

MULTIVARIATE SUBEXPONENTIAL DISTRIBUTIONS AND THEIR APPLICATIONS

GENNADY SAMORODNITSKY AND JULIAN SUN

ABSTRACT. We propose a new definition of a multivariate subexponential distribution. We compare this definition with the two existing notions of multivariate subexponentiality, and compute the asymptotic behaviour of the ruin probability in the context of an insurance portfolio, when multivariate subexponentiality holds. Previously such results were available only in the case of multivariate regularly varying claims.

1. INTRODUCTION

Subexponential distributions are commonly viewed as the most general class of heavy tailed distributions. The notion of subexponentiality was introduced by Chistyakov (1964) for distributions supported by $[0, \infty)$; if F is such a distribution, and X_1, X_2 are i.i.d. random variables with the law F , then F is subexponential if

$$(1.1) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{P(X_1 + X_2 > x)}{P(X_1 > x)} = 2.$$

The notion of subexponentiality was later extended to distributions supported by the entire real line (and not only by the positive half-line); see e.g. Willekens (1986). The best known subclass of subexponential distributions is that of regularly varying distributions, but the membership in the class of subexponential distributions does not require power-like tails; we review the basic information on one-dimensional subexponential distributions in Section 2.

The definition (1.1) of subexponential distributions means that the sum of two i.i.d. random variables with a subexponential distribution is large only when one of these random variables is large. The same turns out to be true for the sum of an arbitrary finite number of terms and, in many cases, for the sum of a random number of terms. Theoretically, this leads to the “single large jump” structure of large deviations for random walks with subexponentially distributed steps; see e.g. Foss et al. (2007). In practice, this has turned out to be particularly important in applications to ruin probabilities. In ruin theory the situation where the claim sizes (often assumed to be independent with identical distribution) have a subexponential distribution is usually referred to as the non-Cramér case. The “single large jump” property of subexponential distributions leads to a well known form of the asymptotic behaviour of the ruin probability, and to a particular structure of the surplus path leading to the ruin; see e.g. Embrechts et al. (1997) and Asmussen (2000).

It is desirable to have a notion of a multivariate subexponential distribution. The task is of a clear theoretical interest, and it is of an obvious interest in applications. A typical insurance company, for instance, has multiple insurance portfolios, with dependent claims, so it would be useful if one could build a model in which claims could be said to have a multivariate subexponential distribution.

1991 *Mathematics Subject Classification*. Primary 60E05, 91B30. Secondary 60G70.

Key words and phrases. heavy tails, subexponential distribution, regular variation, multivariate, insurance portfolio, ruin probability .

This research was partially supported by the ARO grant W911NF-12-10385 at Cornell University.

Recall that there exists a well developed notion of a multivariate distribution with regularly varying tails; see e.g. Resnick (2007). In comparison, a notion of a multivariate subexponential distribution has not been developed to nearly the same extent. To the best of our knowledge, a notion of multivariate subexponentiality has been introduced twice, in Cline and Resnick (1992) and in Omey (2006). Both of these papers define a class (or classes) of multivariate distributions that extend the one-dimensional notion of a subexponential distribution in a natural way. They show that their notions of multivariate subexponentiality possess multidimensional analogs of important properties of one-dimensional subexponential distributions. Nonetheless, these notions have not become as widely used as that of, say, a multivariate distribution with regularly varying tails. In this paper we introduce yet another notion of multivariate subexponential distribution. As the reader will observe, this notion is created with ruin probability applications in mind. We hope, therefore, that this notion will turn out to be useful in that area. However, we also hope that the notion we introduce will be found useful in other areas as well.

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we review the basic properties of one-dimensional subexponential distributions, in order to have a benchmark for the properties we would like a multivariate subexponential distribution to have. In Section 3 we discuss the definitions of multivariate subexponentiality of Cline and Resnick (1992) and in Omey (2006). Our notion of multivariate subexponential distributions is introduced in Section 4. Some applications of that notion to multivariate ruin problems are discussed in Section 5.

2. A REVIEW OF ONE-DIMENSIONAL SUBEXPONENTIALITY

In this section we review the basic properties of one-dimensional subexponential distributions. We denote the class of such distributions (and random variables with such distributions) by \mathcal{S} . Unless stated explicitly, we do not assume anymore that a random variable with a subexponential distribution F is nonnegative; such a random variable (or its distribution) is called subexponential if the nonnegative random variable $X_+ = \max(X, 0)$ is subexponential. Most of the not otherwise attributed facts stated below can be found in Embrechts et al. (1979). We use the standard notation $\bar{F} = 1 - F$ for the tail of a distribution F .

If a distribution $F \in \mathcal{S}$, then F is *long-tailed*: for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$(2.1) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\bar{F}(x+y)}{\bar{F}(x)} = 1$$

(implicitly assuming that $\bar{F}(x) > 0$ for all x .) The class of all long-tailed distributions is denoted by \mathcal{L} . Note that \mathcal{S} is a proper subset of \mathcal{L} ; see e.g. Embrechts and Goldie (1980). Furthermore, the class \mathcal{L} of long-tailed distributions is closed under convolutions, while the class \mathcal{S} of subexponential distributions is not, see Leslie (1989).

A distribution F has a regularly varying right tail if there is $\alpha \geq 0$ such that for every $b > 0$

$$(2.2) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\bar{F}(bx)}{\bar{F}(x)} = b^{-\alpha},$$

and the parameter α is the exponent of regular variation. The class of distributions with a regularly varying right tail is denoted by \mathcal{R} (or $\mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ if we wish to emphasize the exponent of regular variation.) Then $\mathcal{R} \subset \mathcal{S}$. If one views \mathcal{R} as the class of distributions with “power-like” right tails, all distributions with “power-like” right tails are subexponential. This statement, however, should be treated carefully; other classes of distributions can be referred to as having “power-like” right tails, and not all of them form subclasses of \mathcal{S} . Indeed, consider the class \mathcal{D} of distributions with

dominated varying tails, defined by the property

$$(2.3) \quad \liminf_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\bar{F}(2x)}{\bar{F}(x)} > 0.$$

One could view a distribution $F \in \mathcal{D}$ as having a “power-like” right tail. However, $\mathcal{D} \not\subset \mathcal{S}$. We note, on the other hand, that it is still true that $\mathcal{D} \cap \mathcal{L} \subset \mathcal{S}$; see Goldie (1978).

Many distributions that do not have “power-like” right tails are subexponential as well. Examples include the log-normal distribution, as well as the Weibull distribution with the shape parameter smaller than 1; see e.g. Pitman (1980).

Let X_1, X_2, \dots be i.i.d. random variables with a subexponential distribution. The defining property (1.1) extends, automatically, to any finite number of terms, i.e.

$$(2.4) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{P(X_1 + \dots + X_n > x)}{P(X_1 > x)} = n \quad \text{for any } n \geq 1.$$

Moreover, the number of terms can also be random. Let N be a random variable independent of the i.i.d. sequence X_1, X_2, \dots and taking values in the set of nonnegative integers. If

$$(2.5) \quad E\tau^N < \infty \quad \text{for some } \tau > 1,$$

then

$$(2.6) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{P(X_1 + \dots + X_N > x)}{P(X_1 > x)} = EN.$$

The classical one-dimensional (Cramér-Lundberg) ruin problem can be described as follows. Suppose that an insurance company has an initial capital $u > 0$. The company receives a stream of premium income at a constant rate $c > 0$ per unit of time. The company has to pay claims that arrive according to a rate λ Poisson process. The claim sizes are assumed to be i.i.d. with a finite mean μ and independent of the arrival process. If $U(t)$ is the capital of the company at time $t \geq 0$, then the ruin probability is defined as the probability the company runs out of money at some point. This probability is, clearly, a function of the initial capital u , and it is often denoted by

$$\psi(u) = P(U(t) < 0 \text{ for some } t \geq 0).$$

The *positive safety loading*, or the *net profit condition*,

$$\rho := \frac{c}{\lambda\mu} - 1 > 0$$

says that, on average, the company receives more in premium income than it spends in claim payments. If the net profit condition fails, then an eventual ruin is certain. If the net profit condition holds, then the ruin probability is a number in $(0, 1)$, and its behaviour for large values of the initial capital u strongly depends on the properties of the distribution F of the claim sizes. Let

$$F_I(x) = \frac{1}{\mu} \int_0^x \bar{F}(y) dy, \quad x \geq 0$$

be the integrated tail distribution. If $F_I \in \mathcal{S}$, then

$$(2.7) \quad \psi(u) \sim \rho^{-1} F_I(u) \quad \text{as } u \rightarrow \infty;$$

see Theorem 1.3.6 in Embrechts et al. (1997).

3. EXISTING DEFINITIONS OF MULTIVARIATE SUBEXPONENTIALITY

The first known to us definition of multivariate subexponential distributions was introduced by Cline and Resnick (1992). They consider distributions supported by the entire d -dimensional space \mathbb{R}^d (and not only by the nonnegative orthant). That paper defines both multivariate subexponential distributions, and multivariate *exponential distributions*. In our discussion here we only consider the subexponential case. The definition is tied to a function $\mathbf{b}(t) = (b_1(t), \dots, b_d(t))$ such that $b_i(t) \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ for $i = 1, \dots, d$.

One starts with defining the class of long-tailed distributions, i.e. a multivariate analog of the class \mathcal{L} in (2.1). Let $E = [-\infty, \infty]^d \setminus \{-\infty\}$, and let ν be a finite measure on E concentrated on the purely infinite points, i.e. on $\{-\infty, \infty\}^d \setminus \{-\infty\}$, and such that $\nu(\mathbf{x} \in E : x_i = \infty) > 0$ for each $i = 1, \dots, d$. Then a probability distribution F is said to belong to the class $\mathcal{L}(\nu; \mathbf{b})$ if, as $t \rightarrow \infty$,

$$(3.1) \quad tF(\mathbf{b}(t) + \cdot) \xrightarrow{v} \nu$$

vaguely in E (see Resnick (1987) for a thorough treatment of vague convergence of measures.) The class of subexponential distributions (with respect to the same function \mathbf{b} and the same measure ν) is defined to be that subset $\mathcal{S}(\nu; \mathbf{b})$ of distributions F in $\mathcal{L}(\nu; \mathbf{b})$ for which

$$tF * F(\mathbf{b}(t) + \cdot) \xrightarrow{v} 2\nu$$

vaguely in E .

Corollary 2.4 in Cline and Resnick (1992) shows that $F \in \mathcal{S}(\nu; \mathbf{b})$ if and only if $F \in \mathcal{L}(\nu; \mathbf{b})$ and the marginal distribution F_i of F is in the one-dimensional subexponential class \mathcal{S} for each $i = 1, \dots, d$.

It is shown in Cline and Resnick (1992) that the distributions in $\mathcal{S}(\nu, \mathbf{b})$ possess the natural multivariate extensions of the properties of the one-dimensional subexponential distributions mentioned in Section 2. For example, if $F \in \mathcal{S}(\nu, \mathbf{b})$, then for any $n \geq 1$, $F^{*n} \in \mathcal{S}(n\nu, \mathbf{b})$. More generally, if N is a random variable satisfying (2.5), and $H = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(N = n)F^{*n}$, then $H \in \mathcal{S}(EN\nu, \mathbf{b})$.

The distributions in $\mathcal{S}(\nu, \mathbf{b})$ also possess the right relation with the distributions with multivariate regularly varying tails. It is natural, in this situation, to consider only distributions supported by the nonnegative quadrant $R_+^d = [0, \infty)^d$. Recall that any distribution F supported by R_+^d is said to have regularly varying tails if there is a Radon measure μ on $[0, \infty]^d \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$ concentrated on finite points, and a function \mathbf{b} as above such that, as $t \rightarrow \infty$,

$$(3.2) \quad tF(\mathbf{b}(t)\cdot) \xrightarrow{v} \mu$$

vaguely in $[0, \infty]^d \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$; see Resnick (2007). Note that (3.2) allows for different scaling in different directions, hence also different marginal exponents of regular variation. This situation is sometimes referred to as *non-standard regular variation*. If we denote by $\mathcal{R}(\mu, \mathbf{b})$ the class of distributions with regularly varying tails satisfying (3.2), then, as shown in Cline and Resnick (1992), $\mathcal{R}(\mu, \mathbf{b}) \subset \mathcal{S}(\nu, \mathbf{b})$ for some ν .

As mentioned above, this definition of multivariate subexponentiality requires, beyond marginal subexponentiality for all components, only the joint long tail property (3.1). This property, together with the nature of the limiting measure, makes this notion somewhat inconvenient in applications, because it is not easy to see how to use it on sets in \mathbb{R}^d that are not “asymptotically rectangular”.

Another observation worth making is that in probability theory, many well established multivariate extensions of important one-dimensional notions have a “stability property” with respect to projections on one-dimensional subspaces (i.e., with respect to taking linear combinations of the components.) Specifically, if the distribution of a random vector $(X^{(1)}, \dots, X^{(d)})$ has, say,

a property \mathcal{G}_d (the subscript d specifying the dimension in which the property holds), then the distribution of any (non-degenerate) linear combination $\sum_1^d a_i X^{(i)}$ has the property \mathcal{G}_1 . This is true, for instance, for multivariate regular variation, multivariate Gaussianity, stability and infinite divisibility. Unfortunately, the definition of multivariate subexponentiality by $\mathcal{S}(\nu, \mathbf{b})$ does not have this feature, as the following example shows.

Example 3.1. Consider a 2-dimensional random vector (X, Y) with nonnegative coordinates such that $P(X + Y = 2^n) = 2^{-(n+1)}$ for $n \geq 0$, with the mass distributed uniformly on the simplex $\{(x, y) : x, y \geq 0, x + y = 2^n\}$ for each $n \geq 0$. It is elementary to check that $X, Y \in \mathcal{L} \cap \mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{S}$. Furthermore, for $2^n \leq x \leq 2^{n+1}$, $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ we have

$$P(X > x) = P(Y > x) = 2^{-(n+1)} - \frac{x}{3} 2^{-(2n+1)} = 2P(X > x, Y > x).$$

If we define a function b by $tP(X > b(t)) = 1$ for $t \geq 2$, then it immediately follows that $(X, Y) \in \mathcal{L}(\nu; \mathbf{b})$ with $\mathbf{b}(t) = (b(t), b(t))$ and

$$\nu = \frac{1}{2}\delta_{(-\infty, \infty)} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{(\infty, -\infty)} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{(\infty, \infty)},$$

and the result of Cline and Resnick (1992) tells us that $(X, Y) \in \mathcal{S}(\nu; \mathbf{b})$. It is clear, however, that

$$\liminf_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{P(X + Y > x + 1)}{P(X + Y > x)} = \frac{1}{2},$$

so $X + Y$ does not even have a long-tailed, let alone subexponential, distribution.

The second existing definition of multivariate subexponentiality we are aware of is due to Omey (2006). Once again, this definition concentrates on rectangular regions. The paper presents 3 versions of the definition. The versions are similar, and we concentrate only on one of them. Let F be a probability distribution supported by the positive quadrant in \mathbb{R}^d . Then one says that $F \in S(\mathbb{R}^d)$ if for all $\mathbf{x} \in (0, \infty]^d$ with $\min(x_i) < \infty$,

$$(3.3) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\overline{F^{*2}}(t\mathbf{x})}{\overline{F}(t\mathbf{x})} = 2.$$

This definition, like the definition of Cline and Resnick (1992), has the following property: a distribution $F \in S(\mathbb{R}^d)$ if and only if each marginal distribution F_i of F is a one-dimensional subexponential distribution, and a multivariate long-tail property holds. In the present case the long-tail property is

$$(3.4) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\overline{F}(t\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})}{\overline{F}(t\mathbf{x})} = 1$$

for each $\mathbf{x} \in (0, \infty)^d$ with $\min(x_i) < \infty$ and each $\mathbf{a} \in [0, \infty)^d$. This follows from Theorem 7 and Corollary 11 in Omey (2006).

The following statement shows that, in fact, the definition (3.4) of multivariate subexponentiality requires *only* marginal subexponentiality of each coordinate.

Proposition 3.2. *Let F be a probability distribution supported by the positive quadrant in \mathbb{R}^d . Then $F \in S(\mathbb{R}^d)$ if and only if all marginal distributions F_i of F are subexponential in one dimension.*

Proof. By choosing \mathbf{x} with only one finite coordinate, we immediately see that if $F \in S(\mathbb{R}^d)$, then $F_i \in \mathcal{S}$ for each $i = 1, \dots, d$.

In the other direction, we know by the results of Omey (2006), that only the long-tail property (3.4) is needed, in addition to the marginal subexponentiality, to establish that $F \in S(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

Therefore, it is enough to check that the long-tail property (3.4) follows from the marginal subexponentiality. In fact, we will show that, if each F_i is long-tailed, i.e. satisfies (2.1), $i = 1, \dots, d$, then (3.4) holds as well.

Let $\epsilon > 0$. Fix $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_d) \in (0, \infty)^d$ (allowing some of the components of \mathbf{x} be infinite only leads to a reduction in the dimension), and $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_d) \in [0, \infty)^d$.

Since $F_i \in \mathcal{L}$, $i = 1, \dots, d$, for sufficiently large t we have

$$0 \leq \overline{F}_i(tx_i - a_i) - \overline{F}_i(tx_i) < \epsilon \overline{F}_i(tx_i)$$

for $i = 1, \dots, d$. Further, it is clear that

$$0 \leq \overline{F}(t\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) - \overline{F}(t\mathbf{x}) \leq \sum_{i=1}^d (\overline{F}_i(tx_i - a_i) - \overline{F}_i(tx_i)).$$

Hence for sufficiently large t ,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq \frac{\overline{F}(t\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) - \overline{F}(t\mathbf{x})}{\overline{F}(t\mathbf{x})} &\leq \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{(\overline{F}_i(tx_i - a_i) - \overline{F}_i(tx_i))}{\overline{F}(t\mathbf{x})} \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{(\overline{F}_i(tx_i - a_i) - \overline{F}_i(tx_i))}{\overline{F}_i(tx_i)} \\ &< d\epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Letting $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ gives the desired result. \square

Remark 3.3. It is worth noting that the above statement and Corollary 11 in Omey (2006) show that for any probability distribution F supported by the positive quadrant in \mathbb{R}^d , such that the marginal distribution F_i of F is subexponential for every $i = 1, \dots, d$, we have, for all $\mathbf{a} \in [0, \infty)^d$, $\mathbf{x} \in (0, \infty)^d$ and $n \geq 1$,

$$(3.5) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\overline{F^{*n}}(t\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})}{\overline{F}(t\mathbf{x})} = n.$$

Using (3.3) as a definition of multivariate subexponentiality is, therefore, equivalent to merely requiring one-dimensional subexponentiality for each marginal distribution. Such requirement, in particular, cannot guarantee one-dimensional subexponentiality of the linear combinations, as we have seen in Example 3.1. In fact, it was shown in Leslie (1989) that even the sum of independent random variables with subexponential distributions does not need to have a subexponential distribution.

4. MULTIVARIATE SUBEXPONENTIAL DISTRIBUTIONS

In this section we introduce a new notion of a multivariate subexponential distribution. We approach the task with the multivariate ruin problem in mind. We start with a family \mathcal{R} of open sets in \mathbb{R}^d . Recall that a subset A of \mathbb{R}^d is increasing if $\mathbf{x} \in A$ and $\mathbf{a} \in [0, \infty)^d$ imply $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{a} \in A$. Let

$$(4.1) \quad \mathcal{R} = \{A \subset \mathbb{R}^d : A \text{ open, increasing, } A^c \text{ convex, } \mathbf{0} \notin \overline{A}\}.$$

Remark 4.1. Note that \mathcal{R} is a cone with respect to the multiplication by positive scalars. That is, if $A \in \mathcal{R}$, then $uA \in \mathcal{R}$ for any $u > 0$. Further, half-spaces of the form

$$(4.2) \quad H = \{\mathbf{x} : a_1x_1 + \dots + a_dx_d > b\}, \quad b > 0, \quad a_1, \dots, a_d \geq 0 \text{ with } a_1 + \dots + a_d = 1$$

are members of \mathcal{R} .

Remark 4.2. We can write a set $A \in \mathcal{R}$ (in a non-unique way) as $A = \mathbf{b} + G$, with $\mathbf{b} \in (0, \infty)^d$ and $\mathbf{0} \in \partial G$ (with ∂G being the boundary of G .) It is clear that the set G is then also increasing. We will adopt this notation in some of the proofs to follow.

To see a connection with the multivariate ruin problem, imagine that for a fixed set $A \in \mathcal{R}$ we view A as the ‘‘ruin set’’ in the sense that if, at any time, the excess of claim amounts over the premia falls in A , then the insurance company is ruined. Note that, in the one-dimensional situation, all sets in \mathcal{R} are of the form $A = (u, \infty)$ with $u > 0$, so the ruin corresponds to the excess of claim amounts over the premia being over the initial capital u . The different shapes of sets in \mathcal{R} can be viewed as allowing different interactions between multiple lines of business. For example, choosing A of the form

$$A = \{\mathbf{x} : x_i > u_i \text{ for some } i = 1, \dots, d\}, \quad u_1, \dots, u_d > 0$$

corresponds to completely separate lines of business, where a ruin of one line of business causes the ruin of the company. On the other hand, using as A a half-space of the form (4.2) corresponds to the situation where there is a single overall initial capital b and the proportion of a_i in a shortfall in the i th line of business is charged to the overall capital b . The connections to the ruin problem are discussed more thoroughly in Section 5.

Before we introduce our notion of multivariate subexponentiality, we collect, in the following lemma, certain facts about the family \mathcal{R} .

Lemma 4.3. *Let $A \in \mathcal{R}$.*

- (a) *If $G = A - \mathbf{b}$ for some $\mathbf{b} \in \partial A$, then $G^c \supset (-\infty, 0]^d$.*
- (b) *If $u_1 > u_2 > 0$ then $u_1 A \subset u_2 A$.*
- (c) *There is a set of vectors $I_A \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ such that*

$$A = \left\{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d : \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{x} > 1 \text{ for some } \mathbf{p} \in I_A \right\}.$$

Proof. (a) Since G^c is closed, it contains the origin. Since G is increasing, G^c contains the entire quadrant $(-\infty, 0]^d$.

(b) This is an immediate consequence of the fact that A^c is convex and $\mathbf{0} \in A^c$.

(c) Let $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \partial A$. Since A^c is convex, the supporting hyperplane theorem (see e.g. Corollary 11.6.2 in Rockafellar (2015)) tells us that there exists a (not necessarily unique) nonzero vector $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{x}_0}$ such that $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{x}_0}^T \mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{x}_0}^T \mathbf{x}_0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in A^c$. Since $\mathbf{0} \in A^c$, we must have $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{x}_0}^T \mathbf{x}_0 \geq 0$. Since A is increasing, the case $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{x}_0}^T \mathbf{x}_0 = 0$ is impossible, so $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{x}_0}^T \mathbf{x}_0 > 0$.

We scale each $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{x}_0}$ so that $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{x}_0}^T \mathbf{x}_0 = 1$. Let I_A be the set of all such $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{x}_0}$ for all $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \partial A$. Since a closed convex set equals the intersection of the half-spaces bounded by its supporting hyperplanes (see e.g. Corollary 11.5.1 in Rockafellar (2015)), the collection I_A has the required properties. \square

Remark 4.4. It is clear that, once we have chosen a collection I_A for some $A \in \mathcal{R}$, for any $u > 0$ we can use I_A/u as I_{uA} .

We are now ready to define multivariate subexponentiality. Let F be a probability distribution on \mathbb{R}^d supported by $[0, \infty)^d$. For a fixed $A \in \mathcal{R}$ it follows from part (b) of Lemma 4.3 that the function on $[0, \infty)$ defined by

$$F_A(t) = 1 - F(tA), \quad t \geq 0,$$

is a probability distribution function on $[0, \infty)$.

Definition 4.5. For any $A \in \mathcal{R}$, we say that $F \in \mathcal{S}_A$ if $F_A \in \mathcal{S}$, and we write $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}} := \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{R}} \mathcal{S}_A$.

We view the class $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$ as the class of subexponential distributions. However, for some applications we can use a larger class, such as \mathcal{S}_A for a fixed $A \in \mathcal{R}$, or the intersection of such classes over a subset of \mathcal{R} .

Note that by Remark 4.1, if \mathbf{X} is a random vector in \mathbb{R}^d whose distribution is in $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$, then all non-degenerate linear combinations of the components of \mathbf{X} with nonnegative coefficients have one-dimensional subexponential distributions. More generally, we have the following stability property. We say that a linear transformation $T : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ is increasing if $T\mathbf{x} \in [0, \infty)^k$ for any $\mathbf{x} \in [0, \infty)^d$.

Proposition 4.6. *Let $T : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ be a linear increasing transformation. If \mathbf{X} is a random vector in \mathbb{R}^d whose distribution is in $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$ (in \mathbb{R}^d), then the same is true (in \mathbb{R}^k) for the distribution of the random vector $T\mathbf{X}$.*

Proof. The statement follows from the easily checked fact that for any $A \in \mathcal{R}$ in \mathbb{R}^k , the set $T^{-1}A$ is in \mathcal{R} in \mathbb{R}^d . \square

The following lemma is useful. Its argument uses the fact that for any random vector X on \mathbb{R}^d and $A \in \mathcal{R}$, we can write, for any $u > 0$, the event $\{\mathbf{X} \in uA\}$ as $\{\sup_{\mathbf{p} \in I_A} \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{X} > u\}$; see Lemma 4.3 and Remark 4.4.

Lemma 4.7. *For any $A \in \mathcal{R}$ and $n \geq 1$,*

$$(4.3) \quad \overline{(F_A)^{*n}}(t) \geq F^{*n}(tA).$$

Proof. Let $\mathbf{X}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{X}^{(n)}$ be independent random vectors with distribution F . Let Y_1, \dots, Y_n be one-dimensional random variables defined by

$$Y_i = \sup\{u : \mathbf{X}^{(i)} \in uA\} = \sup_{\mathbf{p} \in I_A} \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{X}^{(i)}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

see Remark 4.4. Note that by part (b) of Lemma 4.3,

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y_i > t) &= P(\mathbf{X}^{(i)} \in tA) \\ &= F(tA) = \overline{F_A}(t). \end{aligned}$$

Hence it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} F^{*n}(tA) &= P(\mathbf{X}^{(1)} + \dots + \mathbf{X}^{(n)} \in tA) \\ &= P\left(\sup_{\mathbf{p} \in I_A} \mathbf{p}^T (\mathbf{X}^{(1)} + \dots + \mathbf{X}^{(n)}) > t\right) \\ &\leq P\left(\sup_{\mathbf{p} \in I_A} \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{X}^{(1)} + \dots + \sup_{\mathbf{p} \in I_A} \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{X}^{(n)} > t\right) \\ &= P(Y_1 + \dots + Y_n > t) \\ &= \overline{(F_A)^{*n}}(t), \end{aligned}$$

as required. \square

In spite of this lemma, the two probabilities are asymptotically equivalent.

Corollary 4.8. *$A \in \mathcal{R}$. Let $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{X}^{(n)}$ be independent random vectors with distribution F . If $F \in \mathcal{S}_A$ for some $A \in \mathcal{R}$, then for all $n \geq 1$,*

$$(4.4) \quad \lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{P(\mathbf{X}^{(1)} + \dots + \mathbf{X}^{(n)} \in uA)}{P(\mathbf{X} \in uA)} = n.$$

Proof. It follows from Lemma 4.7 that only an asymptotic lower bound needs to be established. However, since $\mathbf{X}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{X}^{(n)}$ are all nonnegative, and A is an increasing set, it must be that if $\mathbf{X}^{(1)} + \dots + \mathbf{X}^{(n)} \in uA^c$, then each $\mathbf{X}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{X}^{(n)} \in uA^c$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} P(\mathbf{X}^{(1)} + \dots + \mathbf{X}^{(n)} \in uA^c) &\leq P(\mathbf{X}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{X}^{(n)} \in uA^c) \\ &= P(\mathbf{X} \in uA^c)^n. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{P(\mathbf{X}^{(1)} + \dots + \mathbf{X}^{(n)} \in uA)}{P(\mathbf{X} \in uA)} \geq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - P(\mathbf{X} \in uA^c)^n}{P(\mathbf{X} \in uA)} = n,$$

as required. \square

Remark 4.9. We note at this point that the assumption $F \in \mathcal{S}_A$ is NOT equivalent to the assumption that (4.4) holds for all n . In fact, the latter assumption is weaker. To see that, consider the following example. Let X and Y be two independent nonnegative one-dimensional random variables with subexponential distributions, such that $X + Y$ is not subexponential; recall that such random variables exist, see Leslie (1989). We construct a bivariate random vector \mathbf{Z} by taking a Bernoulli (1/2) random variable B independent of X and Y and setting $\mathbf{Z} = (X, 0)$ if $B = 0$ and $\mathbf{Z} = (0, Y)$ if $B = 1$. Let $A = \{(x, y) : \max(x, y) > 1\}$. Since the marginal distributions of the bivariate distribution of \mathbf{Z} are, obviously, subexponential, we see by (3.5) that (4.4) holds for all $n \geq 1$. However, for $u > 0$,

$$\overline{F}_A(u) = \frac{1}{2}P(X > u) + \frac{1}{2}P(Y > u),$$

so the distribution F_A is a mixture of the distributions of X and Y . By Theorem 2 of Embrechts and Goldie (1980), any non-trivial mixture of the distributions of X and Y is subexponential if and only if their convolution is. Since, by construction, that convolution is not subexponential, we conclude that $F_A \notin \mathcal{S}$ and $F \notin \mathcal{S}_A$.

In the next proposition we check that the basic properties of one-dimensional subexponential distributions extend to the multivariate case.

Proposition 4.10. *Let $A \in \mathcal{R}$ and $F \in \mathcal{S}_A$.*

(a) *If G is a distribution on \mathbb{R}^d supported by $[0, \infty)^d$, such that*

$$\lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F(uA)}{G(uA)} = c > 0,$$

then $G \in \mathcal{S}_A$.

(b) *For any $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^d$,*

$$(4.5) \quad \lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F(uA + \mathbf{a})}{F(uA)} = 1.$$

(c) *Let $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{X}^{(n)}$ be independent random vectors with distribution F . For any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $K > 0$ such that for all $u > 0$ and $n \geq 1$,*

$$(4.6) \quad \frac{P(\mathbf{X}^{(1)} + \dots + \mathbf{X}^{(n)} \in uA)}{P(\mathbf{X} \in uA)} < K(1 + \epsilon)^n.$$

Proof. (a) This is an immediate consequence of the univariate subexponentiality of F_A and the corresponding property of one-dimensional subexponential distributions; see e.g. Lemma 4 in Embrechts et al. (1979).

(b) Write $A = \mathbf{b} + G$ as in Remark 4.2. As in part (b) of Lemma 4.3, we have $u_1 G \subset u_2 G$ if $u_1 > u_2 > 0$. Since G is an increasing set, it follows that there exists $u_1 > 0$ such that for all $u > u_1$ we have $(u + u_1)A \subset uA + \mathbf{a} \subset (u - u_1)A$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{F}_A(u + u_1) &= F((u + u_1)A) \\ &\leq F(uA + \mathbf{a}) \\ &\leq F((u - u_1)A) = \overline{F}_A(u - u_1), \end{aligned}$$

and the claim follows from the one-dimensional long tail property of F_A .

(c) The claim follows from Lemma 4.7 and the corresponding one-dimensional bound; see e.g. Lemma 3 in Embrechts et al. (1979). \square

Remark 4.11. In our Definition 4.5 of multivariate subexponentiality one can drop the assumption that a distribution is supported by $[0, \infty)^d$. We can check that both Corollary 4.8 and Proposition 4.10 remain true in this extended case.

Our next step is to show that multivariate regular varying distributions fall within the class $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$ of multivariate subexponential distributions. The definition of non-standard multivariate regular variation for distribution supported by $[0, \infty)^d$ was given in (3.2). Presently we would only consider the standard multivariate regular variation, but allow distributions not necessarily restricted to the first quadrant. In this case one assumes that there is a non-zero Radon measure μ on $[-\infty, \infty]^d \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$, charging only finite points, and a function b on $(0, \infty)$ increasing to infinity, such that

$$(4.7) \quad tF(b(t)\cdot) \xrightarrow{v} \mu$$

vaguely on $[-\infty, \infty]^d \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$. Recall that the measure μ is called the tail measure of \mathbf{X} ; it has automatically a scaling property: for some $\alpha > 0$, $\mu(uA) = u^{-\alpha}\mu(A)$ for every $u > 0$ and every Borel set $A \in \mathbb{R}^d$, and the function b in (4.7) is regularly varying with exponent $1/\alpha$; see Resnick (2007). We say that F (and \mathbf{X}) are regularly varying with exponent α and use the notation $F \in MRV(\alpha, \mu)$.

Proposition 4.12. $MRV(\alpha, \mu) \subset \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$.

Proof. We start by showing that for any $A \in \mathcal{R}$, $\mu(\partial A) = 0$. Since for any $u > 0$,

$$\mu(\partial(uA)) = \mu(u\partial A) = u^{-\alpha}\mu(\partial A),$$

it is enough to show that for any $u > 1$, $\partial(uA) \cap \partial A = \emptyset$ (indeed, $\mu(\partial A) > 0$ would then imply existence of uncountably many disjoint sets of positive measure).

Suppose, to the contrary, that $\partial(uA) \cap \partial A \neq \emptyset$, and let $\mathbf{x} \in \partial(uA) \cap \partial A$. The set I_A in part (c) of Lemma 4.3, has, by construction, the property that $u^{-1}\mathbf{x}$, as an element of $u^{-1}\partial(uA) = \partial A$, satisfies $\mathbf{p}^T u^{-1}\mathbf{x} = 1$ for some $\mathbf{p} \in I_A$. But then $\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{x} = u > 1$, which says that \mathbf{x} is in A , rather than in ∂A , which is a subset of A^c .

It follows from (4.7) that for any set $A \in \mathcal{R}$,

$$tP(\mathbf{X} \in b(t)A) \rightarrow \mu(A) \in (0, \infty)$$

as $t \rightarrow \infty$. Since the function b is regularly varying with exponent $1/\alpha$, we immediately conclude that the distribution function F_A has a regularly varying tail, hence F_A is subexponential. Because $A \in \mathcal{R}$ is arbitrary, it follows that $F \in \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{R}} \mathcal{S}_A = \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$. \square

We proceed with clarifying the relation between the class $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$ we have introduced in this section and the classes $\mathcal{S}(\nu; \mathbf{b})$ and $S(\mathbb{R}^d)$ of Section 3. We will also provide several examples of distributions that belong to $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$, as well as sufficient conditions for a distribution to be a member of $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$.

Example 3.1, combined with Proposition 4.6, show that neither $\mathcal{S}(\nu; \mathbf{b})$ nor $S(\mathbb{R}^d)$ are subsets of $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$. We will present an example to show that $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}} \not\subset \mathcal{S}(\nu; \mathbf{b})$.

We start with presenting a sufficient condition for a distribution F to be a member of $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$. We assume for the moment that F is supported by $[0, \infty)^d$.

Let $\mathbf{X} \sim F$ be a nonnegative random vector on \mathbb{R}^d such that $P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0}) = 0$. Denote the L_1 norm of \mathbf{X} by

$$(4.8) \quad W = \|\mathbf{X}\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^d X_i,$$

and the projection of \mathbf{X} onto the d -dimensional unit simplex Δ_d by

$$(4.9) \quad I = \frac{\mathbf{X}}{\|\mathbf{X}\|_1} = \frac{\mathbf{X}}{W} \in \Delta_d.$$

Let ν be the distribution of I over Δ_d , and let $(F_{\boldsymbol{\theta}})_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Delta_d}$ be a set of regular conditional distributions of W given I . Notice that, if the law F of \mathbf{X} in \mathbb{R}^d has a density f with respect to the d -dimensional Lebesgue measure, then a version of $(F_{\boldsymbol{\theta}})_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Delta_d}$ has densities with respect to the one-dimensional Lebesgue measure, given by

$$(4.10) \quad f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(w) = \frac{w^{d-1} f(w\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\int_0^\infty u^{d-1} f(u\boldsymbol{\theta}) du}, \quad w > 0.$$

Proposition 4.13. *Suppose \mathbf{X} is a random vector on \mathbb{R}^d with distribution F , supported by $[0, \infty)^d$, such that $P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0}) = 0$. Suppose the marginal distributions F_i , $i = 1, \dots, d$ have dominated varying tails. Further, assume that there is a set of regular conditional distributions $(F_{\boldsymbol{\theta}})_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Delta_d}$ of W given I such that $F_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \in \mathcal{L}$ for each $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Delta_d$ and for some $C, t_0 > 0$,*

$$(4.11) \quad \frac{\overline{F_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_1}}(2t)}{\overline{F_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_2}}(t)} \leq C$$

for all $t > t_0$ and for all $\boldsymbol{\theta}_1, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2 \in \Delta_d$. Then $F \in \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$.

Proof. Let $A \in \mathcal{R}$ be fixed. Since each of the marginal distributions have dominated varying tails, it follows that F_A also has a dominated varying tail. Since $\mathcal{L} \cap \mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{S}$, it suffices to show that $F_A \in \mathcal{L}$.

For $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Delta_d$, let

$$(4.12) \quad h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \inf \{w > 0 : w\boldsymbol{\theta} \in A\} > 0,$$

Note that $h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is bounded away from 0. Further, by convexity of A^c , $h(\mathbf{e}^{(i)}) < \infty$ for at least one coordinate vector $\mathbf{e}^{(i)}$, $i = 1, \dots, d$. Since the dominated variation of the marginal tails implies, in particular, that each coordinate of the vector \mathbf{X} is positive with positive probability, we conclude that

$$\nu\{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Delta_d : h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} < \infty\} > 0.$$

We conclude that there is $M > 0$ and a measurable set $B \subset \Delta_d$ with $\delta := \nu(B) > 0$, such that

$$1/M \leq h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \leq M \quad \text{for all } \boldsymbol{\theta} \in B.$$

Note that for $t > 0$,

$$(4.13) \quad \bar{F}_A(t) = \int_{\Delta_d} \bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \nu(d\boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

Therefore,

$$(4.14) \quad \frac{\bar{F}_A(t) - \bar{F}_A(t+1)}{\bar{F}_A(t)} = \frac{\int_{\Delta_d} (\bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) - \bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}((t+1) h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}})) \nu(d\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\int_{\Delta_d} \bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \nu(d\boldsymbol{\theta})},$$

and we wish to show that this quantity goes to 0 as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

By the assumptions, for any fixed $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, $F_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \in \mathcal{L}$, hence for any fixed $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ such that $h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} < \infty$,

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) - \bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}((t+1) h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}})} = 0.$$

Therefore, for a given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $t_{\epsilon} > 0$ such that, for all $t > t_{\epsilon}$, $\nu(S_{t,\epsilon}) < \epsilon$, where

$$S_{t,\epsilon} = \left\{ \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Delta_d : h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} < \infty \text{ and } \frac{\bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) - \bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}((t+1) h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}})} > \epsilon \right\}.$$

Let $\epsilon < (\delta/2)^2$. Then $\nu(B \cap S_{t,\epsilon}^c) > (\nu(S_{t,\epsilon}))^{1/2}$. By the definition of the set B and by (4.11), for some $C_1, \tilde{t}_0 > 0$

$$\frac{\bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_1}(t \cdot h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_1})}{\bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_2}(t \cdot h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_2})} \leq C_1$$

for any $\boldsymbol{\theta}_1 \in S_{t,\epsilon}$ and any $\boldsymbol{\theta}_2 \in B \cap S_{t,\epsilon}^c$, for all $t > \tilde{t}_0$. Therefore, for $t > t_{\epsilon} + \tilde{t}_0$,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{S_{t,\epsilon}} \bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) - \bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}((t+1) h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \nu(d\boldsymbol{\theta}) &\leq \int_{S_{t,\epsilon}} \bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \nu(d\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &< \frac{\nu(S_{t,\epsilon})}{\nu(B \cap S_{t,\epsilon}^c)} C_1 \int_{B \cap S_{t,\epsilon}^c} \bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t \cdot h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \mu(d\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &< \epsilon^{1/2} C_1 \int_{\Delta_d} \bar{F}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t \cdot h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \nu(d\boldsymbol{\theta}). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, for $t > t_{\epsilon} + \tilde{t}_0$, the quantity in (4.14) is bounded above by $\epsilon + \epsilon^{1/2} C_1$. Letting $\epsilon \searrow 0$ gives us the desired result. \square

We are now ready to give an example showing that $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}} \not\subset \mathcal{S}(\nu; \mathbf{b})$.

Example 4.14. Let $0 < |\gamma| \leq 1/2$. It is shown in in Cline and Resnick (1992) that a legitimate probability distribution F , supported by $(0, \infty)_+^2$, satisfies

$$(4.15) \quad P(X > x, Y > y) = \frac{1 + \gamma \sin(\log(1+x+y)) \cos(\frac{1}{2}\pi \frac{x-y}{1+x+y})}{1+x+y}, \quad x, y \geq 0.$$

Then

$$P(X > x) = P(Y > x) \sim x^{-1} \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty,$$

but $F \notin \mathcal{S}(\nu; \mathbf{b})$; see Cline and Resnick (1992). Straightforward differentiation gives us the density f of F , and one can check that it satisfies

$$\frac{2 - 4\gamma - 3\gamma\pi - \pi^2/4}{(1+x+y)^3} \leq f(x, y) \leq \frac{2 + 4\gamma + 3\gamma\pi + \pi^2/4}{(1+x+y)^3},$$

so by (4.10), we have

$$a \frac{w}{(1+w)^3} \leq f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(w) \leq b \frac{w}{(1+w)^3}, \quad w > 0,$$

for some $0 < a < b < \infty$, independent of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. It is clear that the conditions of Proposition 4.13 are satisfied and, hence, $F \in \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$.

Proposition 4.13 gives us a way to check that a multivariate distribution belongs to the class $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$, but it only applies to distributions that have, marginally, dominated varying tails. In the remainder of this section we provide sufficient conditions for membership in $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$ that do not require marginals with dominated varying tails. We start with a motivating example.

Example 4.15. [Rotationally invariant case] Assume that there is a one-dimensional distribution G such that $\overline{F_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}} = \overline{G}$ for all $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Delta_d$. Let $A \in \mathcal{R}$, and notice that, in the rotationally invariant case, a random variable Y_A with distribution F_A can be written, in law, as

$$(4.16) \quad Y_A \stackrel{d}{=} ZH^{-1},$$

with Z and H being independent, Z with the distribution G , and $H = h_{\Theta}$. Here h is defined by (4.12), and Θ has the law ν over the simplex Δ_d . Recall that the function h is bounded away from zero, so that the random variable H^{-1} is bounded. If $G \in \mathcal{S}$, then the product in the right hand side is subexponential by Corollary 2.5 in Cline and Samorodnitsky (1994). Hence $F_A \in \mathcal{S}$ for all $A \in \mathcal{R}$, and so $F \in \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$.

The rotationally invariant case of Example 4.15 can be slightly extended, without much effort, to the case where there is a bounded positive function $(a_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Delta_d)$ such that $F_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\cdot) = G(\cdot/a_{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$ for some $G \in \mathcal{S}$. An argument similar to the one in the example shows that we can still conclude that $F \in \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$. In order to achieve more than that, we note that the distribution F_A can be represented, by (4.13), as a mixture of scaled regular conditional distributions. Note also that the product of independent random variables in (4.16) is just a special case of that mixture, to which we have been able to apply Corollary 2.5 in Cline and Samorodnitsky (1994). It is likely to be possible to extend that result to certain mixtures that are more general than products of independent random variables, and thus to obtain additional criteria for membership in the class $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$. We leave serious extensions of this type to future work. A small extension that still steps away from exact products is below, and it takes a result in Cline and Samorodnitsky (1994) as an ingredient. We formulate the statement in terms of the distribution of a random variable that only in a certain asymptotic sense looks like a product of independent random variables.

Theorem 4.16. *Let $(\Omega_i, \mathcal{F}_i, P_i)$, $i = 1, 2$ be probability spaces. Let Q be a random variable defined on the product probability space. Assume that there are nonnegative random variables X_i , $i = 1, 2$, defined on $(\Omega_1, \mathcal{F}_1, P_1)$ and $(\Omega_2, \mathcal{F}_2, P_2)$ correspondingly, such that X_1 has a subexponential distribution F , and for some $t_0 > 0$ and $C > 0$,*

$$(4.17) \quad X_1(\omega_1)X_2(\omega_2) - CX_2(\omega_2) \leq Q(\omega_1, \omega_2) \leq X_1(\omega_1)X_2(\omega_2) + CX_2(\omega_2)$$

a.s. on the set $\{Q(\omega_1, \omega_2) > t_0\}$. Suppose $P(X_2 > 0) > 0$, and let G be the distribution of X_2 . Suppose that there is a function $a : (0, \infty) \rightarrow (0, \infty)$, such that

- (1) $a(t) \nearrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$;
- (2) $\frac{t}{a(t)} \nearrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$;
- (3) $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\overline{F}(t-a(t))}{\overline{F}(t)} = 1$;
- (4) $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\overline{G}(a(t))}{P(X_1 X_2 > t)} = 0$.

Then Q has a subexponential distribution.

Proof. Let H denote the distribution of X_1X_2 . It follows by Theorem 2.1 in Cline and Samorodnitsky (1994) that H is subexponential. We show that $P(Q > t) \sim \overline{H}(t)$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$. This will imply that Q has a subexponential distribution.

We start by checking that

$$(4.18) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\overline{H}(t - a(t))}{\overline{H}(t)} = 1, \quad \text{implying that} \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\overline{H}(t + a(t))}{\overline{H}(t)} = 1,$$

since $a(t + a(t)) \geq a(t)$. To verify the limit, suppose first that $X_2 \geq 1$ a.s., and write

$$\begin{aligned} P(t - a(t) < X_1X_2 \leq t) &\leq P_2(X_2 > a(t)) \\ &\leq \int_{\Omega_2} P_1(t/X_2(\omega_2) - a(t)/X_2(\omega_2) < X_1 \leq t/X_2(\omega_2)) \mathbf{1}(X_2(\omega_2) \leq a(t)) P_2(d\omega_2) \end{aligned}$$

The first term in the right hand side is $o(\overline{H}(t))$ by the assumption (4), while the same is true for the second term by the assumption (3), since by the assumption (2), $a(t)/y \leq a(t/y)$ if $y \geq 1$. This proves (4.18) if $X_2 \geq 1$ a.s. and hence, by scaling, if $X_2 \geq \epsilon$ a.s. for some $\epsilon > 0$. An elementary truncation argument then shows that (4.18) holds if $P(X_2 > 0) > 0$.

Note that for $t > t_0$,

$$\begin{aligned} P(Q > t) &\leq P(X_1X_2 + CX_2 > t) \\ &\leq \overline{G}(a(t)) + \overline{H}(t - Ca(t)). \end{aligned}$$

This implies that $\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} P(Q > t)/\overline{H}(t) \leq 1$. The statement $\liminf_{t \rightarrow \infty} P(Q > t)/\overline{H}(t) \geq 1$ can be shown in a similar way. \square

Despite a limited scope of the extension given in Theorem 4.16, it allows one to construct a number of examples of multivariate distributions in $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$ by choosing, for example, $\Omega_2 = \Delta_d$ and $X_2(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = 1/h(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Delta_d$, and selecting a function Q to model additional randomness in the radial direction.

5. RUIN PROBABILITIES

As mentioned in the introduction, the notion of subexponentiality we introduced in Section 4 was designed with insurance applications in mind. In this section we describe such an application more explicitly.

Consider a renewal model for the reserves of an insurance company with d lines of business. Suppose that claims arrive according to a renewal process $(N_t)_{t \geq 0}$ given by $N_t = \sup\{n \geq 1 : T_n \leq t\}$. The arrival times (T_n) form a renewal sequence

$$(5.1) \quad T_0 = 0, \quad T_n = Y_1 + \cdots + Y_n \text{ for } n \geq 1,$$

where the interarrival times $(Y_i)_{i \geq 1}$ form a sequence of independent and identically distributed positive random variables. We will call a generic interarrival time Y . At the arrival time T_i a random vector-valued claim size $\mathbf{X}^{(i)} = (X_1^{(i)}, \dots, X_d^{(i)})$ is incurred, so that the part of the claim going to the j th line of business is $X_j^{(i)}$. We assume that the claim sizes $(\mathbf{X}^{(i)})$ are i.i.d. random vectors with a finite mean, and we denote their common law by F . We assume further that the claim size process is independent of the renewal process of the claim arrivals. The j th line of business collects premium at the rate of p^j per unit of time. Let \mathbf{p} be the vector of the premium rates, and \mathbf{X} a generic random vector of claim sizes.

Suppose that the company has an initial buffer capital of u , out of which the amount of ub_j is allocated to the j th line of business, $j = 1, 2, \dots, d$. Here b_1, \dots, b_d are positive numbers, $b_1 + \dots + b_d = 1$. Then $u\mathbf{b}$ denotes the vector for the initial capital buffer allocation. With the above notation, the claim surplus process $(\mathbf{S}_t)_{t \geq 0}$ and the risk reserve process $(\mathbf{R}_t)_{t \geq 0}$ are given by

$$\mathbf{S}_t = \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} \mathbf{X}^{(i)} - t\mathbf{p}, \quad \mathbf{R}_t = u\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{S}_t = u\mathbf{b} + t\mathbf{p} - \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} \mathbf{X}^{(i)}, \quad t \geq 0.$$

The company becomes insolvent (ruined) when the risk reserve process hits a certain ruin set $L \subset \mathbb{R}^d$. Equivalently, ruin occurs when the claim surplus process enters the set $u\mathbf{b} - L$. We will assume that the ruin set satisfies the following condition.

Assumption 5.1. The ruin set is an open decreasing set such that $\mathbf{0} \in \partial L$, satisfying $L = uL$ for $u > 0$, and such that L^c is convex.

Note that this assumption means that the ruin occurs when the claim surplus process enters the set uA , with $A = \mathbf{b} - L \in \mathcal{R}$, as defined in Section 4. In fact, the ruin set L can be viewed as being of the form $-G$, as defined in Remark 4.2. Examples of such ruin sets are, of course, the sets

$$L = \{\mathbf{x} : x_j < 0 \text{ for some } j = 1, \dots, d\} \quad \text{and} \quad L = \{\mathbf{x} : x_1 + \dots + x_d < 0\},$$

discussed in Section 4. A general framework was proposed in Hult and Lindskog (2006). In this framework capital can be transferred between different business lines, but the transfers incur costs, and the solvency set has the form

$$(5.2) \quad L^c = \left\{ \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i \neq j} v_{ij}(\pi_{ij}\mathbf{e}^i - \mathbf{e}^j) + \sum_{i=1}^d w_i\mathbf{e}^i, v_{ij} \geq 0, w_i \geq 0 \right\},$$

where $\mathbf{e}^1, \dots, \mathbf{e}^d$ are the standard basis vectors, and $\Pi = (\pi_{ij})_{i,j=1}^d$ is a matrix satisfying

- (i) $\pi_{ij} \geq 1$ for $i, j \in \{1, \dots, d\}$,
- (ii) $\pi_{ii} = 1$ for $i \in \{1, \dots, d\}$,
- (iii) $\pi_{ij} \leq \pi_{ik}\pi_{kj}$ for $i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, d\}$.

In the financial literature, a matrix satisfying the above constraints is called a bid-ask matrix. In our context, the entry π_{ij} can be interpreted as the amount of capital that needs to be taken from business line i in order to transfer 1 unit of capital to business line j .

We note that each of the above ruin sets is a cone, i.e. it satisfies $L = uL$ for $u > 0$, as assumed in Assumption 5.1.

We maintain the notation $A = \mathbf{b} - L \in \mathcal{R}$. Note that we can write the ruin probability as

$$(5.3) \quad \begin{aligned} \psi_{\mathbf{b},L}(u) &= P(\mathbf{R}_t \in L \text{ for some } t \geq 0) \\ &= P\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{X}^{(i)} - Y_i\mathbf{p} \in uA \text{ for some } n \geq 1\right) \\ &= P\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{Z}^{(i)} \in uA \text{ for some } n \geq 1\right), \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{Z}^{(i)} = \mathbf{X}^{(i)} - Y_i\mathbf{p}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots$. We let \mathbf{Z} denote a generic element of the sequence $(\mathbf{Z}^{(i)})_{i \geq 1}$. We will assume a positive safety loading, an assumption that takes now the form

$$\mathbf{c} = -\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Z}] > \mathbf{0},$$

see e.g. Asmussen (2000). The assumption of the finite mean for the claim sizes implies that

$$\theta := \int_0^\infty F\left([0, \infty)^d + v\mathbf{c}\right) dv < \infty,$$

and we can define a probability measure on \mathbb{R}^d , supported by $[0, \infty)^d$, by

$$(5.4) \quad F^I(\cdot) = \frac{1}{\theta} \int_0^\infty F(\cdot + v\mathbf{c}) dv.$$

Denote

$$(5.5) \quad H(u) = \int_0^\infty F(uA + v\mathbf{c}), \quad u > 0.$$

The following is the main result of this section.

Theorem 5.2. *Suppose that the law F^I is in \mathcal{S}_A . Then the ruin probability $\psi_{\mathbf{b},L}$ satisfies*

$$(5.6) \quad \lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\psi_{\mathbf{b},L}(u)}{H(u)} = 1.$$

Remark 5.3. Notice, for comparison, that in the univariate case, with the ruin set $L = (-\infty, 0)$ (and $b = 1$) we have $A = (1, \infty)$, and

$$H(u) = \int_0^\infty \bar{F}(u + vc) dv = \frac{1}{c} \int_u^\infty \bar{F}(v) dv.$$

In this case the statement (5.6) agrees with the standard univariate result on subexponential claims; see e.g. Theorem 1.3.8 in Embrechts et al. (1997). If the claim arrival process is Poisson, then this is (2.7) of Section 2.

Proof of Theorem 5.2. We start by observing that the function H is proportional to the tail of a subexponential distribution F_A^I and, hence, can itself be viewed as the tail of a subexponential distribution. We can and will, for example, simply refer to the “long tail property” of H .

We use the “one big jump” approach to heavy tailed large deviations; see e.g. Zachary (2004), and the first step is to show that

$$(5.7) \quad \lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\int_0^\infty P(\mathbf{Z} \in uA + v\mathbf{c}) dv}{H(u)} = 1.$$

Indeed, the upper bound in (5.7) follows from the fact that A is increasing. For the lower bound, notice that, by Fatou’s lemma, it is enough to prove that for each fixed \mathbf{y} ,

$$\lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\int_0^\infty F(uA + v\mathbf{c} + \mathbf{y}\mathbf{p}) dv}{H(u)} = 1.$$

This, however, follows from the fact for sufficiently large $u > 0$, there exists some $u_1 > 0$ such that $(u + u_1)A + v\mathbf{c} \subset uA + v\mathbf{c} + \mathbf{y}\mathbf{p}$, and the long tail property of H .

We proceed to prove the lower bound in (5.6). Let $\mathbf{S}_n := \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{Z}^{(i)}$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Let ϵ, δ be small positive numbers, and choose K so large that

$$P(\mathbf{S}_n > -(K + n(1 + \epsilon))\mathbf{c}) > 1 - \delta, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

Define $M_n = \sup\{u > 0 : \mathbf{S}_i \in uA \text{ for some } 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ and $M = \sup\{u > 0 : \mathbf{S}_n \in uA \text{ for some } n\}$. For $u > 0$,

$$\psi_{\mathbf{b},L}(u) = P(M > u) = \sum_{n \geq 0} P(M_n \leq u, \mathbf{S}_{n+1} \in uA)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\geq \sum_{n \geq 0} P(M_n \leq u, \mathbf{S}_n > -(K + n(1 + \epsilon))\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{Z}^{(n+1)} \in uA + (K + n(1 + \epsilon))\mathbf{c}) \\
&\geq \sum_{n \geq 0} (1 - \delta - P(M_n > u)) P(\mathbf{Z}^{(n+1)} \in uA + K\mathbf{c} + n(1 + \epsilon)\mathbf{c}) \\
&\geq (1 - \delta - P(M > u)) \sum_{n \geq 0} P(\mathbf{Z} \in uA + K\mathbf{c} + n(1 + \epsilon)\mathbf{c}).
\end{aligned}$$

Rearranging, and using the monotonicity of A and the long tail property of F_A^I , we see that

$$\begin{aligned}
\psi_{b,L}(u) &\geq \frac{(1 - \delta) \sum_{n \geq 0} P(\mathbf{Z} \in uA + K\mathbf{c} + n(1 + \epsilon)\mathbf{c})}{1 + \sum_{n \geq 0} P(\mathbf{Z} \in uA + K\mathbf{c} + n(1 + \epsilon)\mathbf{c})} \\
&\sim \frac{1 - \delta}{1 + \epsilon} \int_0^\infty P(\mathbf{Z} \in uA + K\mathbf{c} + v\mathbf{c}) dv \\
&\sim \frac{1 - \delta}{1 + \epsilon} \int_0^\infty P(\mathbf{Z} \in uA + v\mathbf{c}) dv, \quad u \rightarrow \infty.
\end{aligned}$$

Letting δ, ϵ to 0, we have, thus, obtained the lower bound in (5.6). We proceed to prove a matching upper bound.

Fix $0 < \epsilon < 1$. For $r > 0$, we define a sequence (τ_n) as follows: we set $\tau_0 = 0$, and

$$\tau_1 = \inf\{n \geq 1 : \mathbf{S}_n \in rA - n(1 - \epsilon)\mathbf{c}\}.$$

For $m \geq 2$, we set $\tau_m = \infty$ if $\tau_{m-1} = \infty$. Otherwise, let

$$\tau_m = \tau_{m-1} + \inf\{n \geq 1 : \mathbf{S}_{n+\tau_{m-1}} - \mathbf{S}_{\tau_{m-1}} \in rA - n(1 - \epsilon)\mathbf{c}\}.$$

If we let $\gamma = P(\tau_1 < \infty)$, then for any $m \geq 1$, $P(\tau_m < \infty) = \gamma^m$. By the positive safety loading assumption, $\gamma \rightarrow 0$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$. Note that for $u > 0$,

$$P(\tau_1 < \infty, \mathbf{S}_{\tau_1} \in uA) = \sum_{n \geq 1} P(\tau_1 = n, \mathbf{S}_n \in uA) \leq \sum_{n \geq 1} P(\mathbf{S}_{n-1} \in rA^c - (n-1)(1 - \epsilon)\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{S}_n \in uA).$$

By part (c) of Lemma 4.3, $\mathbf{S}_n \in uA$ if and only if $\sup_{\mathbf{p} \in I_A} \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{S}_n > u$. Further,

$$\sup_{\mathbf{p} \in I_A} \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{S}_n \leq \sup_{\mathbf{p} \in I_A} \mathbf{p}^T (\mathbf{S}_{n-1} + (n-1)(1 - \epsilon)\mathbf{c}) + \sup_{\mathbf{p} \in I_A} \mathbf{p}^T (\mathbf{Z}^{(n)} - (n-1)(1 - \epsilon)\mathbf{c}).$$

Let $u > r$. If $\mathbf{S}_{n-1} \in rA^c - (n-1)(1 - \epsilon)\mathbf{c}$, then $\sup_{\mathbf{p} \in I_A} \mathbf{p}^T (\mathbf{S}_{n-1} + (n-1)(1 - \epsilon)\mathbf{c}) \leq r$, so for $\sup_{\mathbf{p} \in I_A} \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{S}_n > u$ to hold, it must be the case that $\sup_{\mathbf{p} \in I_A} \mathbf{p}^T (\mathbf{Z}^{(n)} - (n-1)(1 - \epsilon)\mathbf{c}) > u - r$, implying that $\mathbf{Z}^{(n)} \in (u - r)A + (n-1)(1 - \epsilon)\mathbf{c}$.

Summing up, we see that, as $u \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\begin{aligned}
P(\tau_1 < \infty, \mathbf{S}_{\tau_1} \in uA) &\leq \sum_{n \geq 1} P(\mathbf{Z}^{(n)} \in (u - r)A + (n-1)(1 - \epsilon)\mathbf{c}) \\
&\sim \int_0^\infty P(\mathbf{Z} \in (u - r)A + v(1 - \epsilon)\mathbf{c}) dv \\
&\sim \frac{1}{1 - \epsilon} H(u - r).
\end{aligned}$$

Letting $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ and using the long tail property of H , we obtain

$$(5.8) \quad \limsup_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{P(\tau_1 < \infty, \mathbf{S}_{\tau_1} \in uA)}{H(u)} \leq 1.$$

Let $(\mathbf{V}^{(i)})$ be a sequence of independent identically distributed random vectors whose law is the conditional law of \mathbf{S}_{τ_1} given that $\tau_1 < \infty$. By (5.8), there is a distribution B on $[0, \infty)$ such that $\overline{B}(u) \sim \gamma^{-1}H(u)$ as $u \rightarrow \infty$ and

$$P(\mathbf{V}^{(1)} \in uA) \leq \overline{B}(u) \text{ for all } u \geq 0.$$

Note, further, that by the definition of the sequence (τ_m) , for every $m \geq 0$, on the event $\{\tau_m < \infty\}$, we have, for $1 \leq i < \tau_{m+1}$, $\mathbf{S}_{\tau_{m+i}} - \mathbf{S}_{\tau_m} \in rA^c - i(1-\epsilon)\mathbf{c} \subset rA^c - (1-\epsilon)\mathbf{c}$. If $\mathbf{S}_{\tau_m} \in (u-r)A^c + (1-\epsilon)\mathbf{c}$, then we have $\mathbf{S}_{\tau_{m+i}} \in uA^c$. Hence, for the event $\{\mathbf{S}_n \in uA \text{ for some } n\}$ to occur, we must have

$$\mathbf{S}_{\tau_m} \in ((u-r)A + (1-\epsilon)\mathbf{c}) \cup uA \text{ for some } m.$$

Therefore, we can use Lemma 4.7 to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_{\mathbf{b},L}(u) &= P(M > u) \leq \sum_{m \geq 1} P(\mathbf{S}_{\tau_m} \in ((u-r)A + (1-\epsilon)\mathbf{c}) \cup uA) \\ &\leq \sum_{m \geq 1} \gamma^m P(\mathbf{V}^{(1)} + \dots + \mathbf{V}^{(m)} \in (u-r)A) \\ &\leq \sum_{m \geq 1} \gamma^m \overline{B^{(m)}}(u-r). \end{aligned}$$

By the assumption, the H is the tail of a subexponential distribution, and, hence, B is subexponential as well. This implies that

$$\lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\overline{B^{(m)}}(u)}{\overline{B}(u)} = m,$$

and that for any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $K > 0$ such that for all $u > 0$ and $m \geq 1$,

$$\frac{\overline{B^{(m)}}(u)}{\overline{B}(u)} \leq K(1+\epsilon)^m.$$

Since we can make $\gamma > 0$ as small as we wish by choosing r large, we can use the dominated convergence theorem to obtain

$$\limsup_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\psi_{\mathbf{b},L}(u)}{\gamma \overline{B}(u-r)} = \sum_{m \geq 1} \gamma^{m-1} m = \frac{1}{(1-\gamma)^2}.$$

Letting $r \rightarrow \infty$, which makes $\gamma \rightarrow 0$, we have that

$$\limsup_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\psi_{\mathbf{b},L}(u)}{H(u)} \leq 1,$$

which is the required upper bound in (5.6). \square

We finish this section by returning to the special case of multivariate regularly varying claims. Recall that, by Proposition 4.12, the distributions in $MRV(\alpha, \mu)$ are in $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$. The asymptotic behaviour of the ruin probability with the solvency set L^c given by (5.2), and multivariate regularly varying claims with $\alpha > 1$, was determined by Hult and Lindskog (2006). To state their result, notice that the tail measure of a random vector \mathbf{X} (recall (4.7)) is determined up to a scaling by a positive constant, and a different scaling in the tail measure can be achieved by scaling appropriately the function b in (4.7). Let us scale the tail measure μ in such a way that it assigns unit mass to the complement of the unit ball in \mathbb{R}^d . The norm we choose is unimportant, but for consistency

with the notation used elsewhere in the paper, let us use the L_1 norm. With this convention, we can restate (4.7) as

$$(5.9) \quad \frac{P(\mathbf{X} \in u \cdot)}{P(\|\mathbf{X}\| > u)} \xrightarrow{v} \mu$$

vaguely on $[-\infty, \infty]^d \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$. It was shown by Hult and Lindskog (2006) that under the assumption (5.9) (and with the solvency set L^c given by (5.2)), the ruin probability satisfies

$$(5.10) \quad \lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\psi_{\mathbf{b}, L}(u)}{uP(\|\mathbf{X}\| > u)} = \int_0^\infty \mu(\mathbf{b} - L + v\mathbf{c}) dv.$$

We extend the above result to all ruin sets satisfying Assumption 5.1. To avoid a degenerate situation (and the resulting complications in the notation) we will assume that $\mu\{\mathbf{x} : x_i > 0\} > 0$ for each $i = 1, \dots, d$.

Proposition 5.4. *Assume that the ruin set L satisfies Assumption 5.1. If the claim sizes satisfy (5.9) with $\alpha > 1$, then (5.10) holds.*

Proof. By Theorem 5.2, it suffices to show that

$$\lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\int_0^\infty P(\mathbf{X} \in uA + v\mathbf{c}) dv}{uP(|\mathbf{X}| > u)} = \int_0^\infty \mu(A + v\mathbf{c}) dv,$$

which we proceed to do. By a change of variables,

$$(5.11) \quad \frac{\int_0^\infty P(\mathbf{X} \in uA + v\mathbf{c}) dv}{uP(|\mathbf{X}| > u)} = \frac{\int_0^\infty P(\mathbf{X} \in u(A + v\mathbf{c})) dv}{P(|\mathbf{X}| > u)},$$

and for every $v > 0$,

$$\frac{P(\mathbf{X} \in u(A + v\mathbf{c}))}{P(|\mathbf{X}| > u)} \rightarrow \mu(A + v\mathbf{c})$$

as $u \rightarrow \infty$. In the last step we use (5.9), and the fact that the tail measure does not charge the boundary of sets in \mathcal{R} , shown in the proof of Proposition 4.12. Therefore, we only need to justify taking the limit inside the integral in (5.11). However, by the definition of the set A ,

$$\frac{P(\mathbf{X} \in u(A + v\mathbf{c}))}{P(|\mathbf{X}| > u)} \leq \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{P(X^{(i)} > ub_i + uvc_i)}{P(X^{(i)} > u)}.$$

The non-degeneracy assumption on the measure μ implies that each $X^{(i)}$ is itself regularly varying with exponent α . Therefore, by the Potter bounds, there are finite positive constants C_i , $i = 1, \dots, d$, and a number $\varepsilon \in (0, \alpha - 1)$ such that for all $u \geq 1$,

$$\frac{P(X^{(i)} > ub_i + uvc_i)}{P(X^{(i)} > u)} \leq C_i(b_i + vc_i)^{-(\alpha - \varepsilon)}, \quad i = 1, \dots, d.$$

Since the functions in the right hand side are integrable, the dominated convergence theorem applies. \square

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SCHOOL OF OPERATIONS RESEARCH AND INFORMATION ENGINEERING, AND DEPARTMENT OF STATISTICAL SCIENCE, CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, NY 14853

E-mail address: gs18@cornell.edu

SCHOOL OF OPERATIONS RESEARCH AND INFORMATION ENGINEERING, CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, NY 14853

E-mail address: ys598@cornell.edu