

## The Markov Processes of Schrödinger

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### Introduction

Let  $\{X_t, t \in I\}$  be a stochastic process on a finite or semi-infinite interval  $I$ . For each  $J \subset I$ , let  $\mathcal{A}_J$  be the  $\sigma$ -field of events generated by  $X_t, t \in J$ , and  $\mathcal{B}_J$  be the  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $X_t, t \in I \setminus J$ . We say that  $\{X_t, t \in I\}$  is a *reciprocal process* if, for any subinterval  $J = (s, t)$  of  $I$ ,

$$P(A \cap B | X_s, X_t) = P(A | X_s) P(B | X_t), \quad A \in \mathcal{B}_I, B \in \mathcal{B}_J. \quad (1)$$

The concept was formulated in 1932 by Bernstein [2] in connection with the processes introduced in 1931 by Schrödinger [10]. Consider the transition  $q(s, x; t, y)$  for Brownian motion  $\{Y_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$  on an interval  $[a, b]$ :

$$q(s, x; t, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(t-s)}} e^{-\frac{(y-x)^2}{2(t-s)}}, \quad a \leq s < t \leq b. \quad (2)$$

If we prescribe an initial distribution  $\mu_a$  for  $Y_a$ , the finite dimensional distributions of  $\{Y_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$  are determined by (2) and  $\mu_a$ ; in particular the distribution of  $Y_b$  is so determined. Schrödinger asks the following question. Suppose we prescribe in advance not only a distribution  $\mu_a$  of  $Y_a$  but an arbitrary distribution  $\mu_b$  of  $Y_b$  as well, what is the most likely way for  $Y_t$  to evolve as  $t$  goes from  $a$  to  $b$ ? His answer amounts to the construction of a new process  $\{X_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$ . He obtains from the original process the “intermediate probabilities”

$$P(s, x; t, y; u, z) = \frac{q(s, x; t, y) q(t, y; u, z)}{q(s, x; u, z)}, \quad a \leq s < t < u \leq b. \quad (3)$$

We see that  $p(s, x; t, y; u, z)$  is the value at  $y$  of the conditional density of  $Y_t$  given  $Y_s = x$  and  $Y_u = z$ . Let  $\mu$  be any two dimensional probability measure with marginals  $\mu_a$  and  $\mu_b$ . (There are in general many such measures.) The distribution  $\mu$  is used as the joint distribution of  $X_a$  and  $X_b$  in the new process  $\{X_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$ , whose finite-dimensional distributions are as follows. Let  $a < t_1 < \dots < t_n < b$ . Let  $A, B, E_1, \dots, E_n$  be measurable sets in the state space. Let  $E = \prod_{i=1}^n E_i, A = A \times E \times B$ . Define

$$P_\mu(A) = \int_{A \times B} d\mu(x, y) \int_E p(a, x; t_1, x_1; b, y) p(t_1, x_1; t_2, x_2; b, y) \dots p(t_{n-1}, x_{n-1}; t_n, x_n; b, y) dx_1 \dots dx_n. \quad (4)$$

It follows from the results of [8] that (3) defines a consistent set of finite-dimensional distributions such that the stochastic process  $\{X_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$  defined by them is a

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reciprocal process. Furthermore  $p(s, x; t, y; u, z)$  is the value at  $y$  of the conditional density of  $X_t$  given  $X_s = x$  and  $X_u = z$ . We say that the process  $\{X_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$  is *derived* from  $\{Y_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$ . All this goes through if the Brownian transition function (2) is replaced by any strictly positive Markov transition density  $q(s, x; t, y)$ . Schrödinger's processes are not so general. Given marginals  $\mu_a$  and  $\mu_b$ , he uses as endpoint measure a particular  $\mu$  with these marginals, one which can be written in the form

$$\mu(E) = \int_E q(a, x; b, y) v_a(dx) v_b(dy), \tag{5}$$

where  $E$  is an arbitrary two-dimensional Borel set and where  $v_a$  and  $v_b$  are  $\sigma$ -finite one-dimensional measures. Schrödinger's physical intuition convinced him of the existence of a unique such  $\mu$  with the given marginals  $\mu_a$  and  $\mu_b$ . Indeed, a slight extension of a result of Beurling [3] yields existence and uniqueness (see [8]).

In [8], it is shown that it is precisely for those measures which have the representation (5) that the derived process  $\{X_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$  has the Markov property. In this paper we show that these Markov processes of Schrödinger are  $h$ -path processes in the sense of Doob [5], where  $h$  is a space-time harmonic function for the original process  $\{Y_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$ . This fact is exploited to show that under certain conditions the sample paths of  $\{X_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$  are almost surely continuous on  $[a, b]$ ; in particular the  $\{Y_t\}$  process "tied down" at  $t = a$  and  $t = b$  is well-defined. We then treat the case where  $\{Y_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$  is a diffusion in Euclidean space. We show that if the coefficients of the diffusion equation satisfy some regularity conditions, the derived process  $\{X_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$  turns out also to be a diffusion, with the same diffusion coefficients, plus an additional drift term.

### §1

Let  $(S, d)$  be a  $\sigma$ -compact metric space, with  $\Sigma$  the  $\sigma$ -field generated by the open sets of  $S$ . Let  $[a, b]$  be a closed interval of real numbers. Let  $\Omega, \Omega_0,$  and  $\Omega_u$  be, respectively, the set of all functions from  $[a, b], [a, b],$  and  $[a, \mu]$  into  $S$  (here  $a < u \leq b$ ). We denote by  $X_t$  the coordinate function on  $\Omega$ ; that is,  $X_t(\omega) = \omega(t)$  for  $\omega \in \Omega, t \in [a, b]$ . We also use  $X_t$  to denote the coordinate functions on  $\Omega_0$  and  $\Omega_u$ . The smallest  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathcal{G}$  on  $\Omega$  relative to which  $X_t$  is  $\mathcal{G} - \Sigma$  measurable for each  $t \in [a, b]$  is denoted by  $\mathcal{I}$ . The  $\sigma$ -fields  $\mathcal{I}_0$  and  $\mathcal{I}_u$  are defined in the same way on  $\Omega_0$  and  $\Omega_u$  respectively. Let  $Q(s, x; t, E), a \leq s < t \leq b, x \in S, E \in \Sigma,$  be a Markov transition probability function. We assume that  $Q$  is given by a strictly positive density relative to some  $\sigma$ -finite measure  $\lambda$  on  $\Sigma$ ; that is, there is a strictly positive function  $q(s, x; t, y)$  defined for  $a \leq s < t \leq b$  and  $(x, y) \in S \times S, \Sigma$ -measurable in  $(x, y)$  for each  $s$  and  $t,$  and for which

$$Q(s, x, t, E) = \int_E q(s, x; t, y) \lambda(dy), \quad a \leq t \leq b, x \in S, E \in \Sigma. \tag{6}$$

For each  $a \leq s < t < u \leq b$  and  $(x, y, z) \in S \times S \times S$  we define  $p(s, x; t, y; u, z)$  by (3). Now set

$$P(s, x; t, E; u, z) = \int_E p(s, x; t, y; u, z) \lambda(dy), \tag{7}$$

$$a \leq s < t < u \leq b, (x, y) \in S \times S, E \in \Sigma.$$

It is observed in Section 3 of [8] that  $P(s, x; t, E; u, y)$  is a reciprocal transition function. Let  $\mu$  be a probability measure on  $\Sigma \times \Sigma$ . Then  $\mu$  and  $P(s, x; t, E; u, y)$  define a measure  $P_\mu$  on  $\mathcal{I}$  relative to which  $\{X_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$  is a reciprocal process. (See Theorem 2.1 of [8]. It is clear that 2.2 of [8] can be written as (4) of this paper.) We assume that there are  $\sigma$ -finite measures  $\nu_a$  and  $\nu_b$  on  $\Sigma$  for which (5) holds for  $E \in \Sigma \times \Sigma$ . Then, by virtue of Theorem 3.1 of [8],  $\{X_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$  is a Markov process relative to the probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{I}, P_\mu)$ . We denote by  $\mu_a$  and  $\mu_b$  the marginals of  $\mu$ , that is,  $\mu_a(E) = \mu(E \times S)$  and  $\mu_b(E) = \mu(S \times E)$  for each  $E \in \Sigma$ . Let  $P$  be the probability measure on  $\mathcal{I}$  (constructed in the usual way) for which  $\{X_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$  is a Markov process with initial distribution  $\mu_a$  and transition function  $Q(s, x; t, E)$ . We will show that  $P_\mu$  can be obtained from  $P$  by means of a multiplicative functional; in fact we can use Doob's construction of an "h-path process" to go from  $P$  to  $P_\mu$ . First, define  $h$  on  $[a, b) \times S$  by

$$h(t, x) = \int q(t, x; b, y) \nu_b(dy) \quad x \in S, t \in [a, b). \tag{8}$$

It is easily verified that  $h$  is space-time harmonic relative to  $Q$ ; that is,

$$h(s, x) = \int Q(s, x; t, dy) h(t, y) \quad x \in S, a \leq s < t < b. \tag{9}$$

Following Doob [5] we define a transition probability operator  $Q^h$  by

$$Q^h(s, x; t, E) = \frac{1}{h(s, x)} \int_E Q(s, x; t, dy) h(t, y), \quad a < s < t < b, x \in S, E \in \Sigma. \tag{10}$$

Let  $P^h$  be the measure on  $(\Omega^0, \mathcal{I}^0)$  for which  $\{X_t, a \leq t < b\}$  is a Markov process with initial distribution  $\mu_a$  and transition probability operator  $Q^h(s, x; t, E)$ . Note that for  $a \leq s < t < b$ ,  $Q^h(s, x; t, E) = \int_E q^h(s, x; t, y) \lambda(dy)$ , where

$$q^h(s, x; t, y) = \frac{q(s, x; t, y) h(t, y)}{h(s, x)}. \tag{11}$$

Let  $a < s < t < b$ . By (3), (4) and (5)

$$\begin{aligned} P_\mu(X_s \in E, X_t \in F) &= \iint \nu_a(dx) \nu_b(dy) \int_F \int_E q(a, x; s, z_1) q(s, z_1; t, z_2) q(t, z_2; b, y) \lambda(dz_1) \lambda(dz_2) \\ &= \int \nu_a(dx) \iint q(a, x; s, z_1) q(s, z_1; t, z_2) h(t, z_2) \lambda(dz_1) \lambda(dz_2). \end{aligned}$$

But by (5),

$$\mu_a(A) = \int_A \nu_a(dx) \int q(a, x; b, y) \nu_b(dy) = \int_A \nu_a(dx) h(a, x),$$

so the last expression for  $P_\mu(X_s \in E, X_t \in F)$  is equal to

$$\int \frac{\mu_a(dx)}{h(a, x)} \int_F \int_E q(a, x; s, z_1) q(s, z_1; t, z_2) h(t, z_2) \lambda(dz_1) \lambda(dz_2),$$

which is equal to  $P^h(X_s \in E, X_t \in F)$ . A similar argument shows that

$$P_\mu(X_a \in E, X_t \in F) = P^h(X_a \in E, X_t \in F) \quad \text{for } a < t < b.$$

Since  $P_\mu(X_a \in E) = P^h(X_a \in E) = \mu_a(E)$ , and since  $\{X_t, a < t < b\}$  is a Markov process relative to both  $P_\mu$  and  $P^h$ , this shows that, if  $a < t < b$ , the restriction of  $P_\mu$  to  $\{X_s, a \leq s < t\}$  (that is, to  $\mathcal{F}_t$ ) is given by  $P^h$ . If we define

$$M_s^t = \frac{h(t, X_t)}{h(s, X_t)} \quad a \leq s \leq t < b, \tag{12}$$

$M_s^t$  is a multiplicative functional for the Markov process  $\{X_t, a \leq t < b\}$  relative to  $P$  and  $P_\mu (= P_h)$  on each  $\mathcal{F}_t, a < t < b$ , is obtained from  $P$  via transformation by  $M_s^t$  [6]. This amounts to the same thing as observing, as does Doob [4], that

$$P_h(A) = \int_A k(t, X_t) dP, \quad A \in \mathcal{F}_t, \tag{13}$$

where  $k(t, x) = h(t, x) / \int h(a, y) \mu_a(dy)$ . The measure  $P_\mu$  on  $\mathcal{F}$ , as distinct from the sub- $\sigma$ -fields  $\mathcal{F}_t$ , may not be obtained from  $P$  by a multiplicative functional transformation, because we need not have  $P_\mu \ll P$  on  $\mathcal{F}$ . For instance, the marginal distributions  $\mu_b$  and  $Q_b \mu_a$  of  $P_\mu$  and  $P$  respectively, where

$$Q_b \mu_a(E) = \int_E Q(a, x; b, E) \mu_a(dx),$$

may be mutually singular, as they indeed are if  $\mu_b$  and  $\lambda$  are mutually singular.

For each  $x \in S$ , we denote by  $P_x$  the measure on  $\mathcal{F}$  for which  $\{X_t, a \leq t \leq b\}$  is a Markov process with initial measure  $\delta_x$  (where  $\delta_x(\{x\}) = 1$ ) and transition function  $Q(s, x; t, E)$ .

**Theorem 1.** *Suppose that for each  $x \in S$ , the set  $C$  of all continuous paths on  $[a, b]$  has outer measure one relative to  $P_x$ . Suppose in addition that for each  $y_0 \in S$  the following holds: given  $\delta > 0$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a  $t_0$  such that if  $d(y, y_0) \geq \delta$  and  $t_0 < t < b$ , then  $q(t, y; b, y_0) \leq \varepsilon$ . Then, for each probability measure  $\mu$  on  $\Sigma$ , the measure  $P_\mu$  defined by (4) also assigns outer measure 1 to  $C$ .*

*Proof.* It is clear that it suffices to prove the theorem for measures  $\mu$  concentrating all their mass on an arbitrary pair  $(x_0, y_0) \in S \times S$ . Let  $\mu$  be such a measure. Then  $h(x, t) = q(t, x; b, y_0)$ . Since  $P_\mu = P_h \ll P_{x_0}$  on  $\mathcal{F}_t$  for each  $a < t < b$  by virtue of (11), it is clear that  $P_\mu$  assigns outer measure 1 to the set of all paths on  $[a, b]$  which are continuous on  $[a, b]$ . Observe with Doob [5] that  $\{1/h(t, X_t): a \leq t < b\}$  is a martingale with respect to  $P^h$ -measure on  $\mathcal{F}^0$ . It follows from the non-negativity of  $h$  that as  $t \uparrow b$   $1/h(t, X_t)$  converges  $P^h$ -almost surely to a finite limit, hence  $h(t, X_t) = q(t, X_t; b, y_0)$  converges to a non-zero limit. Now the assumption on  $q$  contained in the hypothesis of the theorem shows that, given  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow S, q(t, f(t); b, y_0)$  cannot converge to a non-zero limit as  $t \uparrow b$  unless  $f(t)$  converges to  $y_0$  as  $t \uparrow b$ . It easily follows that  $P^h$ , hence  $P_\mu$ , also assigns outer measure 1 to the set of all paths on  $[a, b]$  which have limit  $y_0$  as  $t \uparrow b$ . Thus the  $P_\mu$ -outer measure of  $C$  is 1, and the proof is complete.

## § 2

We now consider the case where  $S$  is equal to  $d$ -dimensional Euclidean space  $E^d$  and  $\Sigma$  is the  $\sigma$ -field of Borel subsets of  $S$ . We assume that the underlying Markov

process is a diffusion in the sense of Stroock and Varadhan [11]. Let  $a_{ij}, i, j = 1, \dots, d$  and  $b_i, i = 1, \dots, d$  be real-valued functions on  $E^d \times [a, b)$  such that the following hold

- (D1)  $a_{ij}$  is continuous and bounded on  $E^d \times [a, b - \varepsilon)$  for each  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $i, j = 1, \dots, d$ .
- (D2) The matrix  $((a_{ij}(x, t)))$  is positive definite for each  $(x, t) \in E^d \times [a, b)$ .
- (D3)  $b_i$  is measurable and bounded on  $E^d \times [a, b - \varepsilon)$  for each  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $i = 1, \dots, d$ .

We denote the matrix  $((a_{ij}))$  by  $\alpha$  and the vector  $(b_i)$  by  $\beta$ . Let  $\sigma = \alpha^{1/2}$  (see [11], p. 347). For each  $s \in [a, b)$  let  $C[a, s]$  be the subclass of  $\Omega^s$  consisting of all continuous real valued functions on  $[a, s]$ , and let  $\mathcal{M}^s = \{E \cap C[a, s] : E \in \mathcal{F}^s\}$ . Then  $\mathcal{M}^s$  is a  $\sigma$ -field over  $C[a, s]$ : in fact if we consider  $C[a, s]$  as a metric space with metric given by the uniform norm,  $\mathcal{M}^s$  is the  $\sigma$ -field generated by the open spheres. Under conditions D1–D3, Stroock and Varadhan show that for each  $(s, x) \in [a, b) \times E^d$  there is a probability measure  $P_{s,x}$  on  $\mathcal{M}^s$  which solves what they call “the martingale problem.” That  $P_{s,x}$  is a solution to the martingale problem is equivalent to the existence of a Wiener process  $\{W_t, a \leq t \leq s\}$  on  $(C[a, s], \mathcal{M}^s, P_{s,x})$  for which

$$X_t = x + \int_a^t \beta(u, X_u) du + \int_a^t \sigma(u, X_u) dW_u \quad a < t \leq s, \tag{14}$$

where the second integral on the right is a stochastic integral in the sense of Ito. Relative to  $P_{s,x}$ ,  $\{X_t : a \leq t \leq s\}$  is a strong Markov process with a transition function denoted in [11] by  $P(t, x; u, E)$  for  $a \leq t < u \leq s$ . From the results of [11] and assumptions D1–D3 it is easy to see that the processes  $\{X_t, a \leq t \leq s\}$ ,  $s < b$  can be extended to a process  $\{X_t, a \leq t < b\}$  with transition function  $Q(s, x; t, E)$ . We refer to  $\{X_t, a \leq t < b\}$  as the diffusion corresponding to the diffusion matrix  $\alpha$  and drift vector  $\beta$ . Eq. (14) holds throughout  $[a, b)$ ; that is, there is a Wiener process  $\{W_t, a \leq t < b\}$  constructed from  $\{X_t, a \leq t < b\}$  for which

$$X_t - X_s = \int_s^t \beta(u, X_u) du + \int_s^t \sigma(u, X_u) dW_u, \quad a \leq s < t < b. \tag{15}$$

We say that a function  $f$  on  $E^d \times [a, b)$  is smooth if the partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial y_j}$  exist and are continuous throughout  $E^d \times [a, b)$ ,  $i, j = 1, \dots, d$ .

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $h$  be a smooth and everywhere positive space-time harmonic function for the process with diffusion matrix  $\alpha$  and drift vector  $\beta$ . Then the process with diffusion matrix  $\alpha$  and drift vector  $\beta + \alpha \text{grad}(\log h)$  has the transition density  $q^h(s, x; t, E)$  given by (11).*

*Proof.* The proof consists mainly of calculations based on Ito’s lemma. From (15) and Ito’s lemma (as stated in [11], p. 352) we have

$$h(t, X_t) - h(s, X_s) = \int_s^t G(u, X_u) du + \int_s^t H(u, X_u) dW_u \quad a \leq s < t < b, \tag{16}$$

where  $G$  and  $H$  are defined on  $[a, b] \times E^d$  by

$$G = \frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + \sum_i \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i} b_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j,k} \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \sigma_{ik} \sigma_{jk},$$

$$H = (H_1, \dots, H_d), \quad H_k = \sum_i \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i} \sigma_{ik}, \quad k = 1, \dots, d.$$
(17)

The space-time process  $\{(X_t, t), a \leq t \leq b\}$  can be considered a Markov process with state space  $E^d \times [a, b]$ . The process can be started out at any point  $(x, s)$  in its state space, and we use  $P^{(s,x)}$  and  $E^{(s,x)}$  to denote the corresponding probability functions expectation operators. Because  $h$  is space-time harmonic, we have

$$E_{(s,x)} h(t, X_t) = h(s, x) \quad (s, x) \in E^d \times [a, b];$$
(18)

in fact, from the optional stopping theorem for martingales ([4], p. 376) we have

$$E_{(s,x)} h(\tau, X_\tau) = h(s, x)$$
(19)

for any stopping time  $\tau$  with  $s \leq \tau < b' < b$ . Let  $U = \{(s, x) : a < s < b, G(s, x) > 0\}$ . Suppose  $U \neq \emptyset$ , and  $(s, x) \in U$ . Let  $b' \in (s, b)$  and define  $\tau$  to be the first exit time after  $s$  of  $\{X_t\}$  from  $U$ , or  $b'$ , whichever is smaller. Because  $\{X_t\}$  has continuous sample paths and  $U$  is open,  $P_{(s,x)}[\tau > s] = 1$ . Taking  $t = \tau$  in (16), we have

$$h(\tau, X_\tau) - h(s, X_s) = \int_s^\tau G(u, X_u) du + \int_s^\tau H(u, X_u) dW_u.$$
(20)

Since  $\{\int_s^t H(u, X_u) dW_u, t \in (s, b)\}$  is a martingale,  $E_{(s,x)}[\int_s^\tau H(u, X_u) dW_u] = 0$ , again by the optional stopping theorem for martingales. Applying  $E_{(s,x)}$  to both sides of (20) and using (19) we obtain  $E_{(s,x)}[\int_s^\tau G(u, X_u) du] = 0$ . Since  $G(u, X_u) > 0$  for  $u \in (s, \tau)$ , and since  $P_{(s,t)}(\tau > s) = 1$ , we have a contradiction. Thus  $U = \emptyset$ , so  $G \leq 0$ . A similar argument shows that  $G \geq 0$ , so  $G = 0$ . Since  $a_{ij} = \sum_k \sigma_{ik} \sigma_{kj} = \sum_k \sigma_{ik} \sigma_{jk}$ , (17) yields

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \sum_i b_i \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i} = 0$$
(21)

for any smooth space-time harmonic function  $h$ . Applying (15) and Ito's lemma to  $\log h$  instead of  $h$ , we have

$$\log h(t, X_t) - \log h(s, X_s) = \int_s^t \bar{G}(u, X_u) du + \int_s^t \bar{H}(u, X_u) dW_u \quad a \leq s < t < b,$$
(22)

where  $\bar{G}$  and  $\bar{H}$  are defined on  $E^d \times [a, b]$  by

$$\bar{G} = \frac{\partial(\log h)}{\partial t} + \sum_i \frac{\partial(\log h)}{\partial x_i} \beta_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j,k} \frac{\partial^2(\log h)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \sigma_{ik} \sigma_{jk},$$

$$\bar{H} = (\bar{H}_1, \dots, \bar{H}_d), \quad \bar{H}_k = \sum_i \frac{\partial(\log h)}{\partial x_i} \sigma_{ik}.$$

Using matrix multiplication and interpreting vectors as column vectors, we can write  $\bar{H} = \text{grad}(\log h)\sigma$ . Simple computations together with an application of (21) yield  $\bar{G} = -(1/2)\langle \bar{H}, \bar{H} \rangle$ . Setting  $\gamma = \text{grad}(\log h)$  we have  $\bar{G} = -(1, 2)\langle \sigma\gamma, \sigma\gamma \rangle$ , and (22) becomes

$$\log h(t, X_t) - \log h(s, X_s) = \int \langle \sigma\gamma, dW_u \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \int \langle \sigma\gamma, \sigma\gamma \rangle du. \tag{23}$$

Since  $dX_t = \sigma dW_t + \beta dt$ ,  $\langle \gamma, dX_t \rangle = \langle \gamma, \sigma dW_t \rangle + \langle \gamma, \beta \rangle dt$ , and since  $\sigma$  is symmetric, we have

$$\log h(t, X_t) - \log h(s, X_s) = \int_s^t \langle \gamma, dX_u \rangle - \int_s^t (\langle \gamma, \beta \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \langle \sigma\gamma, \sigma\gamma \rangle) du. \tag{24}$$

Let  $Q_{s,x}$ ,  $a \leq s < t < b$ ,  $x \in E^d$  be the solution to the martingale problem with the same diffusion matrix  $\alpha$  but with  $\beta$  replaced by  $\delta = \beta + \alpha \text{grad}(\log h) = \beta + \alpha\gamma$ . To prove the theorem we must show that, for each  $a \leq s < t < b$  and  $x \in E^d$ , the restriction  $Q_{s,x,t}$  of  $Q_{s,x}$  to  $\mathcal{M}_s^t$  is absolutely continuous with respect to the restriction  $P_{s,x,t}$  of  $P_{s,x}$  to  $\mathcal{M}_s^t$  and that

$$\frac{dQ_{s,x,t}}{dP_{s,x,t}} = M_s^t = \frac{h(t, X_t)}{h(s, X_s)}. \tag{25}$$

(Here  $\mathcal{M}_s^t$  is the sub-field of  $\mathcal{M}^t$  generated by the family  $\{X_u; s \leq u \leq t\}$ .) For this purpose, we introduce  $R_{s,x}$ ,  $a \leq s < t < b$ ,  $s \in E^d$ , the solution to the martingale problem with diffusion coefficient  $\alpha$  and zero drift vector. On the one hand

$$\frac{dQ_{s,x,t}}{dP_{s,x,t}} = \frac{dQ_{s,x,t}}{dR_{s,x,t}} \cdot \frac{dR_{s,x,t}}{dP_{s,x,t}}. \tag{26}$$

On the other hand, by the Cameron-Martin formula (Lemma 6.1 of [11])

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dQ_{s,x,t}}{dR_{s,x,t}} &= \exp \left[ \int_s^t \langle \alpha^{-1} \delta, dX_u \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \int_s^t \langle \delta, \alpha^{-1} \delta \rangle du \right] \\ \frac{dP_{s,x,t}}{dR_{s,x,t}} &= \exp \left[ \int_s^t \langle \alpha^{-1} \beta, dX_u \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \int_s^t \langle \beta, \alpha^{-1} \beta \rangle du \right]. \end{aligned} \tag{27}$$

From (26) and (27) it follows that

$$\frac{dQ_{s,x,t}}{dP_{s,x,t}} = \exp \left[ \int_s^t \alpha^{-1} (\delta - \beta), dX_u - \frac{1}{2} \int_s^t (\langle \delta, \alpha^{-1} \delta \rangle - \langle \beta, \alpha^{-1} \beta \rangle) du \right]. \tag{28}$$

But  $\delta - \beta = \alpha\gamma$ , and elementary algebra yields

$$\langle \delta, \alpha^{-1} \delta \rangle - \langle \beta, \alpha^{-1} \beta \rangle = 2 \langle \gamma, \beta \rangle + \langle \alpha\gamma, \gamma \rangle.$$

Since  $\langle \alpha\gamma, \gamma \rangle = \langle \sigma\gamma, \sigma\gamma \rangle$ , comparison of (28) and (24) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dQ_{s,x,t}}{dP_{s,x,t}} &= \exp \left[ \int_s^t \langle \gamma, dX_u \rangle - \int_s^t (\langle \gamma, \beta \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \langle \sigma\gamma, \sigma\gamma \rangle) du \right] \\ &= \exp [\log h(t, X_t) - \log h(s, X_s)] \\ &= \frac{h(t, X_t)}{h(s, X_s)} = M_s^t \end{aligned} \tag{29}$$

which establishes (25) and completes the proof of the theorem.

Since  $h$  is defined in terms of  $v_b$ , and since  $v_b$  can rarely be obtained explicitly, there is little possibility of applying this last theorem unless we can establish under rather general conditions that space-time harmonic functions  $h$  of the sort defined by (8) are indeed smooth. To this end, we now assume that the coefficients  $a_{ij}$  and  $b_i$  satisfy appropriate Hölder conditions, specifically, that there is a  $\kappa > 0$  and an  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$  for which

$$|a_{ij}(x, t) - a_{ij}(y, t)| \leq \kappa |x - y|^\alpha,$$

$$|b_i(x, t) - b_i(y, t)| \leq \kappa |x - y|^\alpha$$

for each  $x$  and  $y$  in  $E^d$  and  $t \in [a, b]$  and for which

$$|a_{ij}(x, s) - a_{ij}(x, t)| \leq \kappa |s - t|^\alpha$$

for each  $x \in E^d$  and  $s, t$  in  $[a, b]$ , these conditions holding for each  $1 \leq i, j \leq d$ . We also assume there is a  $\gamma > 0$  such that

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^d a_{ij}(s, t) \lambda_i \lambda_j \geq \gamma \sum_{i,j=1}^d \lambda_i^2,$$

where  $(x, t) \in E^d \times [a, b]$ . These assumptions imply that conditions 0.23  $B_1, B_2$  and  $B_3$  on p. 227 of volume II of [6] hold in the strip  $E^d \times [a, b]$ . Eq. (8) shows that  $h(t, x) = \int q(t, x; b, y) v_b(dy)$ . The transition density  $q$  is the fundamental solution to Eq. (21) on the strip  $E^d \times [a, b]$ ,  $\varepsilon > 0$  (see Section 0.23 of [6] vol. II for the terminology here). For each fixed  $t \in [a, b]$  and  $y \in E^d$ ,  $q(s, x; t, y)$  is a smooth function of  $(s, x) \in (a, t) \times E^d$ , and the inequalities (0.33)–(0.36) on p. 227 of [6], volume II imply that  $h(s, x)$  is smooth if  $v_b$  is a finite measure. This is a serious restriction, for in general  $v_b$  is merely  $\sigma$ -finite. However, we know that there are compact sets  $C_m \uparrow E^d$  with  $v_b(C_m) < \infty$ ,  $m = 1, 2, \dots$ . Let  $v_m$  be the restriction of  $v_b$  to  $C_m$  and let  $h_m(t, x) = \int q(t, x; b, y) v_m(dy)$ . Then  $h_m$  is smooth, and a solution to (21), and  $h_m \uparrow h$ . By virtue of Theorem 15 on p. 80 of [7], the smoothness of  $h$  follows once we show that  $h$  is bounded on sets of the form  $D \times [a + \varepsilon, b - \varepsilon]$  where  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $D$  is a bounded open subset of  $E^d$ . If the coefficients  $a_{ij}$  are once continuously differentiable, with derivatives satisfying a Hölder condition in the space coordinate, (21) can be written as

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^d \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} (\tilde{a}_{ij} h) + \sum_i \tilde{b}_i \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i} = 0,$$

and the Harnack inequalities of Moser [9] as extended by Aronson and Serrin [11] then imply that the convergence of  $h_m$  to  $h$  is uniform on sets  $R \times [a + \varepsilon, b - \varepsilon]$ , where  $R$  is a bounded rectangle in  $E^d$ . Thus  $h$  is bounded on sets  $D \times [a + \varepsilon, b - \varepsilon]$ , and is therefore smooth. (In applying results from the theory of parabolic equations to the analysis of Eq. (4.14), one usually reverses the direction of time: this is discussed in the footnote on p. 227 of volume II of [6].)

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