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One-dimensional Potential Embedding

by R.V. Chacon and J.B. Walsh

Let $B = \{B_{+}, t \geq 0\}$ be a standard Brownian motion from zero. Skorokhod's embedding theorem tells us that if $\,\mu\,$ is a probability measure of mean zero and finite second moment there exists a stopping time T such that $\,B_{_{\rm T}}\,$ has distribution $\,\mu$, and such that $\,E\{T\}\,<\,\infty$. (We say μ is $\underline{\text{embedded}}$ in B.) This theorem has inspired a large number of extensions and ramifications. Notably, H. Rost has shown how to decide if a given measure can be embedded into a given Markov process. In general, one must use randomized stopping times for this embedding, but nonrandomized stopping times suffice in many interesting special cases. For n-dimensional Brownian motion, for instance, one can restrict oneself to natural stopping times as long as the target measure has a continuous potential [1]. The construction of the stopping time in that paper is somewhat complicated to describe in general, but it is quite transparent in the case n = 1, where it serves to prove Skorokhod's theorem. We thought it would be amusing to give an account of this construction: not only is it one of the few places we know of where one can use classical one-dimensional potential theory with a straight face, but the heart of the proof can be explained with four pictures.

Let's recall a few facts about potential theory on the line. The potential kernel is k(x) = - $\left|x\right|$. If μ is a measure on R , its potential U μ is given by

$$U\mu(x) = -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x - y| \ \mu(dy) .$$

Then:

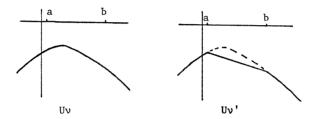
- 1^{O} Uµ(x) is a concave function, finite iff $\int \left|y\right|$ µ(dy) < ∞ .
- 2^{0} If μ is a probability measure with mean zero and if δ_{0} is the unit mass at zero, $\text{U}\mu \leq \text{U}\delta_{0}$. Furthermore, $\text{U}\delta_{0}(x) \, \, \text{U}\mu(x) \, \rightarrow \, 0 \quad \text{as} \quad |x| \, \rightarrow \, \infty \ .$
- 3° If μ , μ_1 , μ_2 , ... are measures such that $U\mu_n(x) \to U\mu(x)$ for all x, then $\mu_n \to \mu$ weakly.

We need one further fact concerning the balayage of potentials.

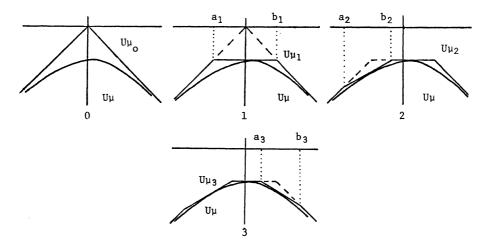
 4° Let ν be a probability measure with finite mean and let [a,b] be a finite interval. Let B be Brownian motion with initial distribution ν and define

$$T_{ab} = \inf \{t : B_t \le a \text{ or } B_t \ge b\}$$
.

Then if ν is the distribution of $B_{T\atop ab}$, $U\nu$ is linear in [a,b] and $U\nu$ = $U\nu$ outside [a,b]:



Now let $\,\mu\,$ be a probability measure with mean zero and let $\,B\,$ be a Brownian motion from zero. We will construct an increasing sequence $T_0 \le T_1 \le T_2 \le \ldots$ of (non-randomized) stopping times increasing to a limit $\,T\,$, such that $\,B_T^{}$ has distribution $\,\mu\,$. Let $\,\mu_n^{}$, n = 0, 1, ... be the distribution of $\,B_T^{}$. The following pictures will explain our construction:



... and the following words will explain our pictures.

Choose $T_0 = 0$, so $\mu_0 = \delta_0$. Then the potentials $\mathrm{U}\mu_0$ (= - $|\mathbf{x}|$) and $\mathrm{U}\mu$ are as shown in 0 . (see 2°). Next, choose an x \ni Uµ(x) < Uµ₀(x) , draw a tangent to the graph of Uµ at x , and let a_1 and b_1 be as in 1 . (The fact that a_1 and b_1 are finite follows from 2° .) Now let $T_1 = T_{a_1b_1}$ (= first exit from (a_1, b_1) .) Then by 4° , B_{T_1} has the distribution μ_1 whose potential is graphed in 1 . Continuing in the same vein, choose another $\,x\,\, \boldsymbol{\flat}\,\,U\mu(x)\,\, \boldsymbol{<}\,\,U\mu_1(x)$, and draw a tangent to the graph of $\mbox{U}\mbox{\upmu}$ at x . If \mbox{a}_2 and \mbox{b}_2 are as in 2 , let T_2 = T_1 + $T_{a_2b_2}$ θ θ_{T_1} (i.e. the first exit from (a_2, b_2) after \textbf{T}_1 . Here, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t}$ is the usual translation operator). Then $\textbf{U}\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $U\mu_2$ are as shown in 2 . At the next step, we set T_3 = T_2 + $T_a{}_3b_3$ $^{\circ}$ $^{\circ$ etc. At each stage, $\text{U}\mu_n$ is piecewise linear and $\text{U}\mu_n \geq \text{U}\mu$. We haven't been too specific as to exactly how we choose the functions $U\mu_n$, and in fact it doesn't much matter. What is important is that we can choose them so that they decrease to the function $\,\text{U}\mu\,$ - indeed, any concave function can be written as the infimum of a countable number of affine functions, and each $\mathrm{U}\mu_n$ is just the infimum of finitely many.

But now $\mathrm{U}\mu_n\downarrow\mathrm{U}\mu$, so that by 3° , $\mu_n\to\mu$ weakly. At the same time, $\mathrm{B}_T\to\mathrm{B}_T$ by continuity, hence the distribution of B_T is μ . It remains t^0 show that $\mathrm{E}\{T\}=\int x^2\mathrm{d}\mu$. The main step in this is the observation that B_t^2 - t is a martingale. However, to conclude from this that $\mathrm{E}\{T\}=\mathrm{E}\{\mathrm{B}_T^2\}$ we need an additional argument to show that $\mathrm{E}\{T\}<\infty$.

There are a number of ways to see this. Here is one in the spirit of this paper, based on the fact that if ν is a measure on the line having mean zero and potential $U\nu$, then $\int x^2 d\nu$ is equal to the area between the curves $y = U\nu(x)$ and $y = U\delta_0(x)$ (= - |x|). (This follows from a direct calculation, for, since $\int x d\nu = 0$, we can write

$$- |y| - Uv(y) = \begin{cases} 2 \int_{-\infty}^{y} (y-x)v(dx) & \text{if } y \leq 0 \\ \\ 2 \int_{y}^{\infty} (x-y)v(dx) & \text{if } y > 0 \end{cases},$$

so that the area between the two curves is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (-|y| - Uv(y)) dy = 2 \int_{-\infty}^{0} dy \int_{-\infty}^{y} (y-x)v(dx) + 2 \int_{0}^{\infty} dy \int_{y}^{\infty} (x-y)v(dx)$$

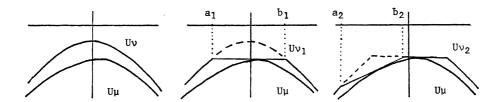
$$= 2 \int_{-\infty}^{0} v(dx) \int_{x}^{0} (y-x) dy + 2 \int_{0}^{\infty} v(dx) \int_{0}^{y} (x-y) dy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} dv .$$

But now, since $B_{t \wedge T}^2 - t \wedge T_n$ is a martingale and $B_{t \wedge T}^2$ is bounded, we can let $t \to \infty$ to see that $E\{T_n\} = E\{B_T^2\}$. This last equals the area between - |x| and the potential $U\mu_n$ of the distribution of B_T , which was itself constructed to be between - |x| and $U\mu(x)$. Thus this area is bounded by the area between - |x| and $U\mu(x)$, i.e. by $\int \!\! x^2 \mathrm{d} \mu$. Since there is clearly equality in the limit,

$$\mathrm{E}\{\mathrm{T}\} = \lim \; \mathrm{E}\{\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{n}}\} = \int \mathrm{x}^2 \mathrm{d}\mu \ .$$

Three remarks are worth adding here. First, Dubins' scheme for constructing the "Skorokhod time" [2] is actually a special case of the above. Indeed, his method gives what is essentially a canonical method for choosing the intervals $[a_n,\,b_n]$. Secondly, we need not necessarily start with the distribution δ_0 . Indeed, if μ and ν are probability distributions with finite potentials, and if $\text{U}\mu \leq \text{U}\nu$, let B_t have initial distribution ν . Then there exists a non-randomized stopping time T for which the distribution of B_T is μ . The proof is by picture:



Finally, if $~\mu~$ does not have a finite second moment but, say, $\int\!\! x^p~\mathrm{d}\mu \,<\,\infty~\text{for some}~~p\,>\,1~\text{,}~~\text{this method yields a stopping time}~~T~~\text{for}~~\text{which}~~E\{T^{p/2}\}\,<\,\infty~\text{,}~\text{though the proof of this last is more complicated.}$

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