

Connections with PDEs.

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

① Def. 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

$$dX(t) = b(t, X(t))dt + \sigma(t, X(t))dB(t). \quad (\mathcal{E})$$

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

(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  $1 \leq i \leq d, 1 \leq j \leq r, 0 \leq t < \infty$

(iv) for  $t \in [0, T]$

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

Remark: often in applications we need to start at time  $t$  from a given point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and find  $X$  :  $X(t) = x$  and

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

for  $u \geq t$ .

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

Example  $dX(t) = X^3(t)dt - X^2(t)dB(t)$ ,  $X(0) = 1$ .  
Let us try to find  $X(t)$  in the form  $f(t, B(t))$ .  
Then

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

$f$  has to satisfy:  $f_x = -f^2$  and  $f_t + \frac{1}{2} f_{xx} = f^3$

$$f_x = -f^2 \Rightarrow f(t, x) = \frac{1}{x + C(t)}$$

Substituting in the second equation gives

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

$$\Rightarrow C'(t) = 0 \Leftrightarrow C(t) \equiv \text{const.}$$

$$f(t, x) = (x + C)^{-1}$$

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

$$X(t) = f(t, B(t)) = (B(t) + 1)^{-1}$$

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"  $T_{-1}$ .

Typical conditions which prevent explosions and guarantee existence and uniqueness of (E) are

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

for all  $t \geq 0$ ,  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ . In fact, for  $d=1$  the conditions can be weakened (for example CIR is included). Here  $\|A\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i,j=1}^d a_{ij}^2}$ .

Markov property. Intuition. ( $d=1$ )

How can one try to simulate  $X(t)$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq T$ ? Suppose  $X(0) = x$  is given. Consider a small increment of time  $\delta$ . Then according to (E)

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

$\begin{array}{c} | \quad | \quad | \quad | \\ 0 \quad \delta \quad k\delta \quad (k+1)\delta \quad T = n\delta \end{array}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Then } X((k+1)\delta) &= X(k\delta) + b(k\delta, X(k\delta))\delta \\
 &\quad + \sigma(k\delta, X(k\delta))(B((k+1)\delta) - B(k\delta)) \\
 &= X(k\delta) + b(k\delta, X(k\delta))\delta + \sigma(k\delta, X(k\delta))\sqrt{\delta}Z_{k+1};
 \end{aligned}$$

and  $Z_1, \dots, Z_k, \dots$  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  $\delta \rightarrow 0$  then the limiting process would give us a solution to (E). Moreover, our procedure suggests that the limiting process would be memoryless ( $\equiv$  Markov process), since given  $X(k\delta)$  we can simulate  $X((k+1)\delta), \dots, X(n\delta)$  without knowing  $X(0), X(\delta), \dots, X((k-1)\delta)$ .

More rigorously, the following theorem holds:

Theorem 1. Let  $0 \leq t \leq T$  and  $h$  be a Borel measurable function. Set

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

(take  $X(t) = x$ , solve (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  $g(t, x)$ ). Then for  $t \in [0, T]$

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

i.e. solutions to SDEs are Markov processes.

Proof is omitted.

Heuristics:  
Meaning of  $b(t, x)$  and  $\sigma^2(t, x)$  ( $d=1$ )

$$E(X(t+\delta) - X(t) | X(t) = x) \approx$$

$$E(b(t, X(t))\delta + \sigma(t, X(t))\sqrt{\delta}Z | X(t) = x) \\ = b(t, x)\delta ; \quad \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \delta^{-1} E(X(t+\delta) - X(t) | X(t) = x) = b(t, x)$$

$$E((X(t+\delta) - X(t))^2 | X(t) = x)$$

$$\approx E((b(t, X(t))\delta + \sigma(t, X(t))\sqrt{\delta}Z)^2 | X(t) = x)$$

$$= b^2(t, x)\delta^2 + \delta \sigma^2(t, x) ;$$

$$\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\delta} E((X(t+\delta) - X(t))^2 | X(t) = x) = \sigma^2(t, x) =: a(t, x)$$

$b(t, x)$  is called the drift coefficient  
 $a(t, x)$  is called the diffusion coefficient.

If  $u(t, x)$  is a smooth function then

$$\begin{aligned} & E(u(t+\delta, X(t+\delta)) - u(t, X(t)) \mid X(t) = x) \\ &= E\left(u_t(t, X(t))\delta + u_x(t, X(t))(X(t+\delta) - X(t)) + \frac{1}{2}u_{xx}(t, X(t))(X(t+\delta) - X(t))^2 + \dots \mid X(t) = x\right) \\ &= \delta(u_t(t, x) + b(t, x)u_x(t, x) + \frac{1}{2}u_{xx}(t, x)a(t, x)) + \bar{O}(\delta) \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

Similarly, for  $d \geq 1$  we set

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

$$\text{where } b^T(t, x) = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \delta^{-1} E((X(t+\delta) - X(t))^T \mid X(t) = x)$$

$$a(t, x) = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \delta^{-1} E((X(t+\delta) - X(t))(X(t+\delta) - X(t))^T \mid X(t) = x) = (\sigma \sigma^T)(t, x)$$

Remark.

When  $b$  and  $\sigma$  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 PDE. More precisely,

## Theorem 2 (Feynman-Kac formula)

Let  $g(t, x)$  be the solution of

$$g_t + b(t, x) g_x + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2(t, x) g_{xx} = r(t, x) g$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

Since  $g$  solves the PDE, the drift term is 0.  
Then

$$\begin{aligned} e^{-\int_t^T r(s, X(s)) ds} g(T, X(T)) - g(t, X(t)) \\ = \int_t^T e^{-\int_t^u r(s, X(s)) ds} g_x(u, X(u)) \sigma(u, X(u)) dB(u). \end{aligned}$$

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

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

Theorem 3 (Multidimensional Feynman-Kac Formula). Let  $a(t, x) = \sigma \sigma^T(t, x)$

and assume that  $g(t, x)$  satisfies on  $[0, T) \times \mathbb{R}^d$

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

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

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

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

$$dX_j(u) = b_j(u, X(u)) du + \sum_{k=1}^d \sigma_{jk}(u, X(u)) dB_k(u)$$

$$X_j(t) = x_j, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, d; \quad t \leq u \leq T.$$

Example : (Heston stochastic volatility model ;  $d=2$ )  
 Suppose that under  $\tilde{\mathbb{P}}$  the stock price follows

$$dS(t) = rS(t)dt + \sqrt{V(t)} S(t) d\tilde{B}_1(t), \text{ where}$$

$$V(t) \text{ is a stochastic process and } \sim \\ dV(t) = (a - bV(t))dt + \sigma\sqrt{V(t)} d\tilde{B}_2(t),$$

$$a, b, \sigma > 0 \text{ and } d[B_1, B_2](t) = \rho dt, \quad -1 < \rho < 1.$$

- Find the corresponding generator  $\mathcal{A}$
- What does the FK formula say about the solution of  $\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} + \mathcal{A}g = rg$  ;  $g(T, x, v) = h(x, v)$ ?

It is easy to find the drift  $b(t, x, v) = \begin{pmatrix} rx \\ a - bv \end{pmatrix}$ .

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

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

$$d\tilde{B}_2(t) = \rho d\tilde{W}_1(t) + \sqrt{1-\rho^2} d\tilde{W}_2(t), \text{ where}$$

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

$$dS(t) = rS(t)dt + \sqrt{V(t)} S(t) d\tilde{W}_1(t)$$

$$dV(t) = (a - bV(t))dt + \sigma\sqrt{V(t)} (\rho d\tilde{W}_1(t) + \sqrt{1-\rho^2} d\tilde{W}_2(t))$$

$$\sigma(t, x, v) = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{v}x & 0 \\ \rho\sigma\sqrt{v} & \sqrt{1-\rho^2}\sigma\sqrt{v} \end{pmatrix}$$



$$\sigma\sigma^T(t, x, v) = \begin{pmatrix} vx^2 & \sigma x v \rho \\ \sigma x v \rho & \sigma^2 v \end{pmatrix}$$

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:

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

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

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

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

$$\approx E((rs(t)\delta + \sqrt{V(t)}S(t)\sqrt{\delta}Z_1)((a - bV(t))\delta + \sigma\sqrt{V(t)}\sqrt{\delta}Z_2) | S(t)=x, V(t)=v)$$

$$= \underbrace{\sigma vx \delta E(Z_1 Z_2)}_{\rho} + \bar{o}(\delta) \Rightarrow a_{12}(t, x, v) = \sigma vx \rho.$$

$a_{22}(t, x, v)$  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

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} + \mathcal{A}g = 0 \quad \text{with the terminal condition}$$

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

### ③ Kolmogorov backward and forward equations.

Main point: we have an SDE  $(E)$  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  $(E)$  and also on  $t, x$ .

- $X(T)$  has a density denoted by

$p(\underline{t}, \underline{x}; \underline{T}, y)$ . Here  $\underline{t}, \underline{x}, \underline{T}$  are fixed parameters, and to get the density of  $X(T)$  you have to consider it as a function of  $y$ .

Question: how to find this density?

- Variables  $(x, t)$  are called "backward variables" as they correspond 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 a future time  $T$ .
- $(X(u))_{t \leq u \leq T}$  is a Markov process, and  $p(t, x; T, y)$  is its transition probability density, that is

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

Remark. When the coefficients  $b$  and  $\sigma$  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 backward equation is the PDE to which  $p(t, x; \underline{T}, \underline{y})$  is a solution (with some special terminal data) when  $T, y$  are treated as fixed parameters and  $t, x$  as variables.
  - Kolmogorov forward equation is the PDE to which  $p(\underline{t}, \underline{x}; T, y)$  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  $X(T)$  satisfies the forward equation in variables  $T, y$ .

Example. (heat equation)

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

( $d=1$ )  $b \equiv 0 ; a \equiv 1 \Rightarrow$  the corresponding SDE is  $dX(u) = dB(u) ; X(t) = x$

Thus  $X(u) = x + B(u) - B(t), \quad t \leq u \leq T$

Generator

$$A = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}.$$

$g(t, x) = \mathbb{E}^{t, x} h(X(T))$  - solution to (3).

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

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

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

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

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

$$(5) \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) p(t, x; T, y) dy$$

• If  $h(x) = \mathbb{1}_B(x)$  for some set  $B$  then

$$\begin{aligned} g(t, x) &= \int_B p(t, x; T, y) dy = P(X(T) \in B | X(t) = x) \\ &= \mathbb{E}^{t, x}(\mathbb{1}_B(X(T))) \quad (\text{FK formula}) \end{aligned}$$

• Comparing (4) & (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;

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

(d=1) Theorem. Let  $X$  solve (E) on  $[t, T]$  and  $X(t) = x$ . Let

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

( $|B|$  is the Lebesgue measure of set  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ )

Then for  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $0 \leq t < T$

(6)  $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \mathcal{A}_t p = 0$  with the terminal condition (in variables  $t, x$ )  $p(T, x; T, y) = \delta_y(x)$ .

The latter means that  $\forall f \in C_b(\mathbb{R})$

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

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 backward equation,  $\mathcal{A}$  is given by (2), p. 5 )

Theorem. (Kolmogorov forward equation)

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

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

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = A^* p \quad \text{with the initial condition} \\ p(t, x; t, y) = \delta_x(y),$$

(in variables  $T, y$ )

meaning that  $\forall f \in C_b(\mathbb{R})$

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

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),  $A_t = \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i^2}$ .

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

Then the backward equation:  $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x p = 0, 0 \leq t < T, x \in \mathbb{R}^d$

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

set  $z_i = \frac{x_i - y_i}{\sqrt{T-t}}$

for all continuous bounded functions  $f$ .

Computing the adjoint operator we get that

in this case  $A_T^* = \frac{1}{2} \Delta_y = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y_i^2}$  and  
the forward equation is

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

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

set  $z_i = \frac{y_i - x_i}{\sqrt{T-t}}$

for all  $f \in C_b(\mathbb{R}^d)$ .