PROCESSES OF rTH LARGEST

BORIS BUCHMANN, ROSS MALLER, AND SIDNEY I. RESNICK

Abstract. For integers $n \geq r$, we treat the $r$th largest of a sample of size $n$ as an $\mathbb{R}^\infty$-valued stochastic process in $r$ which we denote $M^{(r)}$. We show that the sequence regarded in this way satisfies the Markov property. We go on to study the asymptotic behaviour of $M^{(r)}$ as $r \to \infty$, and, borrowing from classical extreme value theory, show that left-tail domain of attraction conditions on the underlying distribution of the sample guarantee weak limits for both the range of $M^{(r)}$ and $M^{(r)}$ itself, after norming and centering. In continuous time, an analogous process $Y^{(r)}$ based on a two-dimensional Poisson process on $\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}$ is treated similarly, but we find that the continuous time problems have a distinctive additional feature: there are always infinitely many points below the $r$th highest point up to time $t$ for any $t > 0$. This necessitates a different approach to the asymptotics in this case.

1. Introduction

In this paper we consider Markovian and other properties of the order statistics of iid random variables in discrete time, and of extremal processes in continuous time. Although venerable these are important issues and research continues to throw up significant new aspects. As a starting point let $M^{(r)}_n$ be the $r$th largest among iid random variables $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ with cdf $F$. (Precise specifications of the order statistics will be given later.) It is known that the finite sequence $(M^{(r)}_n)_{r=1,2,\ldots,n}$ is Markov if and only if $F$ is continuous on $(\ell_F, r_F)$, where $\ell_F$ and $r_F$ are the left and right extremes of $F$ (see [1]). This is a result concerning the first $r$ order statistics. We proceed to investigate the infinitely many order statistics $(M^{(r)}_n, n \geq r)$ beyond the $r$th, and further, derive properties of the whole collection $\{M^{(r)} = (M^{(r)}_n, n \geq r), r \geq 1\}$, considered as an $\mathbb{R}^\infty$-valued stochastic process. Apart from their intrinsic interest the properties we derive bring together a number of areas and techniques, as we discuss later.

Thus, we begin in Section 2 by setting up the notation required for, then proving, the Markovian property, that the conditional distribution of the infinite sequence $(M^{(r+1)}_{r+1}, M^{(r+1)}_{r+2}, \ldots)$, knowing all values $(M^{(r)}_1, M^{(r)}_2, \ldots)$, $(M^{(r)}_2, M^{(r)}_3, \ldots)$, $\ldots$, $(M^{(r)}_r, M^{(r)}_{r+1}, \ldots)$, is the same as the conditional distribution knowing only $(M^{(r)}_r, M^{(r)}_{r+1}, \ldots)$. No continuity assumptions on $F$ are required for this.

In Section 3 we turn to an investigation of asymptotic properties of the collection $M^{(r)}$, for large values of $r$. The weak convergence of $M^{(r)}$, after norming and centering, is related

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to domain of attraction theory for the \textit{minimum} of an iid sequence of rvs. A key tool in these proofs is Ignatov’s [12] theorem showing that the r-records of an iid sequence are points of a Poisson random measure.

This study is continued in Section 4 for continuous time rth-order extremal processes. Some notable differences between the discrete and continuous time situations emerge here. In particular, unlike in the discrete case, in the continuous time case there are always infinitely many points below the currently considered order statistic, and thus the convergence criterion has to be modified. Section 5 concludes the paper with some modest final thoughts and open problems.

We conclude the present section by mentioning previous and related work. For alternative proofs and other background on Ignatov’s (1977) theorem see [9, 10, 12, 21, 26]. Other treatments of the Markov structure of the finite sequence \((M_n^{(r)})_{r=1,2,...,n}\) are in [11], [23] and [2]. The latter two papers show that \((M_n^{(r)})_{r=1,2,...,n}\) is Markov if information on tied values is incorporated into the sequence. For background on continuous time extremal processes we refer to [18, 19, 21, 22]. Additional references are given throughout the text.

2. Markov Property of Higher Order Extremal Processes with Discrete Indexing

2.1. \textbf{Indexing}. Our analysis requires that we keep track of infinite sequences indexed by \(r\) where the first members are being moved further out as \(r\) increases. To cope with this we use the idea of shifted sequences, with first members replaced by \(-\infty\). To see how this works, we start with the sequence space \(\mathbb{R}_-^\infty := \{x = (x_n) : x_n \in \mathbb{R}_-, n \in \mathbb{N}\} \) endowed with the Borel field associated with the product topology. (We employ the notations \(\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}\), \(\mathbb{R}_- = \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty\} = (-\infty, \infty)\), and conventions \(\sum_{\emptyset} = 0, \prod_{\emptyset} := 1, \pm \infty \times 0 = 0\). Also \(\mathbb{R}_-^{\mathbb{N}^r} := \{x = (x_n) \in \mathbb{R}_-^\infty : x_n \leq x_{n+1}, n \in \mathbb{N}\}\) denotes the subset of nondecreasing sequences.) The partial maxima operator \(\vee : \mathbb{R}_-^\infty \mapsto \mathbb{R}_-^\infty\) maps a given sequence \(x = (x_n)_n \in \mathbb{R}_-^\infty\) to its associated sequence of partial maxima \(\vee x := (\vee \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\})_n\). (In the statistical language \(\mathbb{R}\), this is known as \textit{cummax}.)

For a given sequence \(x \in \mathbb{R}_-^\infty\) and \(r \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq r\), let \(m_n^{(r)}\) be the rth largest of \(x_1, \ldots, x_n\), arranged in lexicographical order in case of ties. Then set

\[
x_n^{(r)} = \begin{cases} 
-\infty, & \text{if } n < r; \\
m_n^{(r)}, & \text{if } n \geq r.
\end{cases}
\]

The extremal sequence of order \(r\) associated with \(x\) is the sequence \(x^{(r)} \in \mathbb{R}_-^{\mathbb{N}^r}\), with finite elements \(x_n^{(r)}\) augmented with \(-\infty\) as follows:

\[
x^{(r)} = (-\infty, \ldots, -\infty, m_n^{(r)}, n \geq r).
\]

Write \(x^{(0)} := x\) for the extremal sequence of zero order. The extremal sequence of unit order equals the partial maximum sequence: \(x^{(1)} = \vee x\).
For a sequence \( x = (x_n)_n \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}_\infty \) the shifted sequence \( x_R = (\infty, x) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}_\infty \). For two sequences \( x = (x_n)_n, y = (y_n)_n \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}_\infty \), let

\[
x_R \land y := \{(-\infty)1_{n=1} + (x_{n-1} \land y_n)1_{n>1}\}_n \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}_\infty
\]

be the componentwise minimum of \( x \) and \( y \), taken after shifting \( x \) to the right with proper augmentation with \(-\infty\). Thus, componentwise, when \( x = (x_1, x_2, \ldots) \) and \( y = (y_1, y_2, \ldots) \), we have

\[
x_R = (-\infty, x_1, x_2, \ldots) \quad \text{and} \quad x_R \land y = (-\infty, x_1 \land y_2, x_2 \land y_3, \ldots).
\]

For \( n \in \mathbb{N} \), \( y_n^{(1)} \geq y_n^{(2)} \geq \cdots \geq y_n^{(n)} \) denotes the order statistics associated with (possibly extended) real numbers \( y_1, \ldots, y_n \in \mathbb{R}_\infty \). Clearly, this notation is consistent with the previous.

In Theorem 2.1, we will show a Markov property for the \( r \)th largest of an iid sequence, and since recursions are an effective tool for proving a sequence of random elements is Markovian, we first prove a preliminary result focusing on properties of the shifted sequences.

**Proposition 2.1.** For \( r \in \mathbb{N} \), we have the identity,

\[
x^{(r+1)} = \bigvee (x^{(r)}_R \land x)
\]

or in component form,

\[
x^{(r+1)}_n = \bigvee_{j=r+1}^n (x^{(r)}_{j-1} \land x_j), \quad r \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq r + 1.
\]

**Proof.** Fix an integer \( r \) and we prove (2.3) by induction on \( n \). The base of the induction is \( n = r + 1 \) and the left side of (2.3) is \( x^{(r+1)}_{r+1} = \bigwedge_{i=1}^{r+1} x_i \). The right side is \( x^{(r)}_r \land x_{r+1} = \bigwedge_{i=1}^{r+1} x_i \).

So (2.3) is proved for \( n = r + 1 \).

As an induction hypothesis, assume (2.3) is true for \( n = r + p \) for \( p \geq 1 \) and we verify (2.3) is true for \( n = r + p + 1 \). The left side of (2.3) for \( n = r + p + 1 \) is \( x^{(r+1)}_{r+p+1} = \text{LHS} \). The right side is

\[
\text{RHS} = \bigvee_{j=r+1}^{r+p+1} (x^{(r)}_{j-1} \land x_j) = \bigvee_{j=r+1}^{r+p} (x^{(r)}_{j-1} \land x_j) \bigvee (x^{(r)}_{r+p} \land x_{r+p+1})
\]

and from the induction hypothesis this is equal to

\[
x^{(r+1)}_{r+p} \bigvee (x^{(r)}_{r+p} \land x_{r+p+1}).
\]

Now consider cases:

**Case (a) \( x_{r+p+1} > x^{(r)}_{r+p} \):** For this case, increasing the sample size from \( r+p \) to \( r+p+1 \) means \( x^{(r)}_{r+p} \) becomes \( x^{(r+1)}_{r+p} \). So \( \text{RHS} = x^{(r+1)}_{r+p} \bigvee x^{(r)}_{r+p} = x^{(r)}_{r+p} = \text{LHS} \).

**Case (b) \( x^{(r+1)}_{r+p} \leq x_{r+p+1} \leq x^{(r)}_{r+p} \):** The term in parentheses on the right side of (2.4) is

\[
x^{(r)}_{r+p} \land x_{r+p+1} = x_{r+p+1} = x^{(r+1)}_{r+p+1}
\]

and thus

\[
\text{RHS} = x^{(r+1)}_{r+p} \bigvee x^{(r+1)}_{r+p+1} = x^{(r+1)}_{r+p+1} = \text{LHS}.
\]
Case (c) $x_{r+p+1} < x_{r+p}^{(r+1)}$. We have
\[
RHS = x_{r+p}^{(r+1)} \vee (x_{r+p} \land x_{r+p+1}) = x_{r+p}^{(r+1)} \vee x_{r+p+1} = x_{r+p}^{(r+1)}
\]
and because of where the added point $x_{r+p+1}$ is located, when the sample size increases from $r+p$ to $r+p+1$, the above equals $x_{r+p+1}^{(r+1)} = LHS$.

The three cases exhaust the possibilities and this completes the induction argument. \hfill \Box

2.2. The IID Setting. Now we add the randomness. Let $X = (X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be an iid sequence of rvs in $\mathbb{R}$ with cdf $F$ and set $X^{(0)} = X$. Then for $r \in \mathbb{N}$ the $r$-th order extremal process is the augmented sequence $X^{(r)} = (X_n^{(r)})_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ constructed as in (2.1); specifically,
\[
X^{(r)} = (\overbrace{-\infty, \ldots, -\infty}^{r-1 \text{ entries}}, M_n^{(r)}, n \geq r),
\]
where the $M_n^{(r)}$ are the order statistics of $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$ defined lexicographically as for the $m_n^{(r)}$ in (2.1). Note that $X^{(1)} = \bigvee X^{(0)} = \bigvee X$ is the sequence of partial maxima associated with $X$.

To think about the Markov property for $(X^{(r)}, r \geq 1)$, we imagine conditioning on the monotone sequence $X^{(r)} = x^{(r)}$. For indices where $x^{(r)}$ is constant, say $x$, the structure of $X^{(r+1)}$ should be as if we construct the maximum sequence from repeated observations from the conditional distribution of $(X_1|X_1 \leq x)$. The following construction make this precise.

Let $U = (U_{r,n})_{n,r \in \mathbb{N}}$ be an iid array of uniform r.v.'s in $(0, 1)$. Assume $X = X^{(0)}$ and $U$ are independent random elements. For $m \in \mathbb{R}$ with $F(m) > 0$ the left-continuous inverse $u \mapsto F^{-1}(u|m)$ of the conditional cdf $x \mapsto F(x|m) := P(X_1 \leq x|X_1 \leq m)$ is well-defined; otherwise, if $F(m) = 0$ set $F^{-1}(u|m) = 1_{m > 0}$ with $F^{-1}(u| - \infty) \equiv 0$.

For $r \in \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \ldots\}$ introduce two sequences $\tilde{X}^{(r+1)} = (\tilde{X}^{(r+1), n})$ and $\check{X}^{(r+1)} = (\check{X}^{(r+1), n})$. For the first, we have for $n = 1$ that $\tilde{X}^{(r+1), 1} := X^{(1)}_1 = X_1$ and, for $n \geq 2$,
\[
\begin{align*}
\tilde{X}^{(r+1), n} := \begin{cases} 
F^{-1}(U_{r,n}|X^{(r)}_1) \prod_{1 \leq k \leq r} 1_{x^{(k)}_n = x^{(k)}_{n-1}}, & \text{if } X^{(r)}_{n-1} = X^{(r)}_n \\
\sum_{k=1}^r X^{(k)}_n \prod_{1 \leq k < l \leq r} 1_{x^{(l)}_n = x^{(l)}_{n-1}}, & \text{if } X^{(r)}_{n-1} < X^{(r)}_n
\end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]
so if there is no jump in the $r$th order maximum process we sample from the conditional distribution and if there is a jump, we note the new value that caused the jump. For the second sequence we have $\check{X}^{(r+1), n} := -\infty$ if $n \leq r$ and if $n > r$
\[
\begin{align*}
\check{X}^{(r+1), n} := \begin{cases} 
X^{(r)}_{n-1}, & \text{if } X^{(r)}_n > X^{(r)}_{n-1}, \\
F^{-1}(U_{r,n}|X^{(r)}_n), & \text{if } X^{(r)}_n = X^{(r)}_{n-1},
\end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]
so if there is no jump in the $r$th order maxima at $n$, we sample from the conditional distribution and if there is a jump at index $n$ we note the smaller value at $n - 1$ that the process jumps from. The sequences $\tilde{X}^{r+1}$ and $\check{X}^{(r+1)}$ depend on $X, X^{(1)}, \ldots, X^{(r)}$ only via $X^{(r)}$ and $X^{(1)}, X^{(2)}, \ldots, X^{(r)}$, respectively.
2.3. Identities in Law and the Markov Property. Next we provide some identities in law which will show that the sequence of extremal processes is a sequence-valued Markov chain.

Theorem 2.1. For \( r \in \mathbb{N} \) the following random variables are equal in distribution as random elements in \( (\mathbb{R}^N_{-\infty})^{(r+1)} \) (and hence in \( (\mathbb{R}^N_{-\infty})^N \)),

\[
\begin{align*}
(X^{(0)}, \ldots, X^{(r)}) &\overset{d}{=} (\tilde{X}_{(r+1)}, X^{(1)}, \ldots, X^{(r)}), \\
(X^{(1)}, \ldots, X^{(r+1)}) &\overset{d}{=} (X^{(1)}, \ldots, X^{(r)}, \sqrt{\tilde{X}_{(r+1)}}).
\end{align*}
\]

In particular, \( X^{(1)}, X^{(2)} \ldots \) is a Markov chain with state space \( \mathbb{R}^N_{-\infty} \), with its conditional distributions satisfying

\[
(X^{(r+1)} \mid X^{(r)}, \ldots, X^{(1)}) \overset{d}{=} (\sqrt{\tilde{X}_{(r+1)}} \mid X^{(r)}), \quad r \in \mathbb{N}.
\]

Proof. Indeed, (2.7) follows from (2.6) because

\[
(X^{(1)}, \ldots, X^{(r+1)}) = (X^{(1)}, \ldots, \sqrt{(X^{(r)}_R \wedge X^{(0)})})
\]

(Proposition 2.1),

\[
\overset{d}{=} (X^{(1)}, \ldots, X^{(r)}, \sqrt{(X^{(r)}_R \wedge \tilde{X}_{(r+1)})})
\]

(from (2.6))

\[
= (X^{(1)}, \ldots, X^{(r)}, \sqrt{\tilde{X}_{(r+1)}})
\]

(definitions).

In (2.7) \( \tilde{X}_{r+1} \) depends on \( X^{(1)}, \ldots, X^{(r)} \) only through \( X^{(r)} \), and this holds for all \( r \in \mathbb{N} \). In particular, (2.8) holds, and \( X^{(1)}, X^{(2)} \ldots \) must be a Markov chain.

It remains to show (2.6). For \( r \in \mathbb{N} \) let \( \mathbb{R}^r_{-\infty} := \{ m = (m_1, \ldots, m_r) \in \mathbb{R}^r_{-\infty} : m_1 \geq \ldots \geq m_r \} \) be the space of \( r \)-tuples with nonincreasing \( \mathbb{R}^r_{-\infty} \)-valued components, and introduce a smooth truncation mapping \( \mu_r = (\mu_{r,1}, \ldots, \mu_{r,r}) : \mathbb{R}^r_{-\infty} \times \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^r_{-\infty} \), by setting \( \mu_{r,1}(m, x) := x \wedge m_1 \), and, for \( 2 \leq k \leq r \),

\[
\mu_{r,k}(m, x) = m_{k-1} 1_{x > m_{k-1}} + m_k 1_{x \leq m_k} + x 1_{m_k < x \leq m_{k-1}},
\]

when \( x \in \mathbb{R} \) and \( m = (m_1, \ldots, m_r) \in \mathbb{R}^r_{-\infty} \). Note that

\[
\mu_{r,k}(m, x) \geq m_k \quad \text{for} \quad m \in \mathbb{R}^r_{-\infty}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad 1 \leq k \leq r.
\]

Also, define mappings \( \tilde{\mu}_r = (\tilde{\mu}_{r,0}, \ldots, \tilde{\mu}_{r,r}) : \mathbb{R}^r_{-\infty} \times \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^r_{-\infty} \) and \( \hat{\mu}_r = (\hat{\mu}_{r,0}, \ldots, \hat{\mu}_{r,r}) : \mathbb{R}^r_{-\infty} \times \mathbb{R} \times (0, 1) \mapsto \mathbb{R}^r_{-\infty} \), by setting

\[
\tilde{\mu}_{r,k}(m, x, u) := \mu_{r,k}(m, x, u), \quad 1 \leq k \leq r,
\]

and with \( k = 0, \tilde{\mu}_{r,0}(m, x) := x \) and

\[
\tilde{\mu}_{r,0}(m, x, u) = F^r(u \mid \mu_{r,r}(m, x)) \prod_{1 \leq k \leq r} 1_{\mu_{r,k}(m, x) = m_k}
\]

\[+ \sum_{k=1}^r \mu_{r,k}(m, x) 1_{\mu_{r,k}(m, x) > m_k} \prod_{1 \leq j < k} 1_{\mu_{r,j}(m, x) = m_j}.
\]
for \( \mathbf{m} = (m_1, \ldots, m_r) \in \mathbb{R}^{r+1}, x \in \mathbb{R} \) and \( u \in (0, 1) \).

One can check that the component form of the left and right sides of (2.6) is for \( n \geq 2, \)

\[
\begin{align*}
(2.11) \quad &(X_n, X_n^{(1)}, \ldots, X_n^{(r)}, n \geq 2) = (\hat{\mu}_r(X_{n-1}^{(1)}, \ldots, X_{n-1}^{(r)}, X_n), n \geq 2) \\
(2.12) \quad &((\hat{X}_{(r+1),n}, X_n^{(1)}, \ldots, X_n^{(r)}, n \geq 2) = (\hat{\mu}_r(X_{n-1}^{(1)}, \ldots, X_{n-1}^{(r)}, X_n, U_{r,n}), n \geq 2),
\end{align*}
\]

where \( X_n \perp (X_{n-1}^{(1)}, \ldots, X_{n-1}^{(r)}) \) and \( U_{r,n} \perp (X_{n-1}^{(1)}, \ldots, X_{n-1}^{(r)}, X_n) \) since we assumed that \( \mathbf{X} \) and \( \mathbf{U} \) are independent arrays of iid rv’s. The right sides of (2.11) and (2.12) are Markov chains with stationary transition probabilities in the index \( n \) (new value is a function of the previous value and an independent quantity) and for \( n = 1 \), the left sides of (2.11) and (2.12) have common initial value \( (X_1, X_1, -\infty, \ldots, -\infty) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^{r+1} \). Therefore, to prove equality in distribution in (2.6), it suffices to prove both chains have a common transition kernel.

To see this, let \( X' \overset{d}{=} X_1 \sim F \) and \( U' \overset{d}{=} U_{1,1} \in (0, 1) \) be independent rv’s. For \( x, y \in \mathbb{R} \) with \( F(y) > 0 \) note

\[
(2.13) \quad P(X' \leq y, F^{-1}(U'|y) \leq x) = P(X' \leq y)P(X' \leq x|X' \leq y) = F(y)F(x|y) = F(x \land y),
\]

Consequently, for \( \mathbf{m} = (m_1, \ldots, m_r), \mathbf{m}' = (m_1', \ldots, m_r') \in \mathbb{R}^{r+1}, m_0' := \infty, \) we have for the transition probability,

\[
\begin{align*}
P\left( (\hat{X}_{(r+1),n+1}, X_{n+1}^{(1)}, \ldots, X_{n+1}^{(r)}) \in (-\infty, x] \times \prod_{k=1}^{r} [-\infty, m_k] \right. \\
\left. \mid \hat{X}_{(r+1),n} = y, (X_n^{(1)}, \ldots, X_n^{(r)}) = \mathbf{m}' \right) \\
= P\left( \hat{\mu}_r(\mathbf{m}', X', U') \in (-\infty, x] \times \prod_{k=1}^{r} [-\infty, m_k] \right) \\
= P\left( \hat{\mu}_r(\mathbf{m}', X', U') \in (-\infty, x] \times \prod_{k=1}^{r} [-\infty, m_k], X' \leq m_r' \right) \\
= P\left( \hat{\mu}_r(\mathbf{m}', X', U') \in (-\infty, x] \times \prod_{k=1}^{r} [-\infty, m_k], X' \in (m_k', m_{k-1}') \right) \\
+ \sum_{k=1}^{r} P\left( \hat{\mu}_r(\mathbf{m}', X', U') \in (-\infty, x] \times \prod_{k=1}^{r} [-\infty, m_k], X' \in (m_k', m_{k-1}') \right) \\
= A + B.
\end{align*}
\]

Consider

\[
A = P\left( F^{-1}(U'|m_r) \leq x, \mu_{r,k}(\mathbf{m}', X', U') \leq m_k, k = 1, \ldots, r; X' \leq m_r' \right).
\]
If \( m'_k > m_k \) for some \( k = 1, \ldots, r \), then because of (2.9), the probability \( A \) is 0. So assume for \( k = 1, \ldots, r \), that \( m'_k \leq m_k \). Then the condition \( X' \leq m'_r \) in \( A \) implies \( X' \leq m'_k \leq m_k \) for \( k = 1, \ldots, r \) and using (2.13), \( A \) reduces to

\[
A = P(F^r(U'|m'_r) \leq x, X' \leq m'_r) = F(x \wedge m'_r) \prod_{1 \leq k \leq r} 1_{m'_k \leq m_k}.
\]

For \( B \) we use (2.10) and get

\[
B = \sum_{k=1}^r P(X' \in (m'_k, m'_{k-1}], X' \leq x, \mu_{rl}(m', X') \leq m_l; l = 1, \ldots, r)
\]

Fix \( k \) and suppose \( l > k \). Then the interval \((m'_l, m'_{l-1}]\) is to the left of \((m'_k, m'_{k-1}]\) where \( X' \) is located and \( \mu_{rl}(m', X') = m'_{l-1} \). The probability is then 0 unless \( m_l \geq m'_{l-1} \). If \( l < k \), the order of the intervals is reversed, \( \mu_{rl}(m', X') = m'_l \), and the probability is 0 unless \( m'_l \leq m_l \).

Thus, \( B \) becomes

\[
B = \sum_{k=1}^r P(m'_k < X' \leq x \wedge m_k \wedge m'_{k-1}) \prod_{1 \leq l < k} 1_{m'_l \leq m_l} \prod_{k < l \leq r} 1_{m'_l \leq m_l}.
\]

On the other hand, from the left sides of (2.6) and (2.11),

\[
P\left((X_{n+1}, \ldots, X^{(r)}_{n+1}) \in (-\infty, x] \times \prod_{k=1}^r [-\infty, m_k] \mid X_n = y, (X_n, X^{(1)}_n, \ldots, X^{(r)}_n) = m'\right)
\]

\[
= P(\bar{\mu}_r(m', X') \in (-\infty, x] \times \prod_{k=1}^r [-\infty, m_k])
\]

\[
= P\left((X', \mu_{rl}(m', X'), l = 1, \ldots, r) \in (-\infty, x] \times \prod_{k=1}^r [-\infty, m_k]\right)
\]

\[
= P\left(X' \leq x, X' \leq m'_r, \mu_{rl}(m', X') \leq m_l, l = 1, \ldots, r\right)
\]

\[
+ \sum_{k=1}^r P(X' \leq x, X' \in (m_k, m_{k-1}], \mu_{rl}(m', X') \leq m_l, l = 1, \ldots, r)
\]

\[
= A + B.
\]

This completes the proof of (2.6) and of Theorem 2.1. \( \square \)

3. Asymptotic Behaviour of the Discrete Time Process \( M^{(r)} \) for Large \( r \)

In this section we consider asymptotic behaviour as \( r \to \infty \) of \( \{M^{(r)} = (M^{(r)}_n, n \geq r), r \geq 1\} \) as an \( \mathbb{R}^\infty \)-valued stochastic process. As \( r \) increases we are pushing into values far from the largest, so limit behaviour for both the range of \( M^{(r)} \) and \( M^{(r)} \) itself, depend critically on left tail behavior of the distribution of \( X_1 \). Appropriate left-tail conditions related to
domain of attraction conditions in classical extreme value theory make the range and the sequence of \( r \)th order maxima converge weakly.

Throughout this section we will assume \( F \) is continuous, so the records of \( \{X_n\} \) are Poisson with mean measure \( R \) [21, page 166] which we denote \( \text{PRM}(R) \). The assumption of continuity could be relaxed as in [9, 24, 25] but results are most striking when \( F \) is continuous and we proceed in this setting.

### 3.1. \( r \)th maximum and \( r \)-records

Let \( \{X_n, n \geq 1\} \) be iid random variables with common distribution function \( F(x) \) and set \( R(x) = -\log(1 - F(x)) = -\log \bar{F}(x) \).

Define

\[
R_n = \sum_{j=1}^{n} 1_{[X_j \geq X_n]} = \text{relative rank of } X_n \text{ among } X_1, \ldots, X_n
\]

\[
= \text{rank of } X_n \text{ at “birth”}.
\]

It is known [15] that \( \{R_n\} \) are independent random variables and \( R_n \) is uniformly distributed on \( \{1, \ldots, n\} \); that is,

\[
P[R_n = i] = 1/n, \quad i = 1, \ldots, n.
\]

Considering \( \{M^{(r)}, r \geq 1\} \) as an \( \mathbb{R}^\infty \)-valued stochastic process, we ask what is the asymptotic behavior of \( M^{(r)} \) and its range as a function of \( r \) as \( r \to \infty \)?

Define the \( r \)-record times of \( \{X_n\} \) by

\[
L_0^{(r)} = 0, \quad L_n^{(r)} = \inf\{j > L_{n-1}^{(r)} : R_j = r\}.
\]

The \( r \)-records are then \( \{X_{L_n^{(r)}}, n \geq 1\} \), which for each \( r \), are points of \( \text{PRM}(R(dx)) \) by Ignatov’s theorem.

We list some initial facts about \( M^{(r)} \) and its range.

- For fixed \( r \), \( M^{(r)} = \{M_n^{(r)}, n \geq r\} \) jumps at index \( k \geq r \) iff \( R_k \in \{1, \ldots, r\} \),

so

\[
\{[M^{(r)} \text{ jumps at index } k], k \geq r\}
\]

are independent events over \( k \) and

\[
P[M^{(r)} \text{ jumps at } k] = \frac{r}{k}.
\]

**Remark 3.1.** This has the implication that if we re-index and set \( k = r + l \) for \( l \geq 0 \), then for any fixed \( l \),

\[
P[M^{(r)} \text{ jumps at } r + l] = \frac{r}{r + l} \to 1, \quad (r \to \infty).
\]

So for large \( r \), \( M^{(r)} \) jumps at almost every integer. Define the jump indices

\[
\{\tau_l^{(r)}, l \geq 0\} = \{j \geq 1 : M_{r+j}^{(r)} > M_{r+j-1}^{(r)}\} \cup \{0\}.
\]

Then in \( \mathbb{R}^\infty_+ \),

\[
\{\tau_l^{(r)}, l \geq 0\} \Rightarrow \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}.
\]
For fixed $r$, let $\mathcal{R}_r$ be the range of $M^{(r)}$; that is, the distinct points without repetition hit by \( \{M^{(r)}_n, n \geq r\} \). Then,

\[
\mathcal{R}_r := \bigcup_{p=1}^r \{X_{L(p)}^n, n \geq 1\},
\]

By Ignatov’s theorem \([9, 10, 12, 21, 26]\), this is a sum of $r$ independent PRM($R$) processes and therefore the range of $M^{(r)}$ is PRM($rR$).

To prove (3.1), suppose $M^{(r)}_n = x$, for some $n \geq r$. Suppose the $r$th largest of $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ occurs at $X_i = x$ for $i \leq n$. If the rank of $X_i$ were $> r$, it could not be the case that $M^{(r)}_n = x$. This shows that

\[
\text{range of } M^{(r)} \subset \bigcup_{p=1}^r \{X_{L(p)}^n, n \geq 1\}.
\]

Conversely, suppose $X_{L(p)}^n = x$, so at time $L(p)_n$, the rank of $X_{L(p)}^n$ is $p$. Wait until $r - p$ additional $X$’s have been observed that exceed $x$ and then the $r$th largest will equal $x$.

3.2. Limits for the range $\mathcal{R}_r$ of $M^{(r)}$. Although our primary interest is in the behavior of $\{M^{(r)}, r \geq 1\}$ as an $\mathbb{R}^\infty$-valued random sequence, it is instructive and helpful to discuss the behavior of the range $\mathcal{R}_r$ of $M^{(r)}$.

As a basic result we derive a deterministic limit for $\mathcal{R}_r$. Let $\mathcal{R}$ be the support of the measure $\mathcal{R}(\cdot)$ which corresponds to the monotone function $\mathcal{R}(x) = -\log(1 - F(x))$.

**Proposition 3.2.** As $r \to \infty$, $\mathcal{R}_r$, the range of $M^{(r)}$, converges as a random closed set in the Fell topology \([13, 14, 27]\) to the non-random limit $\mathcal{R}$:

\[
\mathcal{R}_r \Rightarrow \mathcal{R}.
\]

**Proof.** Since $\mathcal{R}_r \subset \mathcal{R}$, it suffices to show for any open $G$ with $\mathcal{R} \cap G \neq \emptyset$, that

\[
P[\mathcal{R}_r \cap G \neq \emptyset] \to 1.
\]

However, $\mathcal{R} \cap G \neq \emptyset$ implies $R(G) > 0$ and therefore,

\[
P[\mathcal{R}_r \cap G \neq \emptyset] = 1 - P[\text{PRM}(rR(G)) = 0] = 1 - e^{-rR(G)} \to 1, \quad (r \to \infty)
\]

since $R(G) > 0$. \(\square\)

The set convergence in (3.2) is to a deterministic limit. Since $\mathcal{R}_r$ is a PRM($rR$) point process, we can get a random limit if we center and scale the $\{X_n\}$ so that the mean measure $rR$ converges to a Radon measure. Recall $R(x) = -\log \bar{F}(x)$.

Assume there exist $a_r > 0$ and $b_r \in \mathbb{R}$ and a non-decreasing limit function $g(x)$ with more than one point of increase such that

\[
rR(a_r x - b_r) \to g(x), \quad (r \to \infty).
\]
For $x$ such that $g(x) > 0$, to counteract $r \to \infty$, we must have $R(a_r x - b_r) \to 0$ and $a_r x - b_r$ converging to the left endpoint of $F$ (and $R$).

We now explain why $e^{-g}$ is related to an extreme value distribution. Remembering that $e^{-R} = \bar{F}$, equation (3.3) is equivalent to
\[
(\bar{F}(a_r x - b_r))^r = \exp\{-rR(a_r x - b_r)\} \to e^{-g(x)}
\]
or
\[
(3.4) \quad P\left[ \bigwedge_{i=1}^{r} \frac{X_i + b_r}{a_r} > x \right] \to e^{-g(x)}.
\]

So we recognize $e^{-g}$ as the survivor function of an extreme value distribution of minima of iid random variables. Expressing this in terms of maxima by setting $Y_i = -X_i$ we get (3.4) equivalent to
\[
(3.5) \quad P\left[ \bigvee_{i=1}^{r} \frac{Y_i - b_r}{a_r} \leq -x \right] \to e^{-g(x)} = G_\gamma(-x),
\]
for some $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$, where $G_\gamma(x) = \exp\{-1+\gamma x\}^{-1/\gamma}$, $1 + \gamma x > 0$ is the shape parameter family of extreme value distributions for maxima [3, 21]. So in (3.3), $g(x) = g_\gamma(x) = -\log G_\gamma(-x)$.

The usual way to write (3.5) is
\[
rP[Y_1 > a_r(-x) + b_r] \to g(x), \quad \forall x \text{ s.t. } g(x) > 0,
\]
and (3.3) is the same as
\[
(3.6) \quad rF(a_r x - b_r) \to g(x), \quad \forall x \text{ s.t. } g(x) > 0.
\]

In particular, apart from centering, we have the cases:

(1) **Gumbel case**: $\gamma = 0$. Then
\[
g_0(x) = e^x, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.
\]

(2) **Reverse Weibull case**: $\gamma < 0$: Then $1 + \gamma(-x) > 0$ iff $x > -1/|\gamma|$ and
\[
g_\gamma(x) = (1 + |\gamma|x)^{1/|\gamma|}, \quad x > -1/|\gamma|.
\]

Adjusting the centering and scaling by taking $b_r = 0$, we find $R$ is regularly varying at $0$ and
\[
rR(a_r x) \to x^{1/|\gamma|}, \quad x > 0.
\]

(3) **Fréchet case**: $\gamma > 0$. Then $1 + \gamma(-x) > 0$ iff $x < 1/\gamma$ and
\[
g_\gamma(x) = (1 - \gamma x)^{-1/\gamma}, \quad x < 1/\gamma.
\]

Adjusting the centering and scaling so the support is $(-\infty, 0)$ we get
\[
rR(a_r x) \to |x|^{-1/\gamma}, \quad x < 0,
\]
which is regular variation at $0$ from the left.
We can apply this analysis to get convergence of $R_r$ after centering and scaling. Recall $R_r$ is PRM(rR). A family of Poisson point measures converges weakly iff the mean measures converge (eg. [20]). So replacing

$$X_i \mapsto \frac{X_i + b_r}{a_r}$$

rescales the points of the range to be Poisson with mean measure given by the left side of (3.3). Let

$$\text{supp}_\gamma = \{x : 1 - \gamma x > 0\}$$

and $m_\gamma(\cdot)$ be the measure with density $g'_\gamma(x), x \in \text{supp}_\gamma$. Let $M_+(\text{supp}_\gamma)$ be the space of Radon measures on $\text{supp}_\gamma$, topologized by vague convergence. Then (3.3) implies the vague convergence

$$rR(a_r(\cdot) - b_r) \xrightarrow{v} m_\gamma(\cdot)$$
in $M_+(\text{supp}_\gamma)$, and thus on $M_+(\text{supp}_\gamma)$ we have

$$\text{(3.8)} \quad (R_r/b_r) \Rightarrow \text{PRM}(m_\gamma).$$

We may realize PRM$(m_\gamma)$ as follows: Let $\Gamma_i = \sum_{j=1}^{i} E_j$ be a sum of iid standard exponential random variables. The $\{\Gamma_i\}$ are points of a homogeneous Poisson process rate 1 on $[0, \infty)$. The measure $m_\gamma$ has distribution

$$g_\gamma : \text{supp}_\gamma \mapsto (0, \infty),$$

with inverse

$$g^{-1}_\gamma : (0, \infty) \mapsto \text{supp}_\gamma.$$  

The transformation theory for Poisson processes (eg. [20, Section 5.1]) means $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \epsilon_{\gamma}(\Gamma_i)$ is PRM$(m_\gamma)$ on $\text{supp}_\gamma$. For instance, if $\gamma = 0$, $\text{supp}_0 = \mathbb{R}$, $g_0(x) = e^x, x \in \mathbb{R},$ and $g^{-1}_0(y) = \log y, y > 0$, and PRM$(m_0) = \sum_{i} \epsilon_{\log \Gamma_i}$.

3.3. Weak convergence of the $r$th maxima sequence $M^{(r)}$. Having understood how to get the range $R_r$ of $M^{(r)}$ to converge, we turn to convergence of $M^{(r)}$ itself. We continue to suppose the minimum domain of attraction condition, so that $R$ satisfies (3.3), and recall $M_+(\text{supp}_\gamma)$ is the space of Radon measures on $\text{supp}_\gamma$, topologized by vague convergence. We start with a preliminary result on the empirical measures generated by $\{X_i\}$ that will be needed to study the weak convergence of $\{M^{(r)}\}$.

**Proposition 3.3.** Assume (3.3). If $N$ is a random element of $M_+(\text{supp}_\gamma)$ which is PRM$(m_\gamma)$, then for any $j \geq 0$,

$$\text{(3.9)} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{r+j} \epsilon_{(X_i+b_r)/a_r} \Rightarrow N = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \epsilon_{g^{-1}_\gamma(\Gamma_i)} = \text{PRM}(m_\gamma),$$
in $M_+(\text{supp}_\gamma)$ and, in fact, jointly for any $k \geq 0$,

$$\text{(3.10)} \quad \left( \sum_{i=1}^{r+j} \epsilon_{(X_i+b_r)/a_r} ; 0 \leq j \leq k \right) \Rightarrow (N_1, \ldots, N)$$
in $M_+(\text{supp}_\gamma) \times \cdots \times M_+(\text{supp}_\gamma)$. 

Proof. We have (3.10) following from (3.9) since with respect to the vague distance \(d(\cdot, \cdot)\) on \(M_\ast(\text{supp}_\gamma)\) (see, eg. [20, page 51])

\[
d\left(\sum_{i=1}^{r} \epsilon(x_i + b_r)/a_r, \sum_{i=1}^{r+j} \epsilon(x_i + b_r)/a_r\right) \Rightarrow 0
\]

for any \(j \geq 0\). To verify this, let \(f\) be positive and continuous with compact support on \(\text{supp}_\gamma\) and from equation 3.14 of [20, page 51], it suffices to show

\[
E\left|\sum_{i=1}^{r} f\left(\frac{(X_i + b_r)}{a_r}\right) - \sum_{i=1}^{r+j} f\left(\frac{(X_i + b_r)}{a_r}\right)\right| \to 0.
\]

The difference is

\[
E \sum_{i=r+1}^{r+j} f\left(\frac{(X_i + b_r)}{a_r}\right) = E \sum_{i=1}^{j} f\left(\frac{(X_i + b_r)}{a_r}\right)
\]

and assuming the support of \(f\) is a compact set \(K\) in \(\text{supp}_\gamma\), this is bounded above by

\[
\sup_{x \geq 0} f(x) j P[X_1 \in a_r K - b_r] \to 0,
\]

since for \(x \in K\), \(a_r x - b_r\) converges to the left endpoint of \(F\) and under (3.3), there cannot be an atom at this left endpoint.

The result in (3.9) follows by a small modification of the proof of Theorem 5.3 in [20, page 138] since (3.3) is the same as (3.6).

Now we turn to \(\mathbb{R}^\infty\)-convergence of the \(r\)th maximum sequence. Continue to suppose (3.3).

Without normalization, the sequence \(M^{(r)}\) converges to a sequence all of whose entries are the left endpoint of \(F\). In order to get \(M^{(r)}\) to converge, we must have \(M^{(r)}_r = \bigwedge_{i=1}^r X_i\) converge and this helps explain why a domain of attraction condition for minima is relevant. The condition (3.3) produces a non-trivial limit.

**Proposition 3.4.** Suppose the domain of attraction condition (3.3) holds. Then in \(\mathbb{R}^\infty\),

\[
M^{(r)} + b_r = \left(\frac{M^{(r)}_{r+j} + b_r}{a_r}\right), \quad j \geq 0 \Rightarrow \left(\bar{g}_\gamma(l), l \geq 1\right) \quad (r \to \infty),
\]

where \(\{\Gamma_l, l \geq 1\}\) are the points of a homogeneous Poisson process on \(\mathbb{R}_+\).

**Proof.** Fix \(j \geq 0\) and observe for \(x \in \text{supp}_\gamma\),

\[
M^{(r)}_{r+j} + b_r > x = \sum_{i=1}^{r+j} \epsilon(x_i + b_r)/a_r(x, \infty) \geq r = \sum_{i=1}^{r+j} \epsilon(x_i + b_r)/a_r((−\infty, x]) \leq j
\]

and therefore

\[
M^{(r)}_{r+j} + b_r \leq x = \sum_{i=1}^{r+j} \epsilon(x_i + b_r)/a_r((−\infty, x]) > j.
\]
For a non-decreasing sequence \( \{x_j\} \) of real numbers in \( \text{supp}_\gamma \),
\[
P\left\{ \bigcap_{j=0}^{k} \left[ \frac{M^{(r)}_{j} + b_r}{a_r} \leq x_j \right] \right\} = P\left\{ \bigcap_{j=0}^{k} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{r+j} \epsilon((x_i + b_r)/a_r, [0, x_j]) > j \right] \right\}
\]
and applying (3.10) yields
\[
\rightarrow P\left\{ \bigcap_{j=0}^{k} [N((\infty, x_j]) > j \} = P\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \epsilon_{g_{\gamma}^{-}(\Gamma_i)}(\infty, x_j] > j; j = 0, \ldots, k] \right\} = P[g_{\gamma}^{-}(\Gamma_{j+1}) \leq x_j; j = 0, \ldots, k].
\]
This yields the announced result (3.11). 

4. Continuous time \( r \)th-order extremal processes

In this section we make the transition to continuous time problems. The treatment is parallel to what we gave for discretely indexed processes but here the processes are generated by two-dimensional Poisson processes on \( \mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R} \) and correspond to \( r \)th order extremal processes as \( r \to \infty \). The continuous time case introduces a different feature from the discrete index case; namely, there are always infinitely many values below your present position. This necessitates differences in treatment, though both discrete and continuous time analyses rely on the presence of embedded Poisson processes. In continuous time we obtain modifications of Brownian motion limits whereas in discrete time we obtain Poisson limits for the \( r \)th order extremes.

The setup is as follows. For some numbers \(-\infty \leq x_l < x_r \leq \infty \), and an infinite measure \( \Pi \) on \( (x_l, x_r) \) satisfying \( \Pi(x_l, x_r) = \infty \) and \( Q(x) := \Pi(x, x_r) < \infty \) for \( x_l < x < x_r \), let
\[
N = \sum_{k} \epsilon_{(t_k, j_k)},
\]
be Poisson random measure on \( [0, \infty) \times (x_l, x_r) \), with mean measure \( \text{Leb} \times \Pi \). The notation \( \epsilon_{(t,x)}(\cdot) \) denotes a Dirac measure with mass 1 at the point \( (t, x) \). Sometimes we write \( (t_k, j_k) \in \text{supp}(N) \) to indicate the point \( (t_k, j_k) \) is charged by \( N \). We assume \( x_l \) and \( x_r \) are not atoms of \( \Pi \) and in fact, results are most striking if we assume \( \Pi(\cdot) \) is atomless. (Otherwise, results would be stated in terms of simplifications of point processes; see [9].) Our assumptions mean that

1. The function \( Q(x) \) satisfies \( Q(x_r) = 0 \) and \( Q(x_l) = \infty \) so \( Q : (x_l, x_r) \mapsto (0, \infty) \) and \( Q(x) \) is non-increasing.
2. For any \( t > 0 \) and \( x_r \geq x > x_l : N([0, t] \times (x, x_r)) < \infty \) almost surely.
3. For any \( t > 0 \) and \( x_r \geq x > x_l : N([0, t] \times (x_l, x]) = \infty \) almost surely.

Traditionally, the (first-order) extremal process is defined by ([4–8, 18, 19, 21, 22, 25, 28]),
\[
Y(t) = Y^{(1)}(t) = \bigvee_{t_k \leq t} j_k, \quad 0 < t < \infty,
\]
the largest \( j_k \) whose \( t_k \) coordinate is at or before time \( t \). Alternatively we may write
\[
Y(t) = \inf \{ x > x_l : N([0, t] \times (x, x_r)) = 0 \} = \inf \{ x > x_l : N([0, t] \times (x, x_r)) < 1 \}.
\]
Here we investigate the analogue of Proposition 3.4 as \( r \to \infty \) for the continuous time \( r \)th order extremal process \( Y^{(r)} := \{Y^{(r)}(t), 0 < t < \infty \} \) defined as,
\[
Y^{(r)}(t) := \inf \{ x > x_l : N([0, t] \times (x, x_r)) < r \}, \quad t > 0.
\]
This means for \( t > 0, x_r \geq x > x_l \),
\[
[Y^{(r)}(t) > x] = [N([0, t] \times (x, x_r)) \geq r],
\]
and therefore,
\[
[Y^{(r)}(t) \leq x] = [N([0, t] \times (x, x_r)) < r].
\]
Alternative ways of considering \( Y^{(r)} \) are in [9].

What is the behavior of \( \{Y^{(r)}, r \geq 1\} \), considered as a sequence of random elements of càdlàg space \( D(x_l, x_r) \), as \( r \to \infty \)? This problem differs from the one considered in Section 3.3 for \( M^{(r)} \). Unlike in Section 3.3, there are always infinitely many points below your current position and thus the left tail condition (3.6) used for \( M^{(r)} \) must be different when considering \( Y^{(r)} \). Analysis of the range of \( Y^{(r)} \) is more complicated and for the behavior of \( Y^{(r)} \) itself, instead of relying on Poisson behavior, we rely on asymptotic normality.

4.1. The range \( \mathcal{R}_r \) of \( Y^{(r)} \). Let \( \mathcal{R}_r \) be the unique points in the set \( \{Y^{(r)}(t), t > 0\} \). As in the discrete time case (3.1), we have
\[
\mathcal{R}_r = \bigcup_{p=1}^r \{ j_k : (t_k, j_k) \in \text{supp}(N), N([0, t_k] \times [j_k, \infty]) = p \}.
\]
To verify (4.4) suppose \( x \in \mathcal{R}_r \). There exists \( t > 0 \) such that \( Y^{(r)}(t) = x \), and therefore there exists \( (t_k, x) \in \text{supp}(N) \) such that \( t_k \leq t \). If \( N([0, t_k] \times [x, \infty)) > r \), then \( Y^{(r)}(t) > x \), giving a contradiction. Thus \( x \) is in the right side of (4.4). Conversely, suppose \( j_k \) satisfies that there exists \( t_k \) such that \( (t_k, j_k) \in \text{supp}(N) \) and \( N([0, t_k] \times [j_k, \infty)) = p \) for some \( p \leq r \). Then there exists \( t > t_k \) such that \( N(t_k, t]) \times [j_k, \infty)) = r - p \) and thus \( Y^{(r)}(t) = j_k \). Therefore, \( j_k \) belongs to the left side of (4.4).

When \( \Pi \) is atomless, the range of \( Y(t) = Y^{(1)}(t) \) is known to be a Poisson process with mean measure determined by the monotone function \( S(x) := -\log \Pi(x, \infty), x > x_l \). This is discussed, for example, in [21, page 183]. In fact, from [9, Theorem 6.2, page 234], the \( p \)-records of \( N \) are iid in \( p \), and each sequence of \( p \)-records forms \( \text{PRM}(S) \). (A \( p \)-record of \( N \) is a point \( j_k \) such that there exists \( t_k \) making \( (t_k, j_k) \in \text{supp}(N) \) and \( N([0, t_k] \times [j_k, \infty)) = p \).)

This and (4.4) allow us to conclude that \( \mathcal{R}_r \) is a Poisson process with mean measure \( rS(\cdot) \).

This achieves the continuous time analogue of the discrete time discussion at the beginning of Subsection 3.2, and without any normalization we have
\[
\mathcal{R}_r = \text{supp}(S), \quad (r \to \infty),
\]
in the Fell topology of closed subsets of \( (x_l, x_r) \).

Paralleling the discrete time analysis, we next proceed by obtaining a non-degenerate limit for \( \mathcal{R}_r \). We have to be more careful in the continuous case. The reason is that \( \mathcal{R}_r \) is \( \text{PRM} \)}.
with mean measure \( rS(\cdot) \) and \( S \) is Radon on \((x_l, x_r)\), and it may allocate infinite mass to a neighbourhood of both \( x_l \) and \( x_r \). Recall \( S(x) := -\log \Pi(x, x_l] \) satisfies \( S(x_l) = -\infty \) and \( S(x_r) = \infty \).

Assume without loss of generality that \( x_l < 0 < x_r \). (If this is not the case, choose an arbitrary point between \( x_l \) and \( x_r \).) We make a treatment parallel to the discrete one by splitting the Poisson points of \( R_r \) into those above \( 0 \) and those below. So write
\[
R_r = R_r^+ \cup R_r^-
\]
where \( R_r^+ \) are the positive Poisson points of \( R_r \) and \( R_r^- \) are the negative points of \( R_r \). The two Poisson processes \( R_r^\pm \) are independent because their points are in disjoint regions. Define the two non-decreasing functions on \( \mathbb{R}_+ \),
\[
\begin{align*}
S^+(x) &= S(0, x] = S(x) - S(0), & 0 < x \leq x_r \\
S^-(x) &= S[-x, 0) = S(0) - S(-x), & 0 < x \leq -x_l.
\end{align*}
\]
Assume there exist \( a^\pm(t) \in \mathbb{R} \) and infinite Radon measures \( S_\infty^\pm \) on \( \mathbb{R}_+ \) such that such that as \( t \to \infty \),
\[
\begin{align*}
tS^+(a^+(t)x - b^+(t)) &\to S_\infty^+(x), \\
tS^-(a^-(t)x - b^-(t)) &\to S_\infty^-(x).
\end{align*}
\]
The form of \( S_\infty^\pm \) is determined by defining probability distribution tails \( \bar{H}^\pm(x) \) by
\[
\begin{align*}
\bar{H}^+(x) &= e^{-S^+(x)}, & 0 < x < x_r, \\
\bar{H}^-(x) &= e^{-S^-(x)}, & 0 < x < -x_l.
\end{align*}
\]
Note \( \bar{H}^\pm(0) = e^{-S^\pm(0)} = e^{-0} = 1 \) and \( \bar{H}^+(x_r) = e^{-S^+(x_r)} = e^{-\infty} = 0 \) and \( \bar{H}^-(x_l) = 0 \), similarly. Then, as in the discussion following (3.3), we find for \( \gamma^\pm \in \mathbb{R} \) that
\[
e^{-S^\pm(x)} = G(\gamma^\pm(-x),
\]
where \( G(x) \) has a form given after (3.5). Note, if we want
\[
a^+(t) = a^-(t) \quad \text{and} \quad b^+(t) = b^-(t)
\]
up to convergence of types, we would need [16], \(-x_l = x_r \) and
\[
\bar{H}^+(x) \sim \bar{H}^-(x) \quad (x \to x_r).
\]

We now summarize.

**Theorem 4.1.** The two Poisson processes \( R_r^\pm \) are independent with \( R_r = R_r^+ \cup R_r^- \) where \( R_r^+ \) has mean measure \( rS^+ \) on \( \mathbb{R}_+ \) and \( -R_r^- \) has mean measure \( rS^- \) on \( \mathbb{R}_+ \) so that \( R_r^- \) are points on \((-\infty, 0)\). As \( r \to \infty \), the range centered and scaled converges to a limiting Poisson process,
\[
\left( \frac{R_r^+ + b^+(r)}{a^+(r)}, \frac{-R_r^+ + b^-(r)}{a^-(r)} \right) \to \left( R_\infty^+, -R_\infty^- \right),
\]
where the limits are independent Poisson processes on \( \mathbb{R}_+ \) with mean measures \( S_\infty^\pm \). So if (4.7) and (4.8) hold, centering positive and negative range points appropriately leads to a
limiting Poisson process such that positive points have mean measure $S^+_\infty(\cdot)$ and negative range points made positive by taking absolute values have mean measure $S^-\infty(\cdot)$.

4.2. Finite dimensional convergence of $Y^{(r)}$ as random elements of $D(x_l, x_r)$. In this subsection, we give a left-tail condition on $\Pi(\cdot)$ guaranteeing finite dimensional convergence of $Y^{(r)}$ to a transformed Brownian motion.

Suppose there exist normalizing functions $a(r) > 0$, $b(r) \in \mathbb{R}$, and a non-decreasing limit function $h(x) \in \mathbb{R}$ with at least two points of increase such that for $a(r)x + b(r) \in (x_l, x_r)$,

$$(4.11) \quad \lim_{r \to \infty} \frac{r - Q(a(r)x + b(r))}{\sqrt{r}} = h(x).$$

Implications:

1. If we divide in (4.11) by $r$ instead of $\sqrt{r}$, the limit will be 0 and therefore,

$$(4.12) \quad Q(a(r)x + b(r)) \sim r, \quad (r \to \infty).$$

Therefore, since $r \to \infty$, we must have that $Q(a(r)x + b(r)) \to \infty$ and $(x_l, x_r) \ni a(r)x + b(r) \to x_l$.

2. For any $t > 0$,

$$(4.13) \quad \frac{r - tQ(a(r/t)x + b(r/t))}{\sqrt{r}} = t \left( \frac{r/t - Q(a(r/t)x + b(r))}{\sqrt{r/t^2}} \right) \to \sqrt{t}h(x), \quad (r \to \infty).$$

3. If we write $r - Q = (\sqrt{r} - \sqrt{Q})(\sqrt{r} + \sqrt{Q})$ and use (4.12), we get

$$(4.14) \quad \sqrt{r} - \sqrt{Q(a(r)x + b(r))} \to \frac{1}{2}h(x).$$

Remember that $Q$ is decreasing and define a probability distribution function $G(x)$ by $G(x) := \exp \{-\sqrt{Q(x)}\}$ so that $G$ concentrates on $(x_l, x_r)$. Then exponentiate in (4.14) to get

$$e^{\sqrt{r}} e^{-\sqrt{Q(a(r)x + b(r))}} \to e^{\frac{1}{2}h(x)}, \quad (r \to \infty)$$

or after a change of variables $s = e^{\sqrt{r}}$,

$$(4.15) \quad sG(a((\log s)^2)x + b((\log s)^2)) = se^{-\sqrt{Q(a((\log s)^2)x + b((\log s)^2))}} \to e^{\frac{1}{2}h(x)},$$

as $s \to \infty$. So we conclude that $G(x) := e^{-\sqrt{Q(x)}}$ is in a domain of attraction of an extreme value distribution for minima. This technique is essentially the same as the one used to study limit laws for record values in [17] or [21].

4. Form of $h(x)$: As we saw following (3.6), if $\exp\{\frac{1}{2}h(x)\}$ plays the role of $g(x)$ then $h(x)$ must be of the form

$$e^{\frac{1}{2}h(x)} = -\log G_\gamma(-x),$$

where $G_\gamma$ is an extreme value distribution for maxima of the form

$$G_\gamma(x) = \exp\{-(1 + \gamma x)^{-1/\gamma}\}, \quad \gamma \in \mathbb{R}, \; 1 + \gamma x > 0.$$
So

\begin{equation}
\frac{1}{2} h(x) = \begin{cases} 
-\frac{1}{\gamma} \log(1 - \gamma x), & \text{if } \gamma \neq 0, \ 1 - \gamma x > 0, \\
x, & \text{if } \gamma = 0, \ x \in \mathbb{R}.
\end{cases}
\end{equation}

Observe that \( h : \text{supp}_\gamma \mapsto \mathbb{R} \) and \( h^- : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \text{supp}_\gamma \). Recalling the definition of \( \text{supp}_\gamma \) from (3.7), we have

\[
\text{supp}_\gamma = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : 1 - \gamma x > 0 \} = \begin{cases} 
(-\frac{1}{|\gamma|}, \infty), & \text{if } \gamma < 0, \\
(-\infty, \frac{1}{|\gamma|}), & \text{if } \gamma > 0, \\
\mathbb{R}, & \text{if } \gamma = 0.
\end{cases}
\]

We apply these findings to obtain a marginal limit distribution for \( Y^{(r)}(t) \) under the left tail condition. Assume (4.11). We show that, for fixed \( t \), \( Y^{(r)}(t) \) has a limit distribution as \( r \to \infty \), after centering and norming. This relies on an elementary fact: if \( \{N_n\} \) is a family of Poisson random variables with \( E(N_n) \to \infty \) then

\begin{equation}
\frac{N_n - E(N_n)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(N_n)}} \Rightarrow N(0, 1), \ (n \to \infty).
\end{equation}

From (4.3), we have

\[
P\left[ \frac{Y^{(r)}(t) - b(r/t)}{a(r/t)} \leq x \right] = P[N([0, t] \times (a(r/t)x + b(r/t), \infty)) < r]
= P[N([0, t] \times (a(r/t)x + b(r/t), \infty)) - tQ(a(r/t)x + b(r/t)) < \frac{r - tQ(a(r/t)x + b(r/t))}{\sqrt{r}}],
\]

From (4.12), \( \sqrt{r} \) is asymptotic to the standard deviation of the Poisson random variable and so the left side random variable converges to a N(0,1) random variable. Using (4.13), the right side converges to \( \sqrt{t}h(x) \). We therefore conclude that under the left tail condition (4.11), for any fixed \( t > 0 \),

\begin{equation}
\lim_{r \to \infty} P\left[ \frac{Y^{(r)}(t) - b(r/t)}{a(r/t)} \leq x \right] = \Phi(\sqrt{t}h(x)), \ x \in \text{supp}_\gamma,
\end{equation}

where \( \Phi(x) \) is the standard normal cdf.

Now we can prove the following finite dimensional convergence.

**Proposition 4.2.** Assume (4.11) holds with \( h(x) \) given in (4.16). Let \( \{B(t), t \geq 0\} \) be standard Brownian motion. Then as \( r \to \infty \),

\begin{equation}
\frac{Y^{(r)}(t) - b(r/t)}{a(r/t)} \Rightarrow h^-\left( \frac{B(t)}{t} \right),
\end{equation}

in the sense of convergence of finite dimensional distributions for \( t > 0 \).
Proof. We illustrate the proof by showing bivariate pairs converge for two values of \( t \). So suppose \( 0 < t_1 < t_2 \) and \( x_1 < x_2 \) are in \( \text{supp}_\gamma \) and we show as \( r \to \infty \),

\[
P\left[ \frac{Y^{(r)}(t_i) - b(r/t_i)}{a(r/t_i)} \leq x_i; \ i = 1, 2 \right] \to P\left[ h_r^{-1}\left( \frac{B(t_i)}{t_i} \right) \leq x_i; \ i = 1, 2 \right] = P\left[ B(t_i) \leq t_i h(x_i); \ i = 1, 2 \right].
\]

(4.20)

We express the statements about \( Y^{(r)} \) in terms of the Poisson counting measure and consider:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\left( N\left( [0, t_1] \times (a(r/t_1)x_1 + b(r/t_1), \infty) \right) \\ &N\left( [0, t_2] \times (a(r/t_2)x_2 + b(r/t_2), \infty) \right) \right) \\
&= \left( N\left( [0, t_1] \times (a(r/t_1)x_1 + b(r/t_1), \infty) \right) + N\left( [0, t_1] \times (a(r/t_1)x_2 + b(r/t_1), \infty) \right) \right) \\
&\quad + N\left( (t_1, t_2] \times (a(r/t_2)x_2 + b(r/t_2), \infty) \right) \\
&= \left( N_1 + N_2 \right) \cdot N_3 + N_4.
\end{align*}
\]

Consider the four terms \( N_i, \ i = 1, \ldots, 4 \) in turn.

1. The term \( N_1 \) appropriately normed converges to 0,

\[
\frac{N\left( [0, t_1] \times (a(r/t_1)(x_1, x_2) + b(r/t_1), \infty) \right) - t_1 \Pi(a(r/t_1)(x_1, x_2) + b(r/t_1))}{\sqrt{r}} \to 0.
\]

The reason is that the centering is

\[
\frac{t_1 \Pi(a(r/t_1)(x_1, x_2))}{\sqrt{r}} = \frac{t_1 Q(ax_1 + b) - t_1 Q(ax_2 + b)}{\sqrt{r}} = \frac{r - t_1 Q(ax_2 + b)}{\sqrt{r}} - \frac{r - t_1 Q(ax_1 + b)}{\sqrt{r}} \to \sqrt{t_1} (h(x_2) - h(x_1)) > 0.
\]

So the left side of (4.21) is of the form \( (N_r - \lambda_r) / \sqrt{r} \) where \( \lambda_r / \sqrt{r} \to c > 0 \) and thus

\[
\text{Var}\left( \frac{(N_r - \lambda_r)}{\sqrt{r}} \right) = \lambda_r / r \to 0,
\]

which verifies the convergence to 0 in (4.21).

2. The term \( N_2 \) becomes asymptotically normal. Let \( Z_1 \) be a standard normal random variable and apply (4.17) and (4.12) to get

\[
\frac{N\left( [0, t_1] \times (a(r/t_1)x_2 + b(r/t_1), \infty) \right) - t_1 Q(a(r/t_1)x_2 + b(r/t_1))}{\sqrt{r}} \Rightarrow \sqrt{t_1} Z_1.
\]

(3) For \( N_3 \), despite its dependence on the variable \( t_2 \), we also find

\[
\frac{N\left( [0, t_1] \times (a(r/t_2)x_2 + b(r/t_2), \infty) \right) - t_1 Q(a(r/t_2)x_2 + b(r/t_2))}{\sqrt{r}} \Rightarrow \sqrt{t_1} Z_1.
\]

This result uses a combination of the reasoning that was used for \( N_1, N_2 \).
as $r \to \infty$. Use (4.3) to write,

$$P \left[ \left( \begin{array}{c}
        Y^{(r)}(t_1) - a(t_1/t_1) \\
        b(r/t_1) \\
        Y^{(r)}(t_2) - a(r/t_2) \\
        b(r/t_2)
      \end{array} \right) \leq \left( \begin{array}{c}
        x_1 \\
        x_2
      \end{array} \right) \right]$$

$$= P \left[ \left( \begin{array}{c}
        N([0, t_1] \times (a(r/t_1)x_1 + b(r/t_1), \infty)) - t_1 Q(a(r/t_1)x_1 + b(r/t_1)) \\
        \sqrt{r} \\
        N([0, t_2] \times (a(r/t_2)x_2 + b(r/t_2), \infty)) - t_2 Q(a(r/t_2)x_2 + b(r/t_2)) \\
        \sqrt{r}
      \end{array} \right) \right]$$

$$< \left( \begin{array}{c}
        r - t_1 Q(a(r/t_1)x_1 + b(r/t_1)) \\
        \sqrt{r} \\
        r - t_2 Q(a(r/t_2)x_2 + b(r/t_2)) \\
        \sqrt{r}
      \end{array} \right)$$

$$\to P[\sqrt{t_1}Z_1 \leq t_1 h(x_1), \sqrt{t_1}Z_1 + \sqrt{t_2} - t_1 Z_2 \leq t_2 h(x_2)] \text{ (as } r \to \infty)$$

$$= P\left[ \frac{B(t_1)}{t_1} \leq h(x_1), \frac{B(t_2)}{t_2} \leq h(x_2) \right]$$

$$= P\left[ h^-\left( \frac{B(t_1)}{t_1} \right) \leq x_1, h^-\left( \frac{B(t_2)}{t_2} \right) \leq x_2 \right].$$

This verifies (4.20). □

5. Final thoughts

The results of this paper suggest some obvious questions the answers to which have so far eluded us. Is there a jump process limit – presumably some sort of extremal process – in (4.19) corresponding to some sort of Poisson limit regime as opposed to the Brownian motion.
limit regime? In Proposition 4.2 is a stronger form of convergence – say in the $J_1$-topology – possible? And so far, the mathematics of proving in a nice way that $\{Y^{(r)}, r \geq 1\}$ is Markov in the càdlàg space $D(0, \infty)$ has not cooperated.

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**Dr. Boris Buchmann, Research School of Finance, Actuarial Studies & Statistics, Australian National University, ACT 0200, Australia**

*E-mail address*: Boris.Buchmann@anu.edu.au

**Prof. Ross Maller, Research School of Finance, Actuarial Studies & Statistics, Australian National University, Canberra, ACT, Australia**

*E-mail address*: Ross.Maller@anu.edu.au

**Prof. Sidney Resnick, School of Operations Research and Information Engineering, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853 USA**

*E-mail address*: sir1@cornell.edu