MTH 9831. LECTURE 8

ELENA KOSYGINA

ABSTRACT. Connections with PDEs

- 1. SDEs: definition, Markov property of solutions, associated differential operators.
- 2. Feynman-Kac formula.
- 3. Kolmogorov's backward and forward equations.

1. SDEs: Definition, Markov property of solutions, associated differential operators

Definition 1.1. Let b(t,x) be a deterministic d-dimensional vector-valued function on $[0,\infty)\times\mathbb{R}^d$ and $\sigma(t,x)$ be a deterministic $d \times r$ matrix for all $(t,x) \in [0,\infty) \times \mathbb{R}^d$. Denote by B(t) the r-dimensional standard BM. A stochastic differential equation with drift b(t,x) and volatility $\sigma(t,x)$ is an equation of the form

$$dX(t) = b(t, X(t))dt + \sigma(t, X(t))dB(t).$$

A strong solution to (\mathcal{E}) with the initial condition $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a stochastic process $(X(t))_{t>0}$ with continuous sample paths such that

- (i) $X(0) = x \ a.s.;$
- (ii) $(X(t))_{t\geq 0}$ is adapted to the filtration $(\mathcal{F}(t))_{t\geq 0}$ generated by $(B(t))_{t\geq 0}$;
- (iii) $\int_0^t |b_i(s,X(s))| + \sigma_{ij}^2(s,X(s))ds < \infty$ a.s. for $1 \le i \le d, \ 1 \le j \le r, \ 0 \le t < \infty$; (iv) for $t \in [0,\infty)$,

$$X(t) = X(0) + \int_0^t b(u, X(u)) du + \int_0^t \sigma(u, X(u)) dB(u) \quad a.s..$$

Remark 1.2. Often in applications we want to start the process at time t from a given point $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and find $X = (X(u))_{u \ge t}$ such that X(t) = x and for $u \ge t$

$$X(u) = X(t) + \int_{t}^{u} b(s, X(s))ds + \int_{t}^{u} \sigma(s, X(s))dB(s) \quad \text{a.s.}.$$

Some conditions on b(t,x) and $\sigma(t,x)$ are needed to ensure the existence and uniqueness of solutions to (\mathcal{E}) .

Example 1.3. Find a solution to

$$dX(t) = X^{3}(t)dt - X^{2}(t)dB(t), X(0) = 1.$$

Let us try to find X(t) in the form X(t) = f(t, B(t)) for some deterministic function f(t, x). Then

$$dX(t) = df(t, B(t)) = f_t dt + f_x dB(t) + \frac{1}{2} f_{xx} dt$$

= $(f_t + \frac{1}{2} f_{xx}) dt + f_x dB(t)$.

We conclude that f has to satisfy: $f_x = -f^2$ and $f_t + \frac{1}{2}f_{xx} = f^3$. Solving the first equation we get

$$f(t,x) = \frac{1}{x + C(t)}$$

for some C(t). Substituting f in the second equation gives

$$-\frac{-C'(t)}{(x+C(t))^2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{2}{(x+C(t))^3} = \frac{1}{(x+C(t))^3}$$

We conclude that C'(t) = 0, and $C(t) \equiv C$. Therefore, $f(t,x) = (x+C)^{-1}$. Using the initial condition X(0) = 0 we find

$$X(0) = f(0,0) = \frac{1}{C} = 1 \implies C = 1,$$

and $X(t) = f(t, B(t)) = (B(t) + 1)^{-1}$. The problem is that with probability 1, B(t) hits -1, i.e. $P(T_{-1} < \infty) = 1$. Thus, the solution exists only up to the "explosion time" T_{-1} .

To prevent explosion and guarantee the existence and uniqueness of (\mathcal{E}) are it is sufficient that there is a constant K such that for all $t \in [0, \infty), x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

$$|b(t,x)|, ||\sigma(t,x)|| \le K(1+|x|)$$
 and $|b(t,x) - b(t,y)| + ||\sigma(t,x) - \sigma(t,y)|| \le K|x-y|,$

where for any $d \times r$ matrix A we set $||A|| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d} \sum_{j=1}^{r} a_{ij}^2}$. In fact, for d = 1 the conditions can be significantly weakened. (For example, CIR can be included.)

Markov Property. Intuition for d = 1. How can one try to simulate X(t), $0 \le t \le T$? Suppose that X(0) = x is given. Consider a small increment of time δ . Then according to (\mathcal{E}) ,

$$X(\delta) \approx x + b(0, x)\delta + \sigma(0, x) \underbrace{B(\delta)}_{\sim N(0, \delta)}$$
$$= x + b(0, x)\delta + \sigma(0, x)\sqrt{\delta}Z_1, \quad Z_1 \sim N(0, 1).$$

$$0 \quad \delta \qquad k\delta(k+1)\delta \qquad T = n\delta$$

Continuing for $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ we get

$$X((k+1)\delta) = X(k\delta) + b(k\delta, X(k\delta))\delta + \sigma(k\delta, X(k\delta))(B((k+1)\delta) - B(k\delta))$$
$$= X(k\delta) + b(k\delta, X(k\delta))\delta + \sigma(k\delta, X(k\delta))\sqrt{\delta}Z_{k+1};$$

and $Z_1, Z_2, ..., Z_n$ are i.i.d. N(0,1). Then $X(n\delta) = X(T)$ gives us a simulated value at time T. If we could justify passing to the limit (in some sense) as $\delta \to 0$, then the limiting process would give us a solution to (\mathcal{E}) . Moreover, our procedure suggests that the limiting process would be memoryless (\equiv Markov process), since given $X(k\delta)$ we can simulate $X((k+1)\delta), ..., X(n\delta)$ without knowing $X(0), X(\delta), ..., X((k-1)\delta)$. More rigorously, the following theorem holds.

Theorem 1.4. Let $0 \le t \le T$ and h be a Borel measurable function such that the expectations below are well-defined. Set

$$g(t,x) = \mathbb{E}^{t,x} h(X(T)).^1$$

Then for $t \in [0, T]$,

$$\mathbb{E}(h(X(T))|\mathcal{F}(t)) = g(t, X(t)),$$

i.e. solutions to SDEs are Markov process.

¹Take X(t) = x, solve (\mathcal{E}) for $u \in [t, T]$, get X(T), and compute the expectation of h(X(T)), repeat for all $t \in [0, T]$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Get a deterministic function g(t, x).

The proof is omitted.

Interpretation of the drift and diffusion coefficients. Here is a heuristic approach (for d = 1).

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}(X(\delta+t)-X(t)\mid X(t)=x) \approx \\ \mathbb{E}(b(t,X(t))\delta+\sigma(t,X(t))\sqrt{\delta}Z\mid X(t)=x) &= b(t,x)\delta; \\ \Rightarrow \lim_{\delta\to 0} \frac{\mathbb{E}(X(t+\delta)-X(t)|X(t)=x)}{\delta} &= b(t,x). \\ \mathbb{E}((X(t+\delta)-X(t))^2\mid X(t)=x) \approx \\ \mathbb{E}((b(t,X(t))\delta+\sigma(t,X(t))\sqrt{\sigma}Z)^2\mid X(t)=x) &= b^2(t,x)\delta^2+\delta\sigma^2(t,x); \\ \Rightarrow \lim_{\delta\to 0} \frac{\mathbb{E}((X(t+\delta)-X(t))^2\mid X(t)=x)}{\delta} &= \sigma^2(t,x) =: a(t,x) \end{split}$$

From the above, it is natural that b(t,x) is called the drift coefficient and a(t,x) is called the diffusion coefficient.

Let's take the next step. Take an arbitrary smooth function u(t,x). Then looking at the first few terms in the Taylor expansion we get

$$\mathbb{E}(u(t+\delta,X(t+\delta)) - u(t,X(t)) \mid X(t) = x) \approx$$

$$\mathbb{E}(u_t(t,X(t))\delta + u_x(t,X(t))(X(t+\delta) - X(t)) + \frac{1}{2}u_{xx}(t,X(t))(X(t+\delta) - X(t))^2 | X(t) = x)$$

$$= \delta(u_t(t,x) + b(t,x)u_x(t,x) + \frac{1}{2}u_{xx}(t,x)a(t,x)) \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$\lim_{\delta \to 0} \frac{1}{\delta} \mathbb{E}(u(t+\delta,X(t+\delta)) - u(t,X(t))|X(t) = x) = u_t(t,x) + b(t,x)u_x(t,x) + \frac{1}{2}a(t,x)u_{xx}(t,x)$$

$$=: u_t(t,x) + (\mathcal{A}_t u)(t,x),$$

where

(1)
$$\mathcal{A}_t := b(t, x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2} a(t, x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}, \quad (t \ge 0)$$

Similarly, for $d \geq 1$, we set

(2)
$$\mathcal{A}_t := \sum_{i=1}^d b_i(t, x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^d a_{ij}(t, x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}, \quad (t \ge 0),$$

where

$$b^{T}(t,x) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \delta^{-1} \mathbb{E}((X(t+\delta) - X(t))^{T} | X(t) = x);$$

$$a(t,x) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \delta^{-1} \mathbb{E}((X(t+\delta) - X(t))(X(t+\delta) - X(t))^{T} | X(t) = x)$$

$$= (\sigma \sigma^{T})(t,x);$$

Remark 1.5. When b and σ do not depend on t, i.e. b = b(x), $\sigma = \sigma(x)$, X is called a (time homogeneous, or Itô) diffusion process and \mathcal{A} (now it does not depend on t) is called the generator of X.

2. Feynman-Kac formula.

This formula gives a stochastic representation of a solution to a terminal problem for a linear PDE.

Theorem 2.1 (Feynman-Kac formula). Let g(t,x) be the solution of the following terminal value problem

$$g_t + b(t, x)g_x + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2(t, x)g_{xx} = r(t, x)g, \quad (t, x) \in [0, T) \times \mathbb{R}$$
$$g(T, x) = h(x).$$

Let $(X(u))_{t \le u \le T}$ solve (\mathcal{E}) with X(t) = x. Then,

$$g(t,x) = \mathbb{E}^{t,x} \left(e^{-\int_t^T r(s,X(s))ds} h(X(T)) \right).$$

(We assume that some mild integrability conditions are satisfied so that all integrals make sense.)

The idea of the proof. For $0 \le t \le u \le T$, we compute (t is fixed and u is changing)

$$\begin{split} d\left(e^{-\int_t^u r(s,X(s))ds}g(u,X(u))\right) \\ &= -r(u,X(u))e^{-\int_t^u r(s,X(s))ds}g(u,X(u))du + e^{-\int_t^u r(s,X(s))ds}dg(u,X(u)) \\ &= e^{-\int_t^u r(s,X(s))ds}[(-r(u,X(u))g(u,X(u)) + g_t(u,X(u)) \\ &+ b(u,X(u))g_x(u,X(u)) + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2(u,X(u))g_{xx}(u,X(u)))du + g_x(u,X(u))\sigma(u,X(u))dB(u)]. \end{split}$$

Since g solves the PDE, the drift term is 0. Integrating from u = t to u = T we get

$$e^{-\int_{t}^{T} r(s,X(s))ds} g(T,X(T)) - g(t,X(t)) = \int_{t}^{T} e^{-\int_{t}^{u} r(s,X(s))ds} g_{x}(u,X(u)) \sigma(u,X(u)) dB(u).$$

Taking conditional expectation (given X(t) = x), we get

$$\mathbb{E}^{t,x}\left(e^{-\int_t^T r(s,X(s))ds}h(X(T))\right) = g(t,x).$$

Theorem 2.2 (Multidimensional Feynman-Kac formula). Let $a(t,x) = (\sigma \sigma^T)(t,x)$ and assume that g(t,x) satisfies on $[0,T) \times \mathbb{R}^d$ the equation

$$\partial_t g + \sum_{j=1}^d \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} g + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^d a_{ij}(t, x) \frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial x^2} = r(t, x)g$$

with the terminal condition g(T,x) = h(x), $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Then (under integrability conditions)

$$g(t,x) = \mathbb{E}^{t,x} \left(e^{-\int_t^T r(s,X(s))ds} h(X(T)) \right),$$

where $(X(u))_{t \leq u \leq T}$ solves (\mathcal{E}) with X(t) = x; i.e. $\forall j = 1, 2, ..., d$,

$$dX_{j}(u) = b_{j}(u, X(u))du + \sum_{k=1}^{d} \sigma_{jk}(u, X(u))dB_{k}(u);$$

$$X_{j}(t) = x, \quad j = 1, 2, ..., d; \quad t \le u \le T.$$

Example 2.3 (Heston's stochastic volatility model; d=2). Suppose that under $\widetilde{\mathbb{P}}$ the stock price follows

$$dS(t) = rS(t)dt + \sqrt{V(t)}S(t)d\widetilde{B}_{1}(t),$$

where V(t) is a stochastic process and

$$dV(t) = (a - bV(t))dt + \sigma\sqrt{V(t)}d\widetilde{B}_2(t),$$

 $a, b, \sigma > 0$ and $d[B_1, B_2]_t = \rho dt, -1 < \rho < 1.$

• Find the corresponding generator A.

• What does the FK formula say about the solution of

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} + \mathcal{A}g = rg; \quad g(T, x, v) = h(x, v)$$
?

It is easy to find the drift $b(t, x, v) = \begin{bmatrix} rx \\ a - bv \end{bmatrix}$. There are 2 ways to find $||a_{ij}(t, x, v)||$.

I. Find $\sigma(t, x, v)$ and compute $\sigma\sigma^{T}(t, x, v)$. For this, we have to "decorrelate" our BM:

$$d\widetilde{B}_1(t) = d\widetilde{W}_1(t),$$

$$d\widetilde{B}_2(t) = \rho d\widetilde{W}_1(t) + \sqrt{1 - \rho^2} d\widetilde{W}_2(t).$$

where $(\widetilde{W}_1(t),\widetilde{W}_2(t))$ is a standard 2-dimensional BM.

$$\begin{split} dS(t) &= rS(t)dt + \sqrt{V(t)}S(t)d\widetilde{W}_1(t); \\ dV(t) &= (a - bV(t))dt + \sigma\sqrt{V(t)}(\rho d\widetilde{W}_1(t) + \sqrt{1 - \rho^2}d\widetilde{W}_2(t)); \\ \sigma(t, x, v) &= \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{v}x & 0\\ \rho\sigma\sqrt{v} & \sqrt{1 - \rho^2}\sigma\sqrt{v} \end{bmatrix}; \\ \sigma\sigma^T(t, x, v) &= \begin{bmatrix} vx^2 & \sigma xv\rho\\ \sigma xv\rho & \sigma^2v \end{bmatrix}. \end{split}$$

II. Compute directly $||a_{ij}(t, x, v)||$.

$$d[S,S](t) = V(t)S^{2}(t)dt \Rightarrow a_{11}(t,x,v) = vx^{2};$$

$$d[S,V](t) = \sigma V(t)S(t)\rho dt \Rightarrow a_{12}(t,x,v) = a_{21}(t,x,v) = \sigma \rho vx;$$

$$d[V,V](t) = \sigma^{2}V(t)dt \Rightarrow a_{22}(t,x,v) = \sigma^{2}v.$$

Why does this work? Recall our heuristics:

$$\mathbb{E}((S(t+\delta)-S(t))^{2}|S(t)=x,V(t)=v);$$

$$\approx \mathbb{E}((rS(t)\delta+\sqrt{V(t)}S(t)\sqrt{\delta}Z)^{2}|S(t)=x,V(t)=v);$$

$$\approx vx^{2}\delta+o(\delta) \quad \Rightarrow a_{11}(t,x,v)=vx^{2};$$

$$\mathbb{E}((S(t+\delta)-S(t))(V(t+\delta)-V(t))|S(t)=x,V(t)=v);$$

$$\approx \mathbb{E}((rS(t)\delta+\sqrt{V(t)}S(t)\sqrt{\delta}Z_{1})((a-bV(t)\delta+\sigma\sqrt{V(t)}\sqrt{\delta}Z_{2})\delta)|S(t)=x,V(t)=v);$$

$$=\sigma vx\delta\underbrace{\mathbb{E}(Z_{1}Z_{2})}_{o}+o(\delta) \quad \Rightarrow a_{12}(t,x,v)=\sigma vx\rho.$$

 $a_{22}(t, x, v)$ is determined similarly.

Thus,

$$\mathcal{A} := rx\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + (a - bv)\frac{\partial}{\partial v} + \frac{1}{2}vx^2\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \sigma\rho vx\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x\partial v} + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 v\frac{\partial^2}{\partial v^2}.$$

• By the FK formula, $g(t, x, v) = \mathbb{E}^{t,x,v} h(S(T), V(T))$ represents the solution to

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} + \mathcal{A}g = 0,$$

with the terminal condition

$$g(T, x, v) = h(x, v).$$

3. Kolmogorov's backward and forward equations.

Main point: We have a SDE (\mathcal{E}) and its solution X such that X(t) = x. For a given T, X(T) is a random variable, whose distribution depends on parameters of (\mathcal{E}) and also on t, x.

- X(T) has a density denoted by p(t, x; T, y). Here t, x, T are fixed parameters, and to get the density of X(T), you have to consider it as a function of y.
- Variables (x, t) are called "backward variables" as they corresponds to the starting point of the process X: X(t) = x.
- Variables (T, y) are called "forward variables" as y is the "location" of the process at the future time T.

Question: how to find p(t, x; T, y)?

• $(X(u))_{t < u < T}$ is a Markov process, and p(t, x; T, y) is its transition probability density, that is

$$P(X(T) \in B | X(t) = x) = \int_{B} p(t, x; T, y) dy, \quad \forall B \in \mathcal{B}.$$

Remark 3.1. When the coefficients b and σ do not depend on t, that is when b = b(x) and $\sigma = \sigma(x)$, then P is a function of (T - t), x, y (as for BM).

- All in all, p(t, x; T, y) has 2 pairs of variables: (t, x)-backward and (T, y)-forward.
- Kolmogorov's <u>backward</u> equation is the PDE to which p(t, x; T, y) is a solution (with some special <u>terminal</u> data) when T, y are treated as fixed parameters and t, x as variables.
- Kolmogorov's forward equation is the PDE to which p(t, x; T, y) is a solution (with some special initial data) when x, t are treated as fixed parameters and T, y as variables. In particular, the density of X(T) (when X(t) = x and (t, x) are fixed) satisfies the forward equation in variables T, y.

We shall start with the backward heat equation.

Example 3.2 (Backward heat equation).

(3)
$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial x^2} = 0; \quad g(x, T) = h(x)$$

(d=1) $b \equiv 0$; $a \equiv 1 \Rightarrow$ the corresponding SDE is

$$dX(u) = dB(u); \quad X(t) = x.$$

Thus

$$X(u) = x + B(u) - B(t), \quad t \le u \le T.$$

Generator $\mathcal{A} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$, $g(t, x) = \mathbb{E}^{t, x} h(X(T))$ is the solution to (3).

$$q(t,x) = \mathbb{E}^{t,x} h(x + B(T) - B(t)).$$

Since $B(T) - B(t) \sim N(0, T - t)$, we can compute $B(T) - B(t) \stackrel{d}{=} \sqrt{T - t}Z$.

(4)
$$g(t,x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(x + \sqrt{T - tz}) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2} dz.$$

Look at it now from the perspective of p(t, x; T, y),

(5)
$$g(t,x) = \mathbb{E}^{t,x} h(X(T)) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(y)p(t,x;T,y)dy.$$

• If $h(x) = 1_B(x)$ for some set B, then

$$g(t,x) = \int_{B} p(t,x;T,y)dy = P(X(T) \in B|X(t) = x)$$
$$= \mathbb{E}^{t,x}(1_{B}(X(T)))(\text{FK formula}).$$

• Comparing (4) and (5) (setting $y = x + \sqrt{T - t}z$ in (4)), we get that

$$p(t,x;T,y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)(T-t)}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{2(T-t)}},$$

the transition probability density of BM. Informally, p(t, x; T, y)dy is "the probability that the BM that started at x at time t will be in (y, y + dy) at time T".

It is easy to check by differentiation that

- for a fixed $(T, y) \in [0, \infty) \times \mathbb{R}$ the function p(t, x; T, y) satisfies the backward heat equation in variables (t, x) for all t < T and $x \neq y$;
- for a fixed $(t,x) \in [0,\infty) \times \mathbb{R}$ the function p(t,x;T,y) satisfies the forward heat equation in variables (T,y) for all T > t and $y \neq x$.

It is natural to ask whether there are initial conditions which correspond to p(t, x; T, y) in each of these cases. This is the content of the next two statements. In them we denoted by p(t, x; T, y) the transition probability density of a general diffusion process.

Theorem 3.3 (d = 1). Let X solve (\mathcal{E}) on [t, T] and X(t) = x. Let

$$p(t,x;T,y) = \lim_{|B| \to 0} \frac{1}{|B|} P(X(T) \in B|X(t) = x).$$

(|B| is the Lebesgue measure of set $B \in \mathcal{B}$). Then for $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $0 \le t < T$,

(6)
$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + A_t P = 0 \quad (in \ variables \ t, x) \ with \ the \ terminal \ condition \ p(T, x; T, y) = \delta_y(x)$$

The latter means that $\forall f \in \mathcal{C}_B(\mathbb{R})$,

$$\lim_{t \uparrow T} \int f(x)p(t,x;T,y)dx = f(y), \text{ or }$$

equivalently, that for every $B \in \mathcal{B}$,

$$\lim_{t \uparrow T} \int_{B} p(t, x; T, y) dx = 1_{B}(y).$$

((6) is Kolmogorov's backward equation, A_t is given by (2))

Theorem 3.4 (Kolmogorov's forward equation). Define

$$\mathcal{A}_T^*f(T,y) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(b(T,y)f(T,y)) + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}(\sigma^2(T,y)f(T,y)) \quad (adjoint \ operator).$$

Then p(t, x; T, y) satisfies for T > t, $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$,

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} = \mathcal{A}_T^* P$$
, with the initial condition $p(t, x; t, y) = \delta_x(y)$ (in variables T, y, y)

meaning that $\forall f \in \mathcal{C}_B(\mathbb{R}),$

$$\lim_{T \downarrow t} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y)p(t, x; T, y)dy = f(x), \text{ or }$$

equivalently, that $\forall B \in \mathcal{B}$,

$$\lim_{T \downarrow t} \int_{B} p(t, x; T, y) dy = 1_{B}(x).$$

An example to have in mind: X(t) is a standard Brownian motion (d-dimensional),

$$\mathcal{A}_t = \frac{1}{2}\Delta_x = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^d \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i^2};$$

$$p(t, x; T, y) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} (T - t)^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(T - t)} \sum_{i=1}^{d} (y_i - x_i)^2\right).$$

Then the backward equation:

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x P = 0, \quad 0 \le t < T, \ x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

$$\lim_{t \uparrow T} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) p(t, x; T, y) dx = \lim_{\text{set } z_i = \frac{x_i - y_i}{\sqrt{T - t}}} \lim_{t \uparrow T} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(y + \sqrt{2(T - t)}z) \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}} e^{-\frac{||z||^2}{2}} dz = f(y),$$

for all continuous bounded functions f.

Computing the adjoint operator, we get that in this case $\mathcal{A}_T^* = \frac{1}{2}\Delta_y = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^d \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y_i^2}$ and the forward equation is

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} = \frac{1}{2} \Delta_y P; \quad t < T, \ x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

and

$$\lim_{T \downarrow t} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(y) p(t, x; T, y) dy = \lim_{\text{set } z_i = \frac{y_i}{\sqrt{T - t}}} \lim_{T \downarrow t} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x + \sqrt{T - t}z) \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}} e^{-\frac{\|z\|^2}{2}} dz = f(x)$$

for all $f \in \mathcal{C}_B(\mathbb{R}^d)$.