

Differentiability Preserving Properties of a Class of Semigroups*

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It is well known that for a large class of Markov process the associated semigroup $T(t)f(x) = \int f(y)P(t, x; dy)$ satisfies the Kolmogorov backward differential equation, that is, if $U(t, x) = T(t)f(x)$ then $\frac{\partial U}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2} a(x) \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial x^2} + b(x) \frac{\partial U}{\partial x}$ and $\lim_{t \downarrow 0} U(t, x) = U(0, x) = f(x)$.

In this paper we are considering the opposite problem: given the diffusion and drift coefficients we study the differentiability preserving properties of the semigroup $T(t)$ having as infinitesimal generator $A = \frac{1}{2} a(x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + b(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$. More specifically, for a large class of functions $a(x)$ and $b(x)$, we will prove for $k=0, \dots, 3$ the existence of $T(t)$ such that $T(t): C^k(I) \rightarrow C^k(I)$ and the existence of a constant μ_k such that $|T(t)f|_k \leq |f|_k \exp(\mu_k t)$ for $f \in C^k(I)$. Moreover an explicit expression of μ_k in terms of the coefficients $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ is obtained. As a side result we obtain the necessity of the boundary conditions imposed.

0. Introduction

Given functions $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ the problem of constructing a process $X(t)$ having $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ as diffusion and drift coefficients respectively has attracted much attention in recent years. The question of existence has been completely studied by Feller ([6, 7]), Dynkin [5] and Mandl [9]. The more delicate question of their importance to the study of diffusion approximations in genetics and numerical analysis, and in a general manner the question of their independent mathematical interest have been raised by Borovkov [1], Norman [10] and

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Skorohod [11]. Specifically one wants to know to what extent the semigroup of operators $T(t)$ associated with the process $X(t)$ preserves the differentiability of the initial data. Special results were obtained by Brezis-Rosenkrantz-Singer [2], general results were obtained by Norman [10], who also raised the question of obtaining his theorems via semigroup method. By using a semigroup approach and under different conditions than those of Norman's (however including most of the examples of application), we obtain a slightly stronger result. Let I be a closed and bounded interval, $|f| = \sup_{x \in I} |f(x)|$, $|f|_k = \sum_{i=0}^k |f^{(i)}|$ and $C^k(I) = \{f: f^{(i)}$ continuous in I for $i=0, \dots, k\}$. For $k=0, 1, 2, 3$ we show the existence of $T(t)$ and of a constant μ_k such that $T(t): C^k(I) \rightarrow C^k(I)$ and $|T(t)f|_k \leq |f|_k \exp(\mu_k t)$ for $f \in C^k(I)$. Moreover an explicit expression of μ_k in terms of the coefficients $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ will be given, and as a side result we obtain the necessity of the boundary conditions imposed. For further applications of estimates such as $|T(t)f|_3 \leq |f|_3 \exp(\mu_3 t)$ we refer the reader to Brezis-Rosenkrantz-Singer [3], Lax-Richtmyer [8] and Trotter [12].

We now present a brief sketch of the approach used. Let the linear operator A be defined by the relation $Af(x) = \lim_{t \downarrow 0} t^{-1}(T(t)f(x) - f(x))$ provided the limit on the right-hand side exists, A is called the *infinitesimal generator* of the semigroup $T(t)$. Comparing the definition of A with the Kolmogorov backward equation $\frac{\partial U}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2}a(x)\frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial x^2} + b(x)\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}$ where $U(t, x) = T(t)f(x)$ and $f \in C^2(I)$, we conclude that $A = \frac{a(x)}{2}\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + b(x)\frac{d}{dx}$. As examples of generators A that occur in application we have

$$A = cx(1-x)\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + m(\bar{x}-x)\frac{d}{dx} \quad \text{on } [0, 1]$$

with $c > 0, m \geq 0, 0 < \bar{x} < 1$.

$$A = Vx^2(1-x)^2\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + x(1-x)\frac{d}{dx} \quad \text{on } [0, 1]$$

with $V > 0$.

The idea is to show that for $f \in C^k(I)$ and $\lambda > \mu_k$ (where μ_k is a prefixed constant) there exists a unique $F(\lambda, x) \in \mathcal{D}(A)$ satisfying $\lambda F(\lambda, x) - AF(\lambda, x) = f(x)$ and $(\lambda - \mu_k)|F(\lambda)|_k \leq |f|_k$. Where $\mathcal{D}(A)$, the domain of operator A , will be determined by the boundary conditions (to be properly defined in Section 1 and the necessity of these conditions will be proved in Section 3). In addition one must show that $\mathcal{D}(A)$ is dense in $C^k(I)$ with respect to $|\cdot|_k$. These facts, once established, yield, as a consequence of the Hille-Yosida theorem, the existence of the semigroup $T(t)$ with infinitesimal generator A , moreover, we obtain the desired estimate $|T(t)f|_k \leq |f|_k \exp(\mu_k t)$. We remark here that the basic ideas of our proofs were taken from [2].

In Section 1 preliminary results on the boundary behavior of $F(\lambda)$ is obtained. In Section 2 the differentiability preserving properties of the resolvent $(\lambda - A)^{-1}$

is studied $((\lambda - A)^{-1}$ is such that $F(\lambda) = (\lambda - A)^{-1} f$). The maximum principle will be heavily used and growth functions will be introduced as a tool to obtain the results. In Section 3 the main theorems are stated and proved.

1. Preliminary Results on the Boundary Behavior

As a general reference for this section see Mandl [9].

Let $I = [r_0, r_1]$ with $-\infty < r_0 < 0 < r_1 < +\infty$, let $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ be continuous functions defined on I with $a(x) > 0$ on (r_0, r_1) . For $A = \frac{a(x)}{2} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + b(x) \frac{d}{dx}$ we are concerned with the differentiability properties of the semigroup $T(t)$, this can be done by studying the resolvent $(\lambda - A)^{-1}$ which in turn reduces to the analysis of the solution $F(\lambda)$ of the differential equation (1) with initial data f and $\lambda > 0$

$$\lambda F(\lambda) - AF(\lambda) = f. \tag{1}$$

A detailed analysis of Equation (1) is carried out in Mandl, in order to use his results we will express A as ‘‘Feller differential operator’’ $D_m D_p^+$.

$$A = \frac{a(x)}{2} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + b(x) \frac{d}{dx} = \frac{a(x)}{2} e^{-B(x)} \frac{d}{dx} \left(e^{B(x)} \frac{d}{dx} \right) = D_m D_p^+$$

where for $x \in (r_0, r_1)$ we have:

$$B(x) = \int_0^x 2b(y) a(y)^{-1} dy$$

$$m(x) = \int_0^x 2a(y)^{-1} e^{B(y)} dy; \quad p(x) = \int_0^x e^{-B(y)} dy \tag{2}$$

$$D_p^+ f(x) = \lim_{y \rightarrow x^+} \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{p(y) - p(x)}$$

$$D_m f(x) = \lim_{y \rightarrow x} \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{m(y) - m(x)}$$

provided the limit exists.

Remark 1. There is no loss of generality in assuming $0 \in (r_0, r_1)$, if not take $x_0 \in (r_0, r_1)$ and let x_0 play the role of 0. Whenever defined we can write $D_p^+ f(x) = e^{B(x)} f^{(1)}(x)$.

Now Equation (1) can be written as:

$$\lambda F(\lambda) - D_m D_p^+ F(\lambda) = f. \tag{3}$$

The general solution of the non-homogeneous Equation (3) is given by (for details see Mandl)

$$F(\lambda, x) = F_0(x) + c_+ u_+(x) + c_- u_-(x) \tag{4}$$

where $F_0(x)$ constitutes a solution of (3), $u_+(x)$ and $u_-(x)$ constitute a fundamental system of solutions of $\lambda w - D_m D_p^+ w = 0$ and c_+ and c_- are constants.

Remark 2. (a) To simplify the notation we sometimes omit the dependence on λ in our symbolisms by writing $F = F(\lambda)$, $u_+(x) = u_+(\lambda, x)$, etc.

(b) Let $u^1(x) = \int_0^x m(s) dp(s)$ and $v^1(x) = \int_0^x p(s) dm(s)$. It can be shown that if $u^1(r_0) = \infty$ then $u_+(x) \notin C(I) = C^0(I)$, hence the general solution of (3) is of the form $F = F_0 + c_- u_-$ with c_- possibly zero and no boundary conditions can be imposed at r_0 . Similarly if $u^1(r_1) = \infty$ then $u_-(x) \notin C(I)$ and $F = F_0 + c_+ u_+$ with no boundary conditions at r_1 . Finally if $u^1(r_i) = \infty$ for $i=0, 1$ then we have $F = F_0$. This leads us to a classification of the boundary points r_i as regular, entrance, exit and natural (Mandl pp. 24–25).

Boundary conditions will be imposed in case of regular or exit boundary to ensure uniqueness of solution $F(\lambda)$. Our conditions will be

$$\begin{aligned} D_p^+ F(r_i) &= 0 & \text{for } r_i \text{ regular} \\ D_m D_p^+ F(r_i) &= 0 & \text{for } r_i \text{ exit.} \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Remark 3. (a) We shall denote by B.C. the boundary conditions (5). The condition $D_m D_p^+ F(r_i) = 0$ means adhesive boundary, that is, the process remains in the point r_i after having reached it. The condition $D_p^+ F(r_i) = 0$ means reflecting boundary.

We now prove a few results on the boundary behavior of $F(\lambda)$. The proofs of Proposition 1 and 2 will be omitted, they are straight forward (for details see [4]).

Proposition 1. Let $a, b \in C^k(I)$ and $a(x) > 0$ on (r_0, r_1) then

- (a) $B, m, p \in C^{k+1}(r_0, r_1)$.
- (b) $u_+, u_- \in C^{k+2}(r_0, r_1)$.
- (c) if F is a solution of $\lambda F - D_m D_p^+ F = f$ and $f \in C^k(I)$ then $F \in C^{k+2}(r_0, r_1)$.

Proposition 2. Let $a, b, f \in C(I)$ with $a(x) > 0$ on (r_0, r_1) and suppose F satisfies B.C. with $\lambda F - D_m D_p^+ F = f$. Then

- (a) $D_m D_p^+ F(r_i) = 0$ if r_i natural or exit.
- (b) $D_p^+ F(r_i) = 0$ if r_i entrance or regular or natural with $m(r_i)$ finite.

Let Condition $k(k \geq 1)$ be:

- (a0) $I = [r_0, r_1]$, $-\infty < r_0 < r_1 < +\infty$.
- (a1) $a, b \in C^k(I)$.
- (a2) $a(x) > 0$ on (r_0, r_1) and $a(r_i) = 0$ for $i=0, 1$.
- (a3) $(-1)^i b(r_i) \geq 0$ for $i=0, 1$.
- (a4) $B(x)$ converges as $x \rightarrow r_i$. The limit, $B(r_i)$, may be finite or infinite.
- (a5) $\liminf_{x \rightarrow r_i} b(x) a^{(1)}(x)/a(x) > -\infty$ for $i=0, 1$.

Remark 4. (a) Conditions (a4) and (a5) are satisfied if $a^{(1)}(r_i) \equiv 0$. For example, if $i=1$, $b(x)/a(x) \rightarrow k_1 < \infty$ as $x \rightarrow r_i$, and $a^{(1)}(x) \rightarrow a^{(1)}(r_1) < 0$. Condition (a4) holds if $b(x) \geq 0$ near r_i (or $b(x) \leq 0$ near r_i), since $B(x)$ is then monotonic near r_i .

(b) Condition (a5) holds if $a(x) = \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} a_n (x-r_i)^n$ ($k \geq 1, a_k \neq 0$) is analytic at r_i .

For $a(x) \sim a_k(x-r_i)^k$ and $a^{(1)}(x) \sim k a_k(x-r_i)^{k-1}$, so $a^{(1)}(x)/a(x) \sim k/(x-r_i)$ as $x \rightarrow r_i$. If $(-1)^i b(r_i) > 0$ then $b(x) a^{(1)}(x)/a(x) \rightarrow \infty$, and if $b(r_i) = 0$, $b(x) a^{(1)}(x)/a(x) \rightarrow k b^{(1)}(r_i)$ as $x \rightarrow r_i$.

(c) The examples mentioned in the introduction satisfy the *Condition k*.

Proposition 3. *If Condition 1 holds then:*

- (a) *If r_i is regular or entrance or natural with $m(r_i)$ finite then $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} e^{B(x)} = 0$.*
 (b) *If r_i is exit or natural with $|m(r_i)| = \infty$ then $b(r_i) = 0$.*

Proof. Let's assume $r_i = r_1$.

(a) Since $a(r_1) = 0$, in a neighborhood of r_1 we have (say $x \geq \xi$):

$$a(x) = a^{(1)}(r_1)(x-r_1) + o(x-r_1)$$

and $0 < a(x) \leq |a^{(1)}|(r_1-x)$. Since $|a^{(1)}| > 0$ we have:

$$\int_0^x \frac{2}{a(y)} dy \geq \int_0^\xi \frac{2}{a(y)} dy + \int_\xi^x \frac{2}{|a^{(1)}|(r_1-y)} dy \rightarrow \infty \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow r_1$$

hence $\int_0^x \frac{2}{a(y)} dy \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow r_1$ and we must have $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} e^{B(x)} = 0$ since

$$m(r_1) = \int_0^{r_1} \frac{2}{a(y)} e^{B(y)} dy$$

is finite ($m(r_1) < \infty$ by assumption when r_1 is natural and $m(r_1) < \infty$ when r_1 is entrance or regular (Mandl, p. 25)).

(b) By assumption $m(r_1) = \infty$ when r_1 is natural and $m(r_1) = \infty$ when r_1 is exit (Mandl, p. 25), now since $b(r_1) \leq 0$ enough to show if $b(r_1) < 0$ then $m(r_1)$ is finite. Let's assume $b(r_1) < 0$, then there exists $\xi < r_1$ and $\alpha < 0$ such that $b(x) \leq \alpha$ if $x \geq \xi$. Now $e^{B(x)}$ is decreasing for $x \geq \xi$ since $B^{(1)}(x) = 2b(x)a(x)^{-1} < 0$ for $x \geq \xi$, hence $\frac{d e^{B(x)}}{dx} = \frac{2b(x)}{a(x)} e^{B(x)}$ is integrable over $[\xi, r_1]$. Therefore $m^{(1)}(x) = \frac{1}{b(x)} \frac{d}{dx} e^{B(x)}$ is integrable over $[\xi, r_1]$ since $b(x) < 0$ on $[\xi, r_1]$. So that

$$m(r_1) = \int_0^\xi m^{(1)}(x) dx + \int_\xi^{r_1} \frac{1}{b(x)} \frac{d}{dx} e^{B(x)} dx < \infty. \quad \square$$

Proposition 4. *Let $f \in C^1(I)$, r_i be an exit or natural boundary with $|m(r_i)| = \infty$, $a^{(1)}(r_i) \neq 0$ and Condition 1 holds then $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} F^{(2)}(x)$ exists and finite provided F is such that $F \in C^1(I)$, satisfies the B. C. and $\lambda F - D_m D_p^+ F = f$.*

Proof. By hypothesis $a(x) > 0$ on (r_0, r_1) and $\lambda F - \frac{a}{2} F^{(2)} - b F^{(1)} = f$ on (r_0, r_1) , so we have on (r_0, r_1)

$$F^{(2)}(x) = \frac{2}{a(x)} (\lambda F(x) - f(x)) - \frac{2b(x)}{a(x)} F^{(1)}(x).$$

Now $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} \frac{2b(x)}{a(x)} F^{(1)}(x)$ exists and finite since $F \in C^1(I)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} b(x)/a(x)$ is finite for Proposition 3 shows that $b(r_i)=0$ hence $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} b(x)/a(x) = b^{(1)}(r_i)/a^{(1)}(r_i)$ is finite. It remains to show $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} 2(\lambda F(x) - f(x))/a(x)$ is finite. By hypothesis $a(r_i)=0$ and by Proposition 2 $D_m D_p^+ F(r_i) = \lambda F(r_i) - f(r_i) = 0$, applying l'Hospital rule we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} \frac{2}{a(x)} (\lambda F(x) - f(x)) = 2 \lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} (\lambda F^{(1)}(x) - f^{(1)}(x))/a^{(1)}(x)$$

finite since $a^{(1)}(r_i) \neq 0$. \square

2. Study of the Resolvent $(\lambda - A)^{-1}$

Let the domain of the operator A be defined by $\mathcal{D}(A) = \mathcal{D}_0 \cap \mathcal{D}_1$ where

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}_i &= \mathcal{D} = \{F : F \in C(I) \text{ and } AF \in C(I)\} \text{ if } r_i \text{ is inaccessible,} \\ \mathcal{D}_i &= \{F : F \in \mathcal{D} \text{ and } AF(r_i) = 0\} \text{ if } r_i \text{ is exit,} \\ \mathcal{D}_i &= \{F : F \in \mathcal{D} \text{ and } D_p^+ F(r_i) = 0\} \text{ if } r_i \text{ is regular.} \end{aligned}$$

For $k=0, 1, \dots$ let $\mathcal{D}_k(A) = \mathcal{D}(A) \cap C^k(I) \cap A^{-1} C^k(I)$. Let

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_0 &= 0, \\ \mu_1 &= |b^{(1)}|, \\ \mu_2 &= \left| \frac{a^{(2)}}{2} \right| + 2|b^{(1)}| + |b^{(2)}| + N_2, \\ \mu_3 &= \frac{1}{2}|a^{(3)}| + \frac{3}{2}|a^{(2)}| + |b^{(3)}| + 4|b^{(2)}| + 3|b^{(1)}| + N_3 \end{aligned}$$

where $N_2 = \max\{\zeta_0, \zeta_1\}$ and $N_3 = \max\{-m_0, -m_1, 0\}$ with $m_i = \inf_{x \in I_i} b(x)a^{(1)}(x)/a(x)$, $I_0 = (r_0, 0)$, $I_1 = (0, r_1)$, and

$$\zeta_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } B(r_i) < \infty \text{ or } m_i \geq 0 \\ -m_i & \text{if } B(r_i) = \infty \text{ and } m_i < 0, \end{cases}$$

Let Condition 0 be: $a, b \in C(I)$ with $a(x) > 0$ on (r_0, r_1) .

Theorem k ($k=0, 1, 2, 3$). "If Condition k holds and $f \in C^k(I)$ then the equation $\lambda F - AF = f$ has a unique solution $F = (\lambda - A)^{-1} f \in \mathcal{D}_k(A)$ provided $\lambda > \mu_k$, moreover, we have:

$$\|F\|_k = \|(\lambda - A)^{-1} f\|_k \leq \|f\|_k (\lambda - \mu_k)^{-1}$$

Remark 5. (a) If Condition k ($k=0, 1, 2, 3$) holds then μ_k is well defined. (Note that $m_i > -\infty$, so $0 \leq \zeta_i < \infty$).

(b) $C^0(I) = C(I)$ and $|\cdot|_0 = |\cdot|$.

(c) Theorem 0 is a direct application of Theorem 2 (Mandl, p. 39) and Hille-Yosida theorem.

2.1. Proof of Theorem 1

Theorem 0 ensures the existence and uniqueness of the solution F . Will show $|F^{(1)}| \leq K_1 = |f^{(1)}|(\lambda - \mu_1)^{-1}$ since then by Theorem 0 we have:

$$\begin{aligned} |F|_1 &= |(\lambda - A)^{-1}f|_1 = |F| + |F^{(1)}| \leq |f|\lambda^{-1} + K_1 \\ &\leq |f|\lambda^{-1} + |f^{(1)}|(\lambda - \mu_1)^{-1} \leq |f|_1(\lambda - \mu_1)^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $a, b, f \in C^1(I)$ and $a(x) > 0$ on (r_0, r_1) , by Proposition 1, we have $F \in C^3(r_0, r_1)$. To show $|F^{(1)}| \leq K_1$ enough to show $|F^{(1)}(x)| \leq K_1$ on (r_0, r_1) and $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_j} F^{(1)}(x)$ exists for $j=0, 1$ and $\lambda > \mu_1$. The second part follows from the following lemma which will be proved at the end of this section.

Lemma 1. For $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, f \in C(I)$ with $\gamma(x) > 0$ on (r_0, r_1) , let $\psi \in C^2(r_0, r_1)$ and satisfying

$$(\lambda - \alpha)\psi - \beta\psi^{(1)} - \gamma\psi^{(2)} = f.$$

Then for $\lambda > |\alpha|$ and $i=0, 1$ we have $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} \psi(x)$ exists finite or infinite.

Now $F \in C^3(r_0, r_1)$ and $\lambda F - AF = f$ so on (r_0, r_1) we have

$$(\lambda - b^{(1)})F^{(1)} - \left(\frac{a^{(1)}}{2} + b\right)F^{(2)} - \frac{a}{2}F^{(3)} = f^{(1)}. \quad (6)$$

Lemma 1 applied to equation (6) gives us the existence of $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_j} F^{(1)}(x)$ for $j=0, 1$. To show $|F^{(1)}(x)| \leq K_1$ maximum principle can be applied to (6) provided the maximum occurs at some interior point. For example, if maximum of $F^{(1)}$ occurs at $x_0 \in (r_0, r_1)$ then (6) holds with $F^{(2)}(x_0) = 0$ and $F^{(3)}(x_0) \leq 0$ therefore

$$-\frac{a(x_0)}{2}F^{(3)}(x_0) \geq 0$$

and for $\lambda > \mu_1$:

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda - b^{(1)}(x_0))F^{(1)}(x_0) &\leq f^{(1)}(x_0), \\ F^{(1)}(x) &\leq F^{(1)}(x_0) \leq |f^{(1)}|(\lambda - |b^{(1)}|)^{-1} = K_1. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly if maximum of $-F^{(1)}$ occurs at $\tilde{x}_0 \in (r_0, r_1)$ then applying maximum principle we get $F^{(1)}(x) \geq F^{(1)}(\tilde{x}_0) \geq -K_1$ which yields $|F^{(1)}(x)| \leq K_1$ on (r_0, r_1) . But maximum principle cannot be directly applied when maximum does not occur at an interior point. We now introduce auxiliary function $\phi_{\varepsilon, 1}$ which depends on certain growth function g defined according to the boundary behavior of $F^{(1)}$. The proof of Theorem 1 will be divided into two parts: first we study the properties of the auxiliary function $\phi_{\varepsilon, 1}$ and then the maximum principle applied to $\phi_{\varepsilon, 1}$ completes the proof.

2.1.1. The Auxiliary Function $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$

Under the hypothesis of Theorem 1 and for $\varepsilon > 0$ we define

$$\phi_{\varepsilon,1}(x) = \begin{cases} F^{(1)}(x)/(1 + \varepsilon g_0(x)e^{-B(x)}) & r_0 < x < 0 \\ F^{(1)}(x)/(1 + \varepsilon g_1(x)e^{-B(x)}) & 0 < x < r_1 \\ \max_{i=0,1} F^{(1)}(0)/(1 + \varepsilon g_i(0)) & x = 0 \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

where

$$g_i(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } r_i \text{ is entrance or regular} \\ |m(x)| & \text{if } r_i \text{ is natural or exit} \end{cases}$$

notice $e^{-B(0)} = 1$ and we can write $\phi_{\varepsilon,1} = F^{(1)}/1 + \varepsilon g e^{-B}$ where $g = 1$ or $|m|$. Now $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$ as above defined has the following properties:

- (a) $\phi_{\varepsilon,1} \in C^2((r_0, r_1) \setminus \{0\})$.
- (b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} \phi_{\varepsilon,1}(x) = 0$ for $i = 0, 1$.
- (c) $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$ attains a maximum on $[r_0, r_1]$ (even though $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$ may be not continuous at 0).
- (d) $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$ satisfies on $\{(r_0, r_1) \setminus \{0\}\}$ the differential equation

$$\alpha \phi_{\varepsilon,1} + \beta \phi_{\varepsilon,1}^{(1)} + \gamma \phi_{\varepsilon,1}^{(2)} = f^{(1)} \quad (8)$$

with $\alpha = \lambda - b^{(1)} + \varepsilon \lambda e^{-B} g$ and $\gamma = -\frac{a}{2}(1 + \varepsilon g e^{-B})$.

To prove this:

(a) We have $F \in C^3(r_0, r_1)$, m and $B \in C^2(r_0, r_1)$ by Proposition 1, hence $g \in C^2((r_0, r_1) \setminus \{0\})$ therefore $\phi_{\varepsilon,1} \in C^2((r_0, r_1) \setminus \{0\})$ since $g e^{-B} > 0$ for $x \neq 0$.

(b) Let's assume $r_i = r_1$.

If r_1 is entrance or regular then we have $g(x) = 1$ for $0 < x < r_1$ and

$$|\phi_{\varepsilon,1}(x)| = \left| \frac{F^{(1)}(x)}{1 + \varepsilon e^{-B(x)}} \right| \leq \left| \frac{D_p^+ F(x)}{\varepsilon} \right| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow r_1$$

since $D_p^+ F(r_1) = 0$ by Proposition 2.

If r_1 is natural or exit we have $g(x) = m(x)$ for $0 < x < r_1$

$$|\phi_{\varepsilon,1}(x)| = \left| \frac{F^{(1)}(x)}{1 + \varepsilon m(x)e^{-B(x)}} \right| \leq \left| \frac{D_p^+ F(x)}{\varepsilon m(x)} \right|$$

so it is enough to show $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} D_p^+ F(x)/m(x) = 0$. If r_1 is natural with $m(r_1)$ finite then there is nothing to prove since $D_p^+ F(r_1) = 0$ by Proposition 2. So let's assume $m(r_1) = \infty$. Let $0 < x_1 < x_2 < r_1$, since $D_p^+ F(x)$ and $m(x)$ are continuous and differentiable on $[x_1, x_2]$ we have by the Cauchy generalized mean value theorem

$$\frac{D_p^+ F(x_2) - D_p^+ F(x_1)}{m(x_2) - m(x_1)} = \frac{(D_p^+ F(x))^{(1)}}{(m(x))^{(1)}} = D_m D_p^+ F(x)$$

for some $x \in (x_1, x_2)$. By Proposition 2, $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} D_m D_p^+ F(x) = D_m D_p^+ F(r_1) = 0$. So given $\delta > 0$ there exists ξ such that for $\xi < x_1 < x_2 < r_1$ we have

$$-\frac{\delta}{3} < (D_p^+ F(x_2) - D_p^+ F(x_1)) / (m(x_2) - m(x_1)) < \frac{\delta}{3}$$

now, for fixed x_1 let $x_2 \rightarrow r_1$, then we must have $m(x_2) \rightarrow \infty$, since we are assuming $m(r_1) = \infty$. So for x_2 large enough we have $|D_p^+ F(x_1) / (m(x_2) - m(x_1))| < \delta/3$. This implies

$$\frac{2\delta}{3} > |D_p^+ F(x_2) / (m(x_2) - m(x_1))| > |D_p^+ F(x_2) / m(x_2)|_{x_2 \rightarrow r_1} \rightarrow 0.$$

(c) By (a) and (b) we conclude $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$ continuous on $\{[r_0, r_1] \setminus \{0\}\}$ although $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$ may be not continuous at 0 it will attain a maximum on $[r_0, r_1]$ since at 0 it is defined by the largest value and $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}(0^+)$ and $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}(0^-)$ exist.

(d) A routine calculation shows (d). \square

Next the maximum principle will be applied to $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$ in order to complete the proof, but if the maximum is at $x=0$ the principle cannot be applied. We will then make use of the following lemma which will be proved at the end of this section.

Lemma 2. *Let's assume $[l_0, l_1] \subset (r_0, r_1)$.*

- (i) $\psi \in C(r_0, r_1)$,
- (ii) $g(x) \geq 0$ on $[l_0, l_1]$, and $g(x) > 0$ on $\{(r_0, r_1) - [l_0, l_1]\}$.

For $\varepsilon > 0$ let $\phi_\varepsilon(x) = \psi(x) / (1 + \varepsilon g(x))$. If a maximum of ψ does not occur in $[l_0, l_1]$, then there is an $\varepsilon_1 > 0$ such that, for all $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1$, ϕ_ε does not have a positive maximum on $[l_0, l_1]$.

2.1.2. The Maximum Principle

We will show

$$F^{(1)}(x) \leq K_1 \quad \text{for } x \in (r_0, r_1) \text{ and } \lambda > \mu_1 \quad (9)$$

then exactly the same reasoning applied to $-F^{(1)}$ (that is, replace $F^{(1)}$ by $-F^{(1)}$ in the definition of $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$) completes the proof. To prove (9) if a maximum of $F^{(1)}$ occurs at some interior point the maximum principle applied to (6) gives us (9). If not we use the function $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$. It suffices to show for ε small enough we have $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}(x) \leq K_1$ on $[r_0, r_1]$ for $\lambda > \mu_1$. Then for $x \in (r_0, r_1)$ we have

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \phi_{\varepsilon,1}(x) = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{F^{(1)}(x)}{1 + \varepsilon g(x) e^{-B(x)}} = F^{(1)}(x) \leq K_1.$$

Now assuming $\hat{F}^{(1)}$ does not have an interior maximum, in particular there exists an interval $0 \in [l_0, l_1] \subset (r_0, r_1)$ such that $F^{(1)}$ does not have maximum on $[l_0, l_1]$, now by Lemma 2 there exists $\varepsilon_1 > 0$ such that for all $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1$ the function $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$ will not have a positive maximum on $[l_0, l_1]$, in particular $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$ will not have

a positive maximum at $x=0$ for $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1$. Now let $0 < \varepsilon < \varepsilon_1$ we will show $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}(x) \leq K_1$ and this completes the proof. There are three cases to study:

If $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$ has a maximum at $x=0$ then $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}(x) \leq \phi_{\varepsilon,1}(0) \leq 0 \leq K_1$.

If $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$ has a maximum at one of the boundaries then $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} \phi_{\varepsilon,1}(x) = 0 \leq K_1$.

If $\phi_{\varepsilon,1}$ has a maximum at some $x_{0,\varepsilon} \in \{(r_0, r_1) \setminus \{0\}\}$ then the maximum principle can be applied since at $x_{0,\varepsilon}$ (8) holds with

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{\varepsilon,1}^{(1)}(x_{0,\varepsilon}) &= 0, & \phi_{\varepsilon,1}^{(2)}(x_{0,\varepsilon}) &\leq 0, \\ g(x_{0,\varepsilon}) &> 0, & a(x_{0,\varepsilon}) &> 0, \end{aligned}$$

hence

$$\phi_{\varepsilon,1}(x) \leq \phi_{\varepsilon,1}(x_{0,\varepsilon}) \leq \frac{|f^{(1)}|}{\alpha(x_{0,\varepsilon})} \leq \frac{|f^{(1)}|}{\lambda - \mu_1} = K_1 \quad \text{for } \lambda > \mu_1. \quad \square$$

2.2. Proof of Theorems 2 and 3

The proofs are similar to Theorem 1. Here we present a quick sketch (for details see [4]).

Proof of Theorem 2. It suffices to show for $\lambda > \mu_2$ and $\delta_2 = f^{(2)} + b^{(2)}F^{(1)}$

$$|F^{(2)}| \leq K_2 = |\delta_2|(\lambda - \mu_2)^{-1}.$$

Equation (6) becomes

$$\left(\lambda - \frac{a^{(2)}}{2} - 2b^{(1)}\right)F^{(2)} - (a^{(1)} + b)F^{(3)} - \frac{a}{2}F^{(4)} = \delta_2.$$

$\phi_{\varepsilon,2}$ is defined as in (7) with $F^{(2)}$ in place of $F^{(1)}$ and

$$g_i(x) = \begin{cases} 2e^{B(x)}/a(x) & \text{if } \lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} e^{-B(x)} = 0 \\ 2/a(x) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We will show that the $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} \phi_{\varepsilon,2}(x) = 0$ for $i=0, 1$. Let's assume $r_i = r_1$

$$|\phi_{\varepsilon,2}(x)| \leq |e^{B(x)}F^{(2)}(x)/\varepsilon g_1(x)|$$

there are two cases to study:

Case 1. If r_1 is natural with $m(r_1) < \infty$ or entrance of regular then $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} e^{-B(x)} = \infty$ (by Proposition 3), also $\frac{a}{2}F^{(2)} = \lambda F - bF^{(1)} - f$ therefore $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} a(x)F^{(2)}(x)$ is finite so that we have $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} \phi_{\varepsilon,2}(x) = 0$.

Case 2. If r_1 is natural with $m(r_1) = \infty$ or exit then $b(r_1) = 0$ (by Proposition 3) and $AF(r_1) = 0$ (by Proposition 2). Now $\frac{a}{2}F^{(2)} = AF - bF^{(1)}$ so that $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} \frac{a(x)}{2}F^{(2)}(x) = 0$ (notice $F \in C^1(I)$ by Theorem 1). Therefore $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} \phi_{\varepsilon,2}(x) = 0$.

We have an equivalent equation to (8) where

$$\alpha = \lambda - \frac{a^{(2)}}{2} - 2b^{(1)} + \varepsilon g e^{-B} (\lambda - b^{(1)}) \quad \text{if } g = 2/a,$$

$$\alpha = \lambda - \frac{a^{(2)}}{2} - 2b^{(1)} + \varepsilon g e^{-B} \left(\lambda - 2b^{(1)} + \frac{b a^{(1)}}{a} \right) \quad \text{if } g = \frac{2}{a} e^B.$$

Proof of Theorem 3. It is enough to show for $\lambda > \mu_3$ that

$$|F^{(3)}| \leq K_3 = |\delta_3| (\lambda - \mu_3)^{-1}$$

where

$$\delta_3 = f^{(3)} + \left(\frac{a^{(3)}}{2} + 3b^{(2)} \right) F^{(2)} + b^{(3)} F^{(1)}.$$

Equation (6) becomes

$$\left(\lambda - \frac{3}{2} a^{(2)} - 3b^{(1)} \right) F^{(3)} - \left(\frac{3}{2} a^{(1)} + b \right) F^{(4)} - \frac{a}{2} F^{(5)} = \delta_3.$$

$\phi_{\varepsilon, 3}$ is defined as in (7) with $F^{(3)}$ in place of $F^{(1)}$ and

$$g_i(x) = \begin{cases} 2/a(x) & \text{if } \lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} e^{B(x)} = 0 \\ 2|m(x)|/a(x) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We will show $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} \phi_{\varepsilon, 3}(x) = 0$ for $i=0, 1$. Let's assume $r_i = r_1$. First notice that for $\lambda > \mu_2$ by Theorem 2 $F \in C^2(I)$ hence $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} \frac{a(x)}{2} F^{(3)}(x)$ exists and is finite. Now

$$|\phi_{\varepsilon, 3}(x)| \leq |F^{(3)}(x)/\varepsilon g_1(x) e^{-B(x)}|.$$

Case 1. If $g_1 = 2/a$ then the result follows since $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} e^{-B(x)} = \infty$.

Case 2. If $g_1 = 2m/a$ it suffices to prove $m(x) e^{-B(x)} \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow r_1$. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} e^{-B(x)} \neq 0$ then there is nothing to prove since $m(r_1) = \infty$ (by Proposition 3); otherwise applying l'Hospital rule we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} |m(x) e^{-B(x)}| = \lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} \left| \frac{m^{(1)}(x)}{(e^{B(x)})^{(1)}} \right| = \lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} \left| \frac{1}{b(x)} \right| = \infty$$

since $b(r_1) = 0$ by Proposition 3.

We have an equivalent equation to (8) where

$$\alpha = \lambda - \frac{3}{2} a^{(2)} - 3b^{(1)} + \varepsilon e^{-B} g \rho$$

$$\text{and } \rho = \lambda - a^{(2)} - 2b^{(1)} + \frac{(a^{(1)})^2}{2a} + \frac{a^{(1)} b}{a}.$$

2.3. Proof of Lemma 1 and Lemma 2

Proof of Lemma 1. Suppose $r_i = r_1$ (the case when $r_i = r_0$ is similar). If ψ is monotonic in a neighborhood of r_1 then the $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_1} \psi(x)$ exists and is finite or infinite. If not, then there exists $\xi < r_1$ such that ψ has infinitely many local maximums and local minimums on $[\xi, r_1)$. Let $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$ be such that $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_i = r_1$. For $\lambda > |\alpha|$, given $\varepsilon > 0$ choose \tilde{x}_0 such that $\xi < \tilde{x}_0 < r_1$ and

$$\left| \frac{f(r_1)}{\lambda - \alpha(r_1)} - \frac{f(x)}{\lambda - \alpha(x)} \right| < \varepsilon \quad \text{for } x \in [\tilde{x}_0, r_1].$$

Let

$$A = \{x_M : x_M \in [\tilde{x}_0, r_1) \text{ and } x_M \text{ is a local maximum of } \psi\},$$

$$B = \{x_m : x_m \in [\tilde{x}_0, r_1) \text{ and } x_m \text{ is a local minimum of } \psi\}.$$

Then we have:

$$\psi(x_M) \leq \frac{f(x_M)}{\lambda - \alpha(x_M)} \leq \frac{f(r_1)}{\lambda - \alpha(r_1)} + \varepsilon,$$

$$\psi(x_m) \geq \frac{f(x_m)}{\lambda - \alpha(x_m)} \geq \frac{f(r_1)}{\lambda - \alpha(r_1)} - \varepsilon$$

moreover,

$$\limsup_{x_i \rightarrow r_1} \psi(x_i) \leq \sup_{x_M \in A} \psi(x_M) \leq \frac{f(r_1)}{\lambda - \alpha(r_1)} + \varepsilon,$$

$$\liminf_{x_i \rightarrow r_1} \psi(x_i) \leq \inf_{x_m \in B} \psi(x_m) \leq \frac{f(r_1)}{\lambda - \alpha(r_1)} - \varepsilon$$

and this completes the proof. \square

Proof of Lemma 2. First notice that $\phi_\varepsilon(x)$ and $\psi(x)$ will always have the same sign since $g(x) \geq 0$. By hypothesis maximum of ψ not on $[l_0, l_1]$ so there exists $x_0 \notin [l_0, l_1]$ and $\delta > 0$ such that $\psi(x_0) > \psi(x) + \delta$ for $x \in [l_0, l_1]$. Let $K = \sup_{x \in [l_0, l_1]} \psi(x)$ then K is finite. If $K \leq 0$ then $\psi(x) \leq 0$ on $[l_0, l_1]$ so that $\phi_\varepsilon(x) \leq 0$ on $[l_0, l_1]$ hence ϕ_ε cannot have a positive maximum on $[l_0, l_1]$. If $K > 0$ let $\varepsilon_1 = \{\delta/2 K g(x_0)\}$. Suppose for some $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1$, ϕ_ε has a positive maximum at some $x_{1,\varepsilon} \in [l_0, l_1]$ then $\phi_\varepsilon(x_0) \leq \phi_\varepsilon(x_{1,\varepsilon})$ and $\psi(x_0) \leq \psi(x_{1,\varepsilon}) + \varepsilon g(x_0) \psi(x_{1,\varepsilon})$, but for $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1$ we have $\varepsilon g(x_0) \psi(x_{1,\varepsilon}) \leq \frac{\delta}{2}$, this implies $\psi(x_0) < \psi(x_{1,\varepsilon}) + \frac{\delta}{2}$ (contradiction). \square

3. Main Theorem. The Converse

Main Theorem. If condition 3 holds then there exists a strongly continuous semigroup $T(t)$ in $C^3(I)$ whose infinitesimal generator is A with domain $\mathcal{D}_3(A)$, $T(t): C^3(I) \rightarrow C^3(I)$ and there exists a constant μ_3 independent of t and f such that for $f \in C^3(I)$ we have $|T(t)f|_3 \leq |f|_3 \exp(\mu_3 t)$.

Proof. Let $G = A - \mu_3$, $\lambda' = \lambda - \mu_3$, $\mathcal{D}(G) = \mathcal{D}_3(A)$, we will show that G satisfies the conditions of Hille-Yosida theorem, then it follows that there exists a strongly continuous contraction semigroup $\{S(t), t \geq 0\}$ in $C^3(I)$ whose infinitesimal generator is G , moreover, $|S(t)f|_3 \leq |f|_3$ for $f \in C^3(I)$. Now let $T(t) = S(t)\exp(\mu_3 t)$, then $\{T(t), t \geq 0\}$ is a strongly continuous semigroup in $C^3(I)$ and the infinitesimal generator of $T(t)$ is $G + \mu_3 = A$, also, since $T(t) = S(t)\exp(\mu_3 t)$ and $|S(t)f|_3 \leq |f|_3$ we have $T(t): C^3(I) \rightarrow C^3(I)$ and $|T(t)f|_3 \leq |f|_3 \exp(\mu_3 t)$ for $f \in C^3(I)$.

(a) $\mathcal{D}(G)$ is dense in $C^3(I)$ with respect to $|\cdot|_3$. Enough to show $\mathcal{D}(A) \supset C^2(I)$. Now $\mathcal{D}(A) = \mathcal{D}_0 \cap \mathcal{D}_1$ will show $\mathcal{D}_i \supset C^2(I)$ for $i=0, 1$. There are three cases:

(i) if r_i is inaccessible we have $\mathcal{D}_i = \mathcal{D} \supset C^2(I)$.

(ii) if r_i is an exit we need to show that $Af(r_i) = 0$ for $f \in C^2(I)$. Now $b(r_i) = 0$ by Proposition 3 and $a(r_i) = 0$, so

$$Af(r_i) = \lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} \left\{ \frac{a(x)}{2} f^{(2)}(x) + b(x) f^{(1)}(x) \right\} = 0.$$

(iii) if r_i is regular we need to show $D_p^+ f(r_i) = 0$ for $f \in C^2(I)$. Now $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} e^{B(x)} = 0$ by Proposition 3, hence $D_p^+ f(r_i) = 0$.

(b) For $\lambda' > 0$ and $f \in C^3(I)$ the equation $\lambda' F - GF = f$ has a unique solution $F \in \mathcal{D}(G)$.

It follows from the fact that $(\lambda - A)F = f$ has a unique solution $F \in \mathcal{D}_3(A) = \mathcal{D}(G)$ provided $\lambda > \mu_3$ that is $\lambda' > 0$, and $\lambda' F - GF = (\lambda - A)F$.

(c) $|F|_3 \leq |f|_3 \lambda^{-1}$ for $f \in C^3(I)$.

From Theorem 3 we have for $\lambda' > 0$

$$|F|_3 = |(\lambda - A)^{-1} f|_3 \leq |f|_3 / (\lambda - \mu_3) = |f|_3 / \lambda'.$$

And this completes the proof. \square

Remark 6. The preceding theorem can be generalized: "For $k=0, 1, 2, 3$, if Condition k holds then there exists a strongly continuous semigroup $T(t)$ in $C^k(I)$ whose infinitesimal generator is A with domain $\mathcal{D}_k(A)$. Moreover, $T(t): C^k(I) \rightarrow C^k(I)$ and there exists μ_k independent of t and f such that for $f \in C^k(I)$ we have

$$|T(t)f|_k \leq |f|_k \exp(\mu_k t)."$$

Now we will prove the necessity of the boundary conditions $D_p^+ F(r_i) = 0$ and $AF(r_i) = 0$.

The Converse Theorem. *If the Main Theorem is true then:*

(a) $D_p^+ F(r_i) = 0$ if r_i is regular.

(b) $AF(r_i) = 0$ if r_i is an exit.

Proof. (a) if r_i is regular then $\lim_{x \rightarrow r_i} e^{B(x)} = 0$ by Proposition 3, also $F \in C^2(I)$ by the Main Theorem, so $D_p^+ F(r_i) = 0$.

(b) if r_i is an exit then $b(r_i) = 0$ by Proposition 3, $a(r_i) = 0$ by hypothesis and $F \in C^2(I)$, so $AF(r_i) = 0$. \square

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