

# Regular Variation of Arbitrary Order

Edward Omey

HUB

Brussels - Belgium

[www.edwardomey.com](http://www.edwardomey.com)

# Topics of research

- Regular variation and extensions in analysis and in probability theory
- Univariate and multivariate regular variation
- Univariate and multivariate subexponential distribution functions
- Renewal Theory and Weighted Renewal Theory
- Subordination (univariate and multivariate)
- 0 – 1 sequences
- etc

## Outline

Introduction

Regular variation of order  $1, 2, \dots, n$

Regularly varying rate vectors

Regular variation of order  $n$

Some applications

Further research

# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Regular Variation of order 1

*RV*: a positive and measurable function  $f(x)$  is regularly varying if, as  $t \rightarrow \infty$  we have

$$\frac{f(tx)}{f(t)} \rightarrow \lambda(x) < \infty, \forall x > 0.$$

Questions

Q1: What is  $\lambda(x)$ ?

Q2: For a given  $\lambda$ , characterize  $f$ .

Answers

Q1. To answer Q1 we proceed as follows: for  $x, y > 0$ , we write

$$\frac{f(txy)}{f(t)} = \frac{f(txy)}{f(ty)} \frac{f(ty)}{f(t)},$$

and we obtain that

$$\lambda(xy) = \lambda(x) \times \lambda(y).$$

Under minimal assumptions, we find  $\lambda(x) \equiv 0$ , or, for some real number  $\alpha$ ,

$$\lambda(x) = x^\alpha.$$

In this case we use the notation  $f \in RV(\alpha)$ .

Q2 To answer Q2, we need the following uniform convergence theorem:

**Theorem 1** *If  $f \in RV(\alpha)$ , then  $f(tx)/f(t) \rightarrow x^\alpha$  locally uniform in  $x > 0$ .*

As a Corollary, we obtain the following Representation Theorem

**Theorem 2** *(Representation Theorem) Suppose that  $f$  is a positive and measurable function. Then  $f \in RV(\alpha)$  if and only if  $f$  can be represented as*

$$f(x) = x^\alpha c(x) \exp\left(\int_a^x \varepsilon(t) \frac{1}{t} dt\right)$$

*where  $c(x)$  and  $\varepsilon(x)$  are measurable functions such that  $c(x) \rightarrow c > 0$  and  $\varepsilon(t) \rightarrow 0$ .*

## 1.2 Regular variation of order 2

Taking for simplicity  $\alpha = 0$ , we have

$$\frac{f(tx)}{f(t)} \rightarrow 1, \forall x > 0. \quad (1)$$

To analyse the speed of convergence in (1), we study second-order relations of the following type:

$$\frac{f(tx) - f(t)}{g_1(t)} \rightarrow h_1(x) < \infty, \forall x > 0. \quad (2)$$

Again some questions arise: characterize  $h_1$ , characterize  $g_1$ , characterize  $f$ .

### 1.2.1 To characterize $h_1$ and/or $g_1$ in (2)

We replace  $x$  by  $xy$ . On the one hand we have

$$\frac{f(txy) - f(t)}{g_1(t)} \rightarrow h_1(xy)$$

On the other hand, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{f(txy) - f(t)}{g_1(t)} \\ = & \frac{f(txy) - f(ty)}{g_1(ty)} \frac{g_1(ty)}{g_1(t)} + \frac{f(ty) - f(t)}{g_1(t)} \\ = & h_1(x)(1 + o(1)) \frac{g_1(ty)}{g_1(t)} + h_1(y) + o(1) \end{aligned}$$

It follows that we should have

$$h_1(xy) = h_1(x) \frac{g_1(ty)}{g_1(t)} + h_1(y) + o(1) \frac{g_1(ty)}{g_1(t)} + o(1)$$

Now assume that  $h_1(x) \neq 0$  for at least one value of  $x$ .

In this case we find that

$$\frac{g_1(ty)}{g_1(t)} \rightarrow \lambda_1(y) := \frac{h_1(xy) - h_1(y)}{h_1(x)}, \forall y > 0.$$

Under minimal assumptions on  $h_1$ , we find  $\lambda_1(y) = y^\beta$  and then also that  $g_1 \in RV(\beta)$ .

If so, it follows that

$$h_1(xy) - h_1(y) = y^\beta h_1(x).$$

We can easily solve this functional equation:

If  $\beta = 0$ , we find that

$$h_1(x) + h_1(y) = h_1(xy)$$

and hence  $h_1(x) = c_1 \log(x)$ .

If  $\beta \neq 0$ , by interchanging  $x$  and  $y$ , we have

$$h_1(xy) = h_1(y) + y^\beta h_1(x) = h_1(x) + x^\beta h_1(y)$$

and we obtain that  $h_1(x) = c_1(1 - x^\beta)$ .

Note that in both cases, we find that  $h_1$  is of the form

$$h_1(x) = c_1 \int_1^x u^{\beta-1} du$$

## 1.2.2 To characterize $f$

we consider 3 cases.

**Case  $\beta = 0$**  Here  $g_1 \in RV(0)$  and this case corresponds to the class  $\Pi(g_1)$  of De Haan. We have the following representation theorem.

**Theorem 3** *We have  $f \in \Pi(g_1)$  if and only if  $f$  is of the form*

$$f(x) = c + dg_1(x) + \int_a^x g_1(t) \frac{1}{t} dt.$$

**Case  $\beta > 0$  or  $\beta < 0$**  In this case, relation (2) brings nothing new since we have

$$\beta > 0 : f(x) \sim cg_1(x);$$

$$\beta < 0 : f(x) \rightarrow d \text{ and } f(x) - d \sim cg_1(x).$$

### 1.3 Regular variation of order 3

To study the rate of convergence in (2), we study third-order relations of the form

$$f(tx) - f(t) = h_1(x)g_1(t) + h_2(x)g_2(t) + o(1)g_2(t) \quad (3)$$

where the new function  $g_2$  is a measurable, ultimately of one sign and satisfies  $g_2(t) = o(1)g_1(t)$ .

Using vector notation, we set  $\vec{h}(x) = (h_1(x), h_2(x))$  and  $\vec{g}(t) = (g_1(t), g_2(t))^T$  to get that

$$f(tx) - f(t) = \vec{h}(x)\vec{g}(t) + o(1)g_2(t).$$

Again, we replace  $x$  by  $xy$ , and we obtain:

$$f(txy) - f(t) = \overrightarrow{h}(xy)\overrightarrow{g}(t) + o(1)g_2(t),$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} & f(txy) - f(t) \\ &= f(txy) - f(tx) + f(tx) - f(t) \\ &= \overrightarrow{h}(y)\overrightarrow{g}(tx) + \overrightarrow{h}(x)\overrightarrow{g}(t) \\ & \quad o(1)g_2(t). \end{aligned}$$

It follows that we should have

$$\begin{aligned} \overrightarrow{h}(y)\overrightarrow{g}(tx) &= (\overrightarrow{h}(xy) - \overrightarrow{h}(x))\overrightarrow{g}(t) \\ & \quad + o(1)g_2(tx) + o(1)g_2(t). \end{aligned}$$

Under suitable conditions on  $\overrightarrow{h}$ , this suggests a relation of the form

$$\overrightarrow{g}(tx) = A(x)\overrightarrow{g}(t) + o(1)g_2(t)$$

## 1.4 Regular variation of order $n$

In this report we study regular variation of arbitrary type.

We start from a vector

$$\vec{g}(t) = (g_1(t), g_2(t), \dots, g_n(t))^T$$

and assume for  $n \geq 1$  that

$$g_{i+1}(t) = o(1)g_i(t), 1 \leq i \leq n - 1.$$

We call  $f$  a **regularly varying function of order  $n$**  (Notation:  $f \in RV(\vec{h}, \vec{g})$ ) if it satisfies:

$$f(tx) = f(t) + \vec{h}(x)\vec{g}(t) + o(1)g_n(t), \quad (4)$$

where  $\vec{h}(x)$  is to be determined later.

For the functions  $\overrightarrow{g}$ , it turns out that under minimal conditions we have

$$\overrightarrow{g}(tx) = A(x)\overrightarrow{g}(t) + o(\mathbf{1})g_n(t), \quad \forall x > 0, \quad (5)$$

where  $A(x)$  is a matrix to be determined later.

Vectors satisfying a relation of the form (5) will be called **rate vectors**. A precise definition follows later.

In the next section we discuss some properties of rate vectors. Later we discuss regular variation of arbitrary order.

## 2 Rate vectors

### 2.1 Definition and first properties

We first precisely define the type of rate vectors that we are going to study.

**Definition 1** A vector  $\vec{g}(t) = (g_1(t), \dots, g_n(t))^T$  of measurable functions  $g_i$  is called a rate vector if

(i)  $g_i(t)$  is ultimately of constant sign and  $|g_i|$ ,  $1/|g_i|$  are bounded on finite intervals far enough to the right;

(ii) If  $n \geq 2$ ,  $g_{i+1}(t) = o(1)g_i(t)$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n - 1$ ;

(iii)  $\forall x > 0$  there is a matrix  $A(x) \in \mathfrak{R}^{n \times n}$  such that

$$\vec{g}(tx) = A(x)\vec{g}(t) + o(1)g_n(t) \quad (6)$$

In our first result we formulate some elementary properties of rate vectors.

**Proposition 4** *Assume that  $\vec{g}(t)$  is a rate vector. Then*

*(i) The matrix  $A(x)$  is upper triangular and uniquely defined;*

*(ii) If  $A_{k,k}(x) \neq 0$  for  $k \geq 2$ , then  $A_{i,i}(x) \neq 0$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k - 1$ .*

*(iii)  $A(x)$  is invertible if and only if  $A_{n,n}(x) \neq 0$ .*

*(iv)  $A(xy) = A(x)A(y)$*

As an example, take  $\vec{g}(t) = (t \log(t), t, 1)^t$ .

We have

$$g_1(tx) = tx \log(tx) = xg_1(t) + x \log(x)g_2(t)$$

$$g_2(tx) = tx = xg_2(t)$$

$$g_3(tx) = 1 = g_3(t)$$

It follows that  $\vec{g}(tx) = A(x)g(t)$  where

$$A(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x & x \log(x) & 0 \\ 0 & x & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

In general, since  $A(x)$  is upper triangular, for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , we have

$$g_i(tx)/g_i(t) \rightarrow A_{i,i}(x), \forall x > 0.$$

A relation of this type is well known in the theory of regular variation. We find that

$$A_{i,i}(x) = x^{\alpha(i)}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n, \quad (7)$$

Hence the matrix  $A(x)$  is invertible.

Note that  $g_{i+1}(t) = o(1)g_i(t)$  implies that

$$\alpha(1) \geq \alpha(2) \geq \dots \geq \alpha(n)$$

## 2.2 Regularly varying rate vectors

To formulate the next result, for  $x > 0$  and  $B \in \mathfrak{R}^{n \times n}$ , we put

$$\exp(B) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} B^k \text{ and } x^B = \exp(B \log(x)).$$

We already showed that  $A(xy) = A(x)A(y)$ . In the next proposition, we solve this functional equation.

**Proposition 5** *Suppose that (6) and (7) hold.*

(i) *Then  $A(x)$  is of the form  $A(x) = x^B$  for some upper triangular matrix  $B$ .*

(ii) *The diagonal elements of  $B$  are nonincreasing.*

**Definition 2** (*index matrix*) The matrix  $B$  is called an index matrix, i.e.  $B$  is a square upper triangular real matrix with nonincreasing diagonal elements.

**Definition 3** A rate vector  $\vec{g}$  of dimension  $n$  is regularly varying with index matrix  $B \in \mathfrak{R}^{n \times n}$  if for all  $x > 0$ ,  $\vec{g}$  satisfies  $\vec{g}(tx) = A(x)\vec{g}(t) + o(1)g_n(t)$ , where  $A(x) = x^B$ . Notation  $\vec{g} \in R_B$ .

## Examples

(1) For  $n = 1$ , consider

$$g(t) = \exp(-\exp(\lfloor \log(t) \rfloor)), t \geq 1.$$

Then  $g(tx)/g(t) \rightarrow 0$ , for all  $x \geq e$  and  $g(xt)/g(t)$  does not converge for  $0 < x < e$ .

Hence,  $g(t)$  is not a regularly varying rate function.

(2) Let  $n = 2$  and consider

$$\vec{g}(t) = ((\log(t))^\alpha, 1)^t, 0 < \alpha < 1$$

We have  $\vec{g}(tx) = A(x)\vec{g}(t) + o(1)$  where  $A(x) = I$ , the identity matrix. It follows that  $\vec{g} \in R_B$  where the index matrix is a  $2 \times 2$  zero matrix.

(3) For  $\vec{g}(t) = (t \log(t), t, 1)^t$

we have  $\vec{g}(tx) = A(x)g(t)$  where

$$A(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x & x \log(x) & 0 \\ 0 & x & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(4) For

$$\vec{g}(t) = (\log(t), (\log(t))^{1/2}, 1)^t$$

, we have  $\vec{g} \in R_B$  with

$$A(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \log(x) \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Remarks

a) Suppose that  $D$  is an invertible upper diagonal matrix, and let  $\tilde{g}(t) = D\vec{g}(t)$ , where  $\vec{g} \in R_B$ .

In this case, we have  $\tilde{g} \in R_{\tilde{B}}$ , where  $\tilde{B} = DBD^{-1}$ .

In some cases we can find  $D$  so that  $\tilde{B}$  is a diagonal matrix or a matrix in Jordan form.

b) It makes sense to study asymptotic expansions of the form

$$F(t) = \vec{a} \vec{g}(t) + o(1)g_n(t),$$

where  $\vec{g} \in R_B$ . In this case we have

$$F(xt) = \vec{a} x^B \vec{g}(t) + o(1)g_n(t)$$

## 2.3 The matrix $A(x)$

We found that  $A(x) = x^B$  where  $A(x)$  and  $B$  are upper diagonal matrices and where  $A_{i,i}(x) = x^{\alpha(i)}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

In this section we determine the **precise** form of the other entries of  $A(x)$ .

Recall that  $A(xy) = A(x)A(y)$  and that  $A(1) = I$ . We obtain that

$$\frac{A(xy) - A(x)}{y - 1} = \frac{A(y) - I}{y - 1}A(x)$$

Letting  $y \rightarrow 1$ , we obtain that

$$xA'(x) = BA(x)$$

This system of differential equations can be solved explicitly.

We find that

$$\begin{aligned} & (A_{i,i+1}(x), \dots, A_{i,n}(x)) \\ &= x^{\alpha(i)} \overrightarrow{c(i)} \int_1^x \tilde{A}_{i+1,n}(y) y^{-\alpha(i)-1} dy, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\overrightarrow{c(i)} = (B_{i,i+1}, \dots, B_{i,n})$  and  $\tilde{A}_{k,l} = (A_{i,j})_{i,j=k}^l$

Starting with  $A_{i,i}(x) = x^{\alpha(i)}$ , we can find recursively all entries of  $A(x)$ .

**Remark.**

Suppose that the matrix  $D$  is given by

$$D = \left( \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \vec{c} \\ \mathbf{0} & C \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

where  $C$  is a matrix.

In this case  $x^D$  is given by

$$x^D = \left( \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \vec{u}(x) \\ \mathbf{0} & x^C \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

where by the previous result,  $\vec{u}(x)$  is given by

$$\vec{u}(x) = \vec{c} \int_1^x y^C y^{-1} dy.$$

## 2.4 Representation theorem & Potter bounds

In our next result we show that in (6), the convergence holds locally uniformly in  $x > 0$ .

**Theorem 6** (*Uniform convergence theorem*) *If  $\vec{g} \in R_B$ , then  $\vec{g}(tx) = x^B g(t) + o(1)g_n(t)$  holds locally uniformly in  $x > 0$ .*

This result leads to a representation theorem for  $\vec{g} \in R_B$ .

**Theorem 7** (*Representation Theorem*) *We have  $\vec{g} \in R_B$  if and only if there exist  $a > 0$ ,  $\vec{v} \in \mathfrak{R}^n$  and measurable functions  $\vec{\eta}, \vec{\phi} : [t_0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^{n \times 1}$  such that  $|\eta_i(t)| + |\phi_i(t)| = o(1)|g_n(t)|$  and such that*

$$\vec{g}(t) = t^B \vec{v} + \vec{\eta}(t) + t^B \int_a^t u^{-B} \vec{\phi}(u) \frac{1}{u} du, \text{ for } t \geq a. \quad (8)$$

Remark

Given  $B$  and  $g_n(t)$ , we can use the previous representation to construct examples  $\vec{g} \in R_B$ .

Now we provide a Potter type of upperbound for

$$\vec{g}(tx) - x^B \vec{g}(t)$$

Recall that for any square matrix  $C$  we have

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \|C^m\|^{1/m} = \max \{|\lambda|, \lambda \text{ is an eigenvalue of } C\}.$$

Now take  $C = \exp(B)$  and observe that

$$0 < e^{\alpha(n)} \leq e^{\alpha(n-1)} \leq \dots \leq e^{\alpha(1)}$$

We find that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \|\exp(mB)\|^{1/m} = \exp(\alpha(1))$$

Taking  $C = \exp(-B)$ , we find that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \|\exp(-mB)\|^{1/m} = \exp(-\alpha(n))$$

**Theorem 8** (*Potter's Theorem for  $R_B$* ). Let  $g \in R_B$ . For all  $\delta > 0$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $t_0 > 0$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} & \left\| \vec{g}(tx) - x^B \vec{g}(t) \right\| \\ & \leq \delta x^{\alpha(1)+\epsilon} |g_n(t)|, \quad \forall x \geq 1, t \geq t_0, \\ & \leq \delta x^{\alpha(n)-\epsilon} |g_n(t)|, \quad \forall t \geq t_0, t_0 \leq x \leq 1. \end{aligned}$$

These bounds can be used (will be used) to obtain new results in the context of integral transforms and Abelian theorems for regularly varying rate vectors.

### 3 GRV of order $n$

Let  $\vec{g} \in R_B$ . Then  $f$  is regularly varying of order  $n$  if we have

$$f(tx) = f(t) + \vec{h}(x)\vec{g}(t) + o(1)g_n(t), \forall x > 0.$$

Now we find that  $\vec{h}(x)$  is given by

$$\vec{h}(x) = \vec{c} \int_1^x A(u)u^{-1}du$$

We use the notation  $f \in GRV(\vec{g})$ , with  $g$ -index  $\vec{c}$ .

#### Remark

Taking derivatives w.r.t.  $x$ , we formally obtain that

$$tDf(tx) = D\vec{h}(x)\vec{g}(t) + o(1)g_n(t).$$

Taking  $x = 1$ , we find a relation of the form

$$tu(t) = \vec{a}\vec{g}(t) + o(1)g_n(t).$$

We can again formulate a representation theorem and Potters' bounds.

**Theorem 9** *Let  $\vec{g} \in R_B$ . We have  $f \in GRV(\vec{g})$  with  $g$ -index  $\vec{c}$  if and only if there exists a constants  $a > 0, v \in \mathfrak{R}$ , and functions  $\eta, \phi$  such that*

$$|\eta(t)| + |\phi(t)| = o(1) |g_n(t)|$$

*and such that*

$$f(t) = v + \eta(t) + \int_a^t \{ \vec{c} \vec{g}(u) + \phi(u) \} u^{-1} du, t \geq a.$$

**Theorem 10 (Potter)** *Let  $\vec{g} \in R_B$  and  $f \in GRV(\vec{g})$ . Then for all  $\delta > 0$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $t_0 > 0$  such that*

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| f(tx) - f(t) - \vec{h}(x) \vec{g}(t) \right| \\ & \leq \delta x^{\max(\alpha(1)+\varepsilon, 0)} |g_n(t)|, \text{ for all } x \geq 1, t \geq t_0, \\ & \leq \delta x^{\min(\alpha(n)-\varepsilon, 0)} |g_n(t)|, \text{ for all } t \geq t_0, t_0 \leq x \leq 1. \end{aligned}$$

These bounds can be used to study integral transforms of regularly varying functions of order  $n$ .

### 3.1 Examples

- The function  $f(x) = \log \lfloor x \rfloor$  is in the class  $\Pi$ , but is not  $RV$  of any higher order.
- The function  $f(x) = \log(x)$  satisfies  $f(tx) - f(t) = \log(x)$

- The function  $f(x) = \log(\log(x))$  satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} & f(tx) - f(t) \\ &= \sum_0^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n+1} \times \frac{(\log(x))^{n+1}}{(\log(t))^{n+1}} \end{aligned}$$

and  $f \in GRV$  with  $g_i(t) = (\log(t))^{-i-1}$ .

- $f(x) = \log \Gamma(x)$  is in the class  $GRV(\vec{g})$  with

$$\begin{aligned} g_1(x) &= x \log(x) \\ g_2(x) &= x \\ g_3(x) &= 1 \\ g_{3+m}(x) &= x^{1-2m}, \quad m \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

- The tail of many distribution functions can be expanded as a series

$$f(x) = \sum_0^{\infty} a(k)x^{-k\alpha}$$

where  $\alpha > 0$ . For  $x > 0$  we have

$$f(xt) - f(t) = \sum_{k=1}^n a(k)(x^{-k\alpha} - 1)t^{-k\alpha} + o(1)t^{-n\alpha}.$$

We find

$$\vec{g}(t) = (t^{-\alpha}, t^{-2\alpha}, \dots, t^{-n\alpha})^t$$

and

$$B = \text{diag}(-\alpha, -2\alpha, \dots, -n\alpha)$$

## 4 Special cases

We can consider several special cases

### 4.1 All indices $\alpha(i)$ different from zero

In this case  $B$  is invertible and we obtain a very simple representation for  $f$ :

$$f(x) = c + dB^{-1}\vec{g}(x) + o(1)g_n(x).$$

## 4.2 All indices $\alpha(i)$ different

In this case, we find that  $f$  has the following representation:

$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_i \int_a^x u^{\alpha(i)-1} du + \int_a^x (a_n + o(1))g_n(u)u^{-1}du + o(1)g_n(x).$$

Another special case is the class  $\Pi$  of order  $n$ .

## 5 The class $\Pi$ of order $n$

### 5.1 Definition

If  $\vec{g} \in R_B$  and all diagonal elements of  $B$  are 0, we write  $\vec{g} \in \Pi_B$  and  $f \in \Pi(\vec{g})$ .

If  $n = 1$ , this is the class of de Haan (1970)

If  $n = 2$ , this class has been studied by Omey and Willekens (1988).

In the next result we show an alternative representation for functions in the class  $\Pi(\vec{g})$ . Let  $C(t)$  be defined as follows:

$$C(t) = f(t) - \frac{1}{t} \int_a^t f(u) du.$$

This relation can be inverted, and we find

$$f(x) = C(x) + \int_a^x C(u) u^{-1} du.$$

**Theorem 11** Let  $\vec{g} \in \Pi$ . Then  $f \in \Pi(\vec{g})$  with  $g$ -index  $\vec{c}$  if and only if

$$C(t) = \vec{d} \vec{g}(t) + o(1)g_n(t),$$

where  $\vec{d} = \vec{c}(I + B)^{-1}$ . Moreover,  $C \in \Pi(g_2, \dots, g_n)$  of a lower order.

This theorem gives us a way to construct examples in the class  $\Pi$ .

We define  $C_0, C_1, \dots, C_n$  as follows: take  $g_n \in RV(0)$  and set

$$\begin{aligned} C_n(x) &= g_n(x) + \int_a^x g_n(u)u^{-1}du \\ C_{i-1}(x) &= C_i(x) + \int_a^x C_i(u)u^{-1}du. \end{aligned}$$

In this case, each  $C_i$  is in the class  $\Pi((C_{i+1}, \dots, C_n)^t)$ .

## 5.2 Another construction

Another useful way to construct 'nice' functions in the class  $\Pi$  is as follows.

Let  $D$  denote the differential operator. We define functions  $L_0, L_1, \dots, L_n$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}L_0(x) &= f(x) \\L_{i+1}(x) &= xDL_i(x), \quad i = 0, \dots, n-1.\end{aligned}$$

We have the following result

**Theorem 12** *Suppose that  $L_n$  is eventually of constant sign and  $|L_n| \in RV(0)$ . Then we have*

$$f(tx) - f(t) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(\log(x))^k}{k!} L_k(t) + o(1)L_n(t)$$

and  $f \in \Pi(\vec{L})$  with  $L$ -index  $\vec{c} = (1, 0, \dots, 0)$ .

## 5.3 Inverse of $\Gamma$ -varying functions

Recall that a function  $A(x)$  is in the gamma class  $\Gamma(a)$  if we have

$$\frac{A(x + ya(x))}{A(x)} \rightarrow \exp(y), \forall y \in \mathfrak{R}.$$

In many cases we can choose  $a(x)$  as

$$q(x) \equiv q_1(x) = \frac{A(x)}{DA(x)}.$$

If  $A(x)$  is an increasing function, we denote by  $f(x)$  the inverse function of  $A(x)$ .

It is well known that  $A \in \Gamma(a)$  holds if and only if  $f \in \Pi$ .

In the next result we provide assumptions on  $q_1(x)$  such that  $f$  is in the class  $\Pi$  of order  $n$ .

**Theorem 13** *Suppose  $A(x) > 0$  and increasing with inverse function  $f(x)$ . Let  $q_1(x) = A(x)/DA(x)$  and  $q_i(x) = q(x)Dq_{i-1}(x)$ ,  $i \geq 2$ . Assume that  $Dq(x) = o(1)$  and that  $|D^{n-1}q| \in RV(\alpha - n + 1)$  for some  $\alpha \leq 1$  where  $\alpha$  is not of the form  $(m - 1)/m$ . Then  $f \in \Pi$  of order  $n$ .*

# 6 Applications

## 6.1 Some Quantile functions

In many situations one is interested in quantile functions.

As an example, we take the normal distribution, and more generally, we consider a generalized complementary error function: for  $b \in \mathfrak{R}$  and  $p > 0$ ,  $p \neq 1$ , define  $B(x)$  as

$$B(x) = \int_x^\infty y^{b+p-1} \exp(-y^p/p) dy.$$

For  $p = 2$  and  $b = -1$  this corresponds to the tail of a normal distribution. Let  $f(t)$  be defined by the equation

$$B(f(t)) = \frac{1}{t}.$$

Then  $f(t)$  corresponds to the quantile function. It is not hard to see that  $f(t) \sim (p \log(t))^{1/p} \in \Pi$ .

Using the result of the previous section, one can prove that  $f \in \Pi$  of any order  $n$ .

More precisely, we have

$$\begin{aligned} q(t) &\sim t^{1-p} \\ D^n q(t) &\sim C(p, n)t^{1-p-n}. \end{aligned}$$

Related to the gamma distribution, we define  $B(x)$  and  $f(x)$  as

$$B(x) = \int_x^{\infty} y^b \exp(-y) dy$$

and

$$B(f(t)) = \frac{1}{t}.$$

The result of the previous section can again be used to show that  $f \in \Pi$  of any order  $n$

## 6.2 Edgeworth expansions in Extreme Value Theory

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  denote i.i.d. r.v. with d.f.  $F(x)$  and let

$$M_n = \max(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$

denote the sequence of partial maxima.

Now suppose that there are constants  $a(n) > 0$  and  $b(n) \in \mathfrak{R}$  such that

$$\frac{M_n - b(n)}{a(n)} \xrightarrow{d} Y.$$

It is well known that the d.f. of  $Y$  is of the following type  $P(Y(\gamma) \leq x) = G_\gamma(x)$ , where

$$G_\gamma(x) = \exp(-(1 + \gamma x)^{-1/\gamma}), \quad \gamma \in \mathfrak{R}, \quad 1 + \gamma x \geq 0.$$

Moreover we have

$$P\left(\frac{M_n - b(n)}{a(n)} \leq x\right) \rightarrow P(Y(\gamma) \leq x)$$

if and only if there exists a function  $a(x)$  such that

$$\frac{V(tx) - V(t)}{a(t)} \rightarrow \frac{x^\gamma - 1}{\gamma},$$

where

$$V(x) = \sup \left\{ s : \frac{1}{-\log(F(s))} \leq x \right\}.$$

Several authors considered rates of convergence and discussed the difference

$$P\left(\frac{M_n - b(n)}{a(n)} \leq xt\right) - P(Y(\gamma) \leq x)$$

To this end, the basic starting assumption is that  $V$  is regularly varying of order 2, this is

$$V(tx) - V(t) = h_1(x)g_1(t) + h_2(x)g_2(t) + o(1)g_2(t).$$

where  $(g_1(t), g_2(t))^t \in R_B$ .

Some other authors use a Von Mises type of condition:

$$tDV(xt) = Dh_1(x)g_1(t) + Dh_2(x)g_2(t) + o(1)g_2(t)$$

Using one of these assumptions, the second order condition implies that

$$\frac{1}{A(n)} \left( P\left(\frac{M_n - b(n)}{a(n)} \leq xt\right) - P(Y(\gamma) \leq x) \right) \\ \rightarrow K(x)$$

locally uniformly in  $x$ .

Moreover, de Haan and Ferreira (2006) showed that the second order condition is best possible.

In Wang and Cheng (2006), the authors use regular variation of order 3 to obtain estimates for the difference

$$\frac{1}{A(n)} \left( P\left(\frac{M_n - b(n)}{a(n)} \leq xt\right) - P(Y(\gamma) \leq x) \right) - K(x)$$

Using our results, the proofs of Wang and Cheng (2006) can be simplified considerably.

Other references here are

\* Lin, Peng and Nadarajah, Bull. Korean Math. Soc. 45 (2008), N<sup>o</sup> 1, 75-93.

\* de Haan and Resnick, Ann.Prob. 24 (1996), 97 - 124.

\* de Haan and Ferreira, Extreme value Theory, an introduction, Springer 2006.

\* Wang and Cheng, Acta Mathematica Sinica, English Series, Vol. 22 (1), 2006, 27 - 40.

## 6.3 The difference between the product and convolution product

Suppose that  $F$  is a distribution function on  $\mathfrak{R}^+$ . We say that  $F$  is subexponential (notation  $F \in S$ ) if  $F$  satisfies

$$\frac{1 - F^{*2}(x)}{1 - F(x)} \rightarrow 2.$$

Looking at the rate of convergence here, we arrive at

$$\begin{aligned} R(x) &= 1 - F^{*2}(x) - 2(1 - F(x)) \\ &= F^2(x) - F^{*2}(x) - (1 - F(x))^2 \end{aligned}$$

and we are interested in the first term.

More generally, we study the following difference:

$$R(x) = F(x)G(x) - F * G(x)$$

where  $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$  and  $G(x) = P(Y \leq x)$ .

It is easy to show that  $R(x) = I + II + III$ , where

$$I(x) = \int_0^{x/2} (F(x) - F(x - y))dG(y);$$

$$II(x) = \int_0^{x/2} (G(x) - G(x - y))dF(y);$$

$$III(x) = (G(x) - G(x/2))(F(x) - F(x/2)).$$

In Omey (long ago) we used the following class of functions.:

$$D(m, \alpha) = \{g : (g(x + y) - g(x))/m(x) \rightarrow \alpha y\} .$$

This is the class  $\Pi$  written under additive form...

Under suitable conditions, we find that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{I(x)}{m_F(x)} &= \int_0^{x/2} \frac{F(x) - F(x-y)}{m_F(x)} dG(y) \\ &\rightarrow \int_0^\infty \alpha_F y dG(y) \\ &= \alpha_F E(Y),\end{aligned}$$

and similarly,

$$\begin{aligned}II(x)/m_G(x) &\rightarrow \alpha_G E(X), \\ \text{and } III(x) &= o(1)m_F(x)\end{aligned}$$

We want to improve this result and introduce the class  $D(m, n, \alpha, \beta)$ :  $g$  satisfies

$$\frac{g(x+y) - g(x) - \alpha m(x)}{n(x)} \rightarrow \beta y^2$$

This is  $\Pi$  of higher order written in additive form:

In our problem, we rewrite  $I(x)$  as follows

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{I(x) - \alpha_F m_F(x) E(Y)}{n_F(x)} \\ = & \int_0^{x/2} \frac{F(x) - F(x-y) - \alpha_F m_F(x)y}{n_F(x)} dG(y) \\ & - \alpha_F \frac{m_F(x)}{n_F(x)} \int_{x/2}^{\infty} y dG(y) \end{aligned}$$

and under suitable conditions, we get that

$$\frac{I(x) - \alpha_F m_F(x) E(Y)}{n_F(x)} \rightarrow \beta_F E(Y^2)$$

and similarly for  $II(x)$ .

## 7 The future

- Other special cases?? (for example: part of the  $\alpha(i)$  are 0 and the others are  $\neq 0$ )
- the class  $\Gamma$  of order  $n$  (under construction)
- Abelian - Tauberian - Mercerian theorems for rate vectors and for  $GRV$  of order  $n$
- If a distribution function  $F$  is in the class  $F \in GRV(\vec{g}, \vec{c})$ , how to estimate the indices  $\alpha(i)$  and the other entries of  $B$ ?
- ???

## **8 The end**

**8.1 Tyou Hank**

**8.2 Hyou K'ant**

**8.3 Thank you**

**8.4 Questions?**