normally distributed  $X_1$ , it turns out that  $C(\lambda) = 2\lambda^{-2}$  for all values of  $\lambda$ , because  $Q(t) = t$  in that case. We have therefore that

$$P \left\{ \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma_r(N, [(2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha}]) = \lambda \right\} = 1$$

for  $1 \leq r < 2$  in the normal case, where  $\alpha = (2 - r)/r$ . In the general case, however, for  $r = 1$ , denoting the value of  $C(\lambda)$  in Theorem 3.1 by  $2\theta^{-2}$  so that  $\lambda$  is  $C^{-1}(2\theta^{-2})$ , we can write

$$P \left\{ \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma_1(N, [2\theta^{-2} \log N]) = C^{-1}(2\theta^{-2}) \right\} = 1,$$

where  $x = C^{-1}(2\theta^{-2})$  is the (unique) solution of the equation

$$xQ^{-1}(x) - \log \phi(Q^{-1}(x)) = \theta^2/2.$$

The solution exists if  $C^{-1}(2\theta^{-2})$  lies in the range of  $Q$ . Now, because  $C(\lambda)$  is a strictly decreasing function of  $\lambda$ , and  $C(\lambda) < 2\lambda^{-2}$  for  $\lambda > 0$ , it follows that  $C^{-1}(2\lambda^{-2}) > C^{-1}(C(\lambda)) = \lambda$ . Under the conditions of Theorem 2.1, we then have with probability one that



$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma_r(N, [(2\lambda^{-2} \log N)^{1/\alpha}]) = \lambda \quad \text{for } 1 < r < 2,$$

and

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Sigma_1(N, [2\lambda^{-2} \log N]) = C^{-1}(2\lambda^{-2}) \quad \text{for } r = 1,$$

where, in the case of normality,  $C^{-1}(2\lambda^{-2}) = \lambda$ .

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