Keywords: Diffusion equation, regular bounded domain

## 1 Motivation

# **2** Solution on $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$

In this Section we will demonstrate the method outlined in Section 1 where the solution is defined on a bounded interval on  $\mathbb{R}$ . In this case, we have the true solution to the diffusion equation. We will compare the asymptotic expansion to the true solutio.

The PDE we will solve is the following BC/IC problem

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}q(x,t) = \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}q(x,t),\tag{1}$$

$$q(x,0) = \delta_{x_0}(x), \tag{2}$$

$$q(a,t) = q(b,t) = 0.$$
 (i.e.  $\Omega = [a,b]$ )

Without loss of generality we will assume

$$a = 0,$$
  $b = 1.$ 

Problem (1) - (3) can be solved in a variety of ways. We will use the method of images, which repeatedly reflects the fundamental solution

$$q_{fundamental}(x,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2 t}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2 t}(x - x_0)^2\right\}$$

about the boundary points *a* and *b*. The steps for the full solutions are as follows:

- Step 1: Select a kernel f(x|t) for the basis expansion,
- Step 2: Perform Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization on the polynomials basis,
- Step 3: Compute the weight for each basis element,
- Step 4: Profit.

#### 2.1 A suitable kernel for the basis elements

As noted in the motivating Section 1, the kernel we will use must be in  $C^{\infty}(a,b)$ , and it must obey the boundary conditions. Moreover, the basis kernel must be chosen such that

- i) derivatives f'(x) can be computed easily,
- ii) integrals  $\int_{\Omega} x^m f(x|t)^2 dx$  can be computed easily

Consideration i) suggests that f(x|t) should be of polynomial form. Consideration ii) suggests that f(x|t) should be a known pdf over [a,b], taking on zero at a and b. Given these requirements, the Beta distribution comes to mind:

$$f(x|t,\alpha,\beta) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1},$$

where  $B(\alpha, \beta)$  is the beta function. Our choice for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  is not very restricted. However, we will outline a few heuristics by which we can choose these parameters. Note that there may exist and optimal choise for  $(\alpha, \beta)$  in terms of the accuracy of the asymptotic expansion with respect to the true solution q(x,t). However, we will not prove anything in this vein here.

First, as long as

$$\alpha, \beta > 1,$$
 (4)

the mode for the distribution is guaranteed to exist, so that the boundary conditions are met.

Aside from  $\alpha > 1$  and  $\beta > 1$ , we can pick any  $(\alpha, \beta)$  pair for our kernel. However, given that f(x|t) can be thought of as implicitly dependent upon t, and that the variance of the fundamental solution is  $\sigma^2 t$ , a first, reasonable guess for  $(\alpha, \beta)$  can be given by the solution to the equation:

$$\operatorname{Var}[X] := \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)} = \sigma^2 t,$$

$$p(X \in dx) = f(x|t,\alpha,\beta).$$
(5)

By the same logic, noting the mean for the fundamental solution, we can require

$$E[X] := \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} = x_0,$$

$$p(X \in dx) = f(x|t, \alpha, \beta).$$
(6)

Finally, we may require that  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}$ , since this will guarantee that

$$\frac{\partial^k}{\partial x^k} f(x|t,\alpha,\beta) = 0$$

for large enough k. [georgid: This may not prove important, but I will keep it here anyway]

Thus, to set  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we simultaneously solve (5) and (6), then round  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  to the closest integer greater than or equal to 2. Since  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are dependent upon t, we will keep t in our notation for f, albeit implicitly. In other words, once we choose  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we will not be able to take derivatives of f with respect to t. We will denote the kernel as  $f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)$ .

## 2.2 Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization on the polynomials basis

The family of (polynomial) functions  $\{x^m f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\}_{m=0}^{\infty}$  spans the space of  $L^2([a,b])$  functions. We generate the basis elements  $\{u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\}_{m=0}^{\infty}$  by setting

$$v_0(x|\alpha,\beta;t) = f(x|\alpha,\beta;t),$$

$$u_0(x|\alpha,\beta;t) = \frac{f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)}{\|f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\|},$$
(7)

$$||f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)|| \equiv \left(\int_{\Omega} f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)^2 dx\right)^{1/2}.$$
 (8)

The integral in (8) is easy to compute because of the form we have chosen for the kernel *f* :

$$\begin{split} \int_{\Omega} f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)^2 dx &= \int_{\Omega} \left( \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1} \right)^2 dx, \\ &= \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)^2} x^{(2\alpha-1)-1} (1-x)^{(2\beta-1)-1} dx, \\ &= \frac{B(2\alpha-1,2\beta-1)}{B(\alpha,\beta)^2}, \\ \left( \int_{\Omega} f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)^2 dx \right)^{1/2} &= \sqrt{\frac{B(2\alpha-1,2\beta-1)}{B(\alpha,\beta)^2}}. \end{split}$$

Next, for  $u_1(x; \alpha, \beta; t)$ ,

$$v_1(x|\alpha,\beta;t) = xf(x|\alpha,\beta;t) - \langle xf(x|\alpha,\beta;t)|u_0(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\rangle u_0(x|\alpha,\beta;t)$$
(9)

$$= \left(x - \frac{\langle x f(x|\alpha, \beta; t) | u_0(x|\alpha, \beta; t) \rangle}{\|f(x|\alpha, \beta; t)\|}\right) f(x|\alpha, \beta; t)$$
(10)

$$\langle xf(x|\alpha,\beta;t)|u_0(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\rangle = \int_{\Omega} \frac{xf(x|\alpha,\beta;t)^2}{\|f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\|} = \frac{1}{\|f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\|} \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)^2} x^{2\alpha-1} (1-x)^{(2\beta-1)-1} dx \tag{11}$$

$$u_1(x|\alpha,\beta;t) = \frac{v_1(x|\alpha,\beta;t)}{\|v_1(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\|}$$
(12)

$$\|v_1(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\| = \int_{\Omega} \left( x - \frac{\langle xf(x|\alpha,\beta;t)|u_0(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\rangle}{\|f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\|} \right)^2 f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)^2 dx \tag{13}$$

$$u_1(x|\alpha,\beta;t) = \frac{v_1(x|\alpha,\beta;t)}{\|v_1(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\|} = p_1(x)f(x|\alpha,\beta;t),$$
(14)

where  $p_1(x)$  is a first-order polynomial. In general,

$$v_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t) = x^m f(x|\alpha,\beta;t) - \sum_{m'=0}^{m-1} \langle x^m f(x|\alpha,\beta;t) | u_{m'}(x|\alpha,\beta;t) \rangle u_{m'}(x|\alpha,\beta;t)$$
$$u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t) = \frac{v_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t)}{\|v_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\|} \equiv p_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t) f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)$$

In finding the basis, we will have to perform two main types calcluations:

- 1) polynomial multiplication:  $p_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t)p_n(x|\alpha,\beta;t)$
- 2) integration of the form:  $\int_{\Omega} x^m f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)^2 dx$

In R, the package mpoly will be used to handle 1). Calculation 2) can be performed relatively easily due to the form of  $f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)$ , as show in (15).

$$\int_{\Omega} x^{m} f(x|\alpha,\beta;t)^{2} dx = \int_{\Omega} x^{m} \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)^{2}} x^{2\alpha-2} (1-x)^{2\beta-2} dx = \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)^{2}} \int_{\Omega} x^{2\alpha+m-2} (1-x)^{2\beta-2} dx = \frac{B(2\alpha+m-1,2\beta-1)}{B(\alpha,\beta)^{2}}$$
(15)

# 2.3 Computing the Weights of the Basis Elements

Given the set of orthonormal functions  $\{u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t)\}_{m=0}^{\infty}$  spanning  $L^2([a,b])$ , and assuming that  $q(x,t) \in L^2([a,b])$ , we can write down

$$q(x,t) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} c_m u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t), \tag{16}$$

with 
$$c_m = \int_{\Omega} q(x,t) u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t) dx$$
. (17)

Since each  $u_m$  is the product of two polynomials,  $u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t) \in C^{\infty}([a,b])$  and is square-integrable. Therefore, we can write

$$\int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial^k \delta_{x_0}(x)}{\partial x^2} u_m(x|\alpha, \beta; t) dx = (-1)^k \int_{\Omega} \delta_{x_0}(x) \frac{\partial^k u_m(x|\alpha, \beta; t)}{\partial x^k} dx = (-1)^k \left. \frac{\partial^k u_m(x|\alpha, \beta; t)}{\partial x^k} \right|_{x=x_0}$$
(18)

Equipped with (18) and that  $q(x,0) = \delta_{x_0}(x)$ , we can compute the integrals in (17) by using the Taylor expansion of q(x,t) about t = 0:

$$\begin{split} c_m(t;\alpha,\beta,x_0) &= \int_{\Omega} q(x,t) u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t) dx = \int_{\Omega} \left[ \underbrace{q(x,0)}_{\delta_{x_0}(x)} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} \frac{\partial^k q(x,t)}{\partial t^k} \Big|_{t=0} \right] u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t) dx \\ &= \int_{\Omega} \delta_{x_0}(x) u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t) dx + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial^k q(x,t)}{\partial t^k} \Big|_{t=0} u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t) dx \\ &= \int_{\Omega} \delta_{x_0}(x) u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t) dx + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} \int_{\Omega} \left( \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \right)^k \frac{\partial^{2k} \delta_{x_0}(x)}{\partial x^{2k}} u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t) dx \\ &= u_m(x_0|\alpha,\beta;t) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} (-1)^{2k} \left( \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \right)^k \int_{\Omega} \delta_{x_0}(x) \frac{\partial^{2k} u_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t)}{\partial x^{2k}} dx \\ &= u_m(x_0|\alpha,\beta;t) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} (-1)^{2k} \left( \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \right)^k \frac{\partial^{2k} u_m(x_0|\alpha,\beta;t)}{\partial x^{2k}} \\ &= u_m(x_0|\alpha,\beta;t) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} \left( \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \right)^k \frac{\partial^{2k} u_m(x_0|\alpha,\beta;t)}{\partial x^{2k}}. \end{split}$$

Note that

$$\begin{split} u_m^{(k)}(x|\alpha,\beta;t) &= \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} p_m^{(j)}(x|\alpha,\beta;t) f^{(k-j)}(x|\alpha,\beta;t) \\ f'(x|\alpha,\beta;t) &= \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)} \left[ (\alpha-1) x^{\alpha-2} (1-x)^{\beta-1} + (\beta-1) x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-2} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)} \left[ (\alpha-1) B(\alpha-1,\beta) f(x|\alpha-1,\beta;t) + (\beta-1) B(\alpha,\beta-1) f(x|\alpha,\beta-1;t) \right] \end{split}$$

The  $k^{th}$  order derivative of the polynomial  $p_m(x|\alpha,\beta;t)$  can be computed on the fly with mpoly. The recursive definition of

## 3 Another Kernel Choice

Another suitable kernel choise the bump function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{1-x^2}\right\}, & \text{if } |x| < 1\\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (19)

In thise case,  $f \in C^{\infty}(-1,1)$ . As outlined perviously, we need to compute

$$f^{(k)}(x), \int_{-1}^{1} x^m f(x)^2 dx$$

For the first calculation, note that

$$f'(x) = f(x)(1-x^2)^{-2}(-2x) \equiv f(x)P_{1,0}(x)^{-1}P_{1,1}(x)$$

Assuming that

$$f^{(k)}(x) = f(x)P_{k,0}(x)^{-1}P_{k,1}(x),$$

we have that

$$f^{(k+1)}(x) = f'(x)P_{k,0}(x)^{-1}P_{k,1}(x)$$

$$+f(x) \left[ -P_{k,0}(x)^{-2}P'_{k,0}(x)P_{k,1}(x) + P_{k,0}(x)^{-1}P'_{k,1}(x) \right]$$

$$= \left( f(x)P_{1,0}(x)^{-1}P_{1,1}(x) \right) P_{k,0}(x)^{-1}P_{k,1}(x)$$

$$+f(x)P_{k,0}(x)^{-2} \left[ -P'_{k,0}(x)P_{k,1}(x) + P_{k,0}(x)P'_{k,1}(x) \right]$$

$$= f(x) \left( P_{k,0}(x)P_{1,0}(x) \right)^{-1} P_{1,1}(x)P_{k,1}(x)$$

$$+f(x)P_{k,0}(x)^{-2} \left[ -P'_{k,0}(x)P_{k,1}(x) + P_{k,0}(x)P'_{k,1}(x) \right]$$

$$+f(x)P_{k,0}(x)^{-2} \left[ -P'_{k,0}(x)P_{k,1}(x) + P_{k,0}(x)P'_{k,1}(x) \right]$$

$$f^{(k+1)}(x) = f(x) \left[ P_{k,0}(x) P_{1,0}(x) P_{k,0}(x)^2 \right]^{-1} \left( P_{1,1}(x) P_{k,1}(x) P_{k,0}(x)^2 + P_{k,0}(x) P_{1,0}(x) \left[ -P'_{k,0}(x) P_{k,1}(x) + P_{k,0}(x) P'_{k,1}(x) \right] \right)$$

$$P_{k+1,0} = P_{k,0}(x) P_{1,0}(x) P_{k,0}(x)^2$$

$$P_{k+1,1} = P_{1,1}(x) P_{k,1}(x) P_{k,0}(x)^2 + P_{k,0}(x) P_{1,0}(x) \left[ -P'_{k,0}(x) P_{k,1}(x) + P_{k,0}(x) P'_{k,1}(x) \right]$$

## 4 Mesh-Free Finite Element Method

Here we take a similar approach, where we seek the *weak solution* of the PDE (1) - (3). A weak solution is any function  $q_{weak}(x,t)$  where, for any  $\phi(x) \in C_0^{\infty}(\Omega)$ ,

$$\int_{\Omega} \partial_t q_{weak}(x,t) \phi(x) dx - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \int_{\Omega} \partial_x^2 q_{weak}(x,t) \phi(x) dx = 0.$$
 (20)

We can relax the definition of a weak solution in the following way. Consider a countable family of functions, or elements,  $\{\psi_k(x)\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  dense in the space of all  $L_2(\Omega)$  functions. It can be shown that a function is a weak solution to the problem if (20) holds for each  $\psi_k(x)$ . In other words,

$$\int_{\Omega} \partial_t q_{weak}(x,t) \psi_k(x) dx - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \int_{\Omega} \partial_x^2 q_{weak}(x,t) \psi_k(x) dx = 0.$$
 (21)

It should be noted that each element  $\psi_k(x)$  need not be  $C_0^{\infty}(\Omega)$ . In fact, under the Ritz method,  $\psi_k(x) \in C_0^1(\Omega)$  in the weak sense. As long as the basis elements are dense in  $L_2$  and they satisfy the boundary conditions, we can solve the problem in the weak formulation. This can be proved using Friedrichs' mollification (See exercise 2.12 in Zeidler [1998]). Furthermore, we can show that the weak solution converges to the classical solution. In application, we restrict ourselves to a subset of  $\{\psi_k(x)\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ :

$$\{\psi_k(x)\}_{k=1}^K,$$

applying (21) only to elements  $\psi_1(x)$  through  $\psi_K(x)$ . For the purposes of this section, we will work with a finite family of basis elements which are orthonormal (this can be achieved by following the Gram-Schmidt procedure outlined above). Further, we impose the form for the approximate solution  $q_K(x,t)$ :

$$q_K(x,t) = \sum_{k=1}^K \xi_k(t) \psi_k(x).$$

Plugging into (21),

$$\begin{split} &\int_{\Omega} \sum_{k=1}^K (\partial_t \xi_k(t)) \psi_k(x) \psi_l(x) \, dx - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \int_{\Omega} \sum_{k=1}^K \xi_k(t) (\partial_x^2 \psi_k(x)) \psi_l(x) \, dx = 0, \\ &\sum_{k=1}^K (\partial_t \xi_k(t)) \int_{\Omega} \psi_k(x) \psi_l(x) \, dx - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^K \xi_k(t) \int_{\Omega} (\partial_x^2 \psi_k(x)) \psi_l(x) \, dx = 0. \end{split}$$

Using the boundary conditions and integration by parts,

$$\int_{\Omega} (\partial_x^2 \psi_k(x)) \psi_l(x) dx = -\int_{\Omega} \partial_x \psi_k(x) \partial_x \psi_l(x) dx.$$

Using the orthonormality of  $\psi_k(x)$ ,

$$\int_{\Omega} \Psi_k(x) \Psi_l(x) dx = \delta(k-l).$$

The solution condition then becomes

$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} (\partial_t \xi_k(t)) \delta(k-l) + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{K} \xi_k(t) \int_{\Omega} \partial_x \psi_k(x) \partial_x \psi_l(x) dx = 0.$$
 (22)

Defining

$$\xi(t) = (\xi_1(t), \dots, \xi_K(t))^T,$$
  $\psi(x) = (\psi_1(x), \dots, \psi_K(x))^T,$ 

condition (22) sets up the system of equations

$$\partial_t \xi(t) = -\frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 A \xi(t), \qquad [A]_{ij} = \int_{\Omega} \partial_x \psi_i(x) \partial_x \psi_j(x) dx. \tag{23}$$

The matrix *A* is symmetric, so that an eigendecomposition for it exists. Moreover, the solution to the system of ODEs in (23) is given by

$$\xi(t) = e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 A t} \xi(0), \quad \xi_k(0) = \int_{\Omega} \psi_k(x) \delta(x - x_0) dx = \psi_k(x_0), \quad q_K(x, t) = \psi(x)^T \xi(t) = \psi(x)^T \left(e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 A t}\right) \xi(0). \quad (24)$$

The definition for  $\xi(0)$  can be derived from the orthonormality of  $\{\psi_k(x)\}_{k=1}^K$ . Obviously, sparsity in  $\{\psi_k(x)\}_{k=1}^K$  makes calculating the solution easy.

#### 4.1 Basis Element Choice

It is known that the family of Gaussian pdfs is dense in  $L_2(\mathbb{R})$  (See exercise 3.6 in Zeidler [1998]). This motivates the choice for the family of basis elements that we will use for this problem:

$$\left\{ (x-a)(b-x)\phi(x|\mu_k,\sigma_k^2) \right\}_{k=1}^K, \qquad \qquad \phi(x|\mu_k,\sigma_k^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_k^2}} \exp\left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma_k^2} (x-\mu_k)^2 \right\}. \tag{25}$$

Multiplying the Gaussian densities  $\phi$  by (x-a)(b-x) ensures that each basis element obeys the boundary conditions. We have to prove the the above family of basis elements is dense in  $L_2(\Omega)$ .

The choice of  $(\mu_k, \sigma_k^2)$  is up to us. However, for a fixed K, we can choose a (locally) optimum sequences of  $(\mu_k, \sigma_k^2)_{k=1}^K$  in the following way. Given  $(\mu_k, \sigma_k^2)_{k=1}^K$ , we can first follow Gram-Schmidt to make the basis elements orthonormal, then use the solution in (24) to compute the weak solution  $q_K(x,t)$  for each  $x \in \Omega$ . Then we can compute

$$\left\| \partial_t q_K(x,t) - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \partial_x^2 q_K(x,t) \right\|_{2,\Omega}. \tag{26}$$

This norm will tell us approximately how closely the weak solution  $q_K(x,t)$  solves the original problem in the classical sense. We can then use R's optim to search over the space  $(\mu_k, \sigma_k^2)_{k=1}^K$  for the best sequence by minimizing (26), given some starting point. In this case, the starting point for  $\mu_k$  are evenly spaced points on the domain [a,b], including the boundaries. The starting point for the basis variances are all  $\sigma_k^2 = 0.05$ . We can see in Figure (1) that already for K = 6 the approximate solution reaches a qualitatively reasonble accuracy, and certainly good enough for effective maximum likelihood estimation.

## 4.2 Path-Integral Formulation and Differentiation With Respect to Boundaries

The Taylor expansion of the semigroup operator in (24) can be used to obtain the path-integral form for this problem:

$$\xi(t + \Delta t) = e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 A \Delta t} \xi(t) \approx \left(I - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 A \Delta t\right) \xi(t),$$

$$\Rightarrow q(x, t + \Delta t) \approx \psi^T(x) \left(I - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 A \Delta t\right) \xi(t),$$
(27)

for a small enought  $\Delta t$ . We will lend (27) a *probabilistic* interpretation. First, if we recall that the elements in  $\psi(x)$  are orthonormal, we will notice that the matrix

$$\int_{\Omega} \Psi(x) \Psi^{T}(x) dx = I.$$

Therefore, we can re-write (27) as

$$\begin{split} q(x,t+\Delta t) &\approx \psi^T(x) \left(I - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 A \Delta t\right) \xi(t), \\ &= \psi^T(x) \left(I - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 A \Delta t\right) e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 A t} \xi(0), \\ &= \int_{\Omega} \psi^T(x) \left(I - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 A \Delta t\right) \psi(y) \psi^T(y) e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 A t} \xi(0) dy, \end{split}$$

The first and second parts in the integral are the probabilities

$$P(X_{t+\Delta t} = x, a < X_{t} < b, \forall t \in [t, t + \Delta t] | X_{t} = y) \approx \psi^{T}(x) \left( I - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{2} A \Delta t \right) \psi(y)$$

$$P(X_{t} = y, a < X_{t} < b, \forall t \in [0, t] | X_{0} = x_{0}) = \psi^{T}(y) e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sigma^{2} A t} \xi(0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{\Omega} P(X_{t+\Delta t} = x, a < X_{t} < b, \forall t \in [t, t + \Delta t] | X_{t} = y) P(X_{t} = y, a < X_{t} < b, \forall t \in [0, t] | X_{0} = x_{0}) dy$$

$$\approx \int_{\Omega} \psi^{T}(x) \left( I - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{2} A \Delta t \right) \psi(y) \psi^{T}(y) e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sigma^{2} A t} \xi(0) dy$$

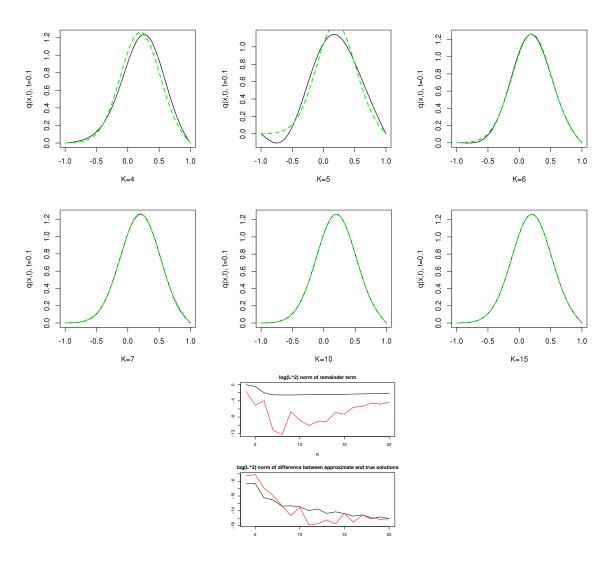


Figure 1: Approximate solution (solid black) and true solution (dashed green) for different number K of optimally chosen basis elements  $\left\{(a-x)(b-x)\phi(x|\mu_k,\sigma_k^2)\right\}_{k=1}^K$ .

In general, again for small enough  $\Delta t$ ,

$$P(X_{t} = x, a < X_{t} < b, \forall t \in [0, t] | X_{0} = x_{0}) \approx q_{K}(x, t) \approx$$

$$\approx \int_{\Omega} \cdots \int_{\Omega} \left[ \psi^{T}(x) \left( I - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{2} A \Delta t \right) \psi(x_{n}) \right] \left[ \psi^{T}(x_{n-1}) \left( I - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{2} A \Delta t \right) \psi(x_{n-2}) \right] \cdots \left[ \psi^{T}(x_{1}) \left( I - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{2} A \Delta t \right) \psi(x_{0}) \right] dx_{n} \cdots dx_{1}$$

$$(28)$$

Equation (28) is the path integral formulation for the solution to the initial-BV problem. We can reduce (28) to

$$q_K(x,t) \approx \mathbf{\psi}^T(x) \left(I - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{\sigma}^2 A \Delta t\right)^{t/\Delta t} \mathbf{\psi}(x_0).$$

Before we take derivatives with respect to the boundaries, first note

$$P(X_t = x, a < X_t < b, \forall t \in [0, t] | X_0 = x_0) = P(X_t = x, \max_{t' \in [0, t]} \{X_{t'}\} < b, \min_{t' \in [0, t]} \{X_{t'}\} > a | X_0 = x_0) = q(x, t).$$

Hence,

$$P\left(X_{t} = x, \max_{t' \in [0, t]} \{X_{t'}\} = b, \min_{t' \in [0, t]} \{X_{t'}\} = a|X_{0} = x_{0}\right) = -\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial a \partial b} q(x, t).$$
(29)

This is what we are after. To compute the derivative, we can do

$$-\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial a \partial b} q(x, t) \approx -\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial a \partial b} \left( \psi(x)^{T} \left( e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^{2} A t} \right) \psi(0) \right) \approx -\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial a \partial b} \left( \psi^{T}(x) \left( I - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^{2} A \Delta t \right)^{t/\Delta t} \psi(x_{0}) \right). \tag{30}$$

The above derivatives are expensive to compute. Moreover, at a first glance, they have no immediate probabilistic interpretation. However, under the path-integral formulation, they do. From (28)

$$-\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial a \partial b} q_{K}(x,t) = \int_{\Omega} \cdots \int_{\Omega} -\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial a \partial b} \left( \left[ \psi^{T}(x) \left( I - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{2} A \Delta t \right) \psi(x_{n}) \right] \cdots \left[ \psi^{T}(x_{1}) \left( I - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{2} A \Delta t \right) \psi(x_{0}) \right] \right) dx_{n} \cdots dx_{1}. \quad (31)$$

Note that I have placed the derivatives on the inside of the integral. This follows from the Dominated Convergence Theorem since the derivatives are bounded over  $\Omega$ . This is not cheaper than the other representations, however, consider one of the elements in the sum of derivatives:

$$-\int_{\Omega}\cdots\int_{\Omega}\frac{\partial}{\partial a}\left[\psi^{T}(x)\left(I-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^{2}A\Delta t\right)\psi(x_{n})\right]\cdots\frac{\partial}{\partial b}\left[\psi^{T}(x_{1})\left(I-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^{2}A\Delta t\right)\psi(x_{0})\right]dx_{n}\cdots dx_{1}.$$

The above expression is the probability

$$P(X_t = x, \min\{X_t\} = a, \max\{X_t\} = b, \tau_a \in [t_n, t], \tau_b \in [0, t_1] | X_0 = x_0),$$

where  $\tau_a(\tau_b)$  is the time when  $X_t$  reaches boundary a(b),

### References

E. Zeidler. Applied Functional Analysis, Applications to Mathematical Physics. Springer Science & Business Media, 1998.