Random Process Background

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Based on Probability, Random Variables and Random Signal Principles, P.Z. Peebles, Jr. and B. Shi





Measurable Space

- Measurable Space
- Topological Space
- Sigma Alebra
- Open Set
- Class



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- A space consists of selected mathematical objects that are treated as points, and selected relationships between these points.
 - the *nature* of the points can vary widely: for example, the points can be
 - elements of a set
 - functions on another space
 - subspaces of another space
 - It is the relationships between points that define the *nature* of the **space**.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Space (mathematics)

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- modern mathematics uses many types of spaces, such as
 - Euclidean spaces
 - linear spaces
 - topological spaces
 - Hilbert spaces
 - probability spaces
- *modern mathematics* does <u>not</u> <u>define</u> the notion of **space** itself.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Space_(mathematics)

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• a space is

a set (or a universe) with some added features

- it is <u>not</u> always clear whether a given mathematical object should be considered as a geometric **space**, or an algebraic **structure**
- a general <u>definition</u> of **structure** embraces all common types of **space**

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Space (mathematics)

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Mathematical objects (1)

- a mathematical object is an abstract concept arising in mathematics.
- an mathematical object is anything that has been (or could be) formally <u>defined</u>, and with which one may do
 - deductive reasoning
 - mathematical proofs

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mathematical object

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Mathematical objects (2)

• typically, a mathematical object

- can be a value that can be assigned to a variable
- therefore can be involved in formulas

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mathematical object

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Mathematical objects (3)

• commonly encountered mathematical objects include

- numbers
- sets
- functions
- expressions
- geometric objects
- transformations of other mathematical objects
- spaces

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mathematical_object

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Mathematical objects (4)

Mathematical objects can be very complex;

- for example, the followings are considered as **mathematical objects** in **proof theory**.
 - theorems
 - proofs
 - theories

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mathematical object

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• a structure is a set

endowed with some additional features on the set

- an operation
- relation
- metric
- topology
- often, the additional features are attached or related to the set, so as to provide it with some additional meaning or significance.

https://www.localmaxradio.com/questions/what-is-a-mathematical-space

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- A partial list of possible structures are
 - measures
 - algebraic structures (groups, fields, etc.)
 - topologies
 - metric structures (geometries)
 - orders
 - events
 - equivalence relations
 - differential structures
 - categories.

https://www.localmaxradio.com/questions/what-is-a-mathematical-space

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Mathematical space (1)

- A mathematical space is, informally, a collection of mathematical objects under consideration.
- The universe of mathematical objects within a space are *precisely* defined entities whose rules of *interaction* come baked into the rules of the space.

https://www.localmaxradio.com/questions/what-is-a-mathematical-space

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Mathematical space (2)

- A space differs from a mathematical set in several important ways:
 - A mathematical set is also a collection of objects
 - but these objects are being pulled from a **space** (or **universe**) of objects where the rules and definitions have already been agreed upon

https://www.localmaxradio.com/questions/what-is-a-mathematical-space

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Mathematical space (3)

- A space differs from a mathematical set in several important ways:
 - a mathematical set has no internal structure,
 - a **space** usually has some internal structure.

https://www.localmaxradio.com/questions/what-is-a-mathematical-space

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Mathematical space (4)

- having some internal structure could mean a variety of things, but typically it involves
 - *interactions* and *relationships* between elements of the **space**
 - *rules* on how to *create* and *define new* elements of the **space**

https://www.localmaxradio.com/questions/what-is-a-mathematical-space

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Measurable space (1)

• A measurable space is any space with a sigma-algebra

which can then be equipped with a measure

• collection of subsets of the space following certain rules with a way to assign sizes to those sets.

https://www.quora.com/What-is-a-measurable-space-and-probability-space-

intuitively-What-differences-do-they-have

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Measurable space (2)

Intuitively,

certain sets belonging to a measurable space can be given a size in a *consistent way*.

consistent way means that certain axioms are met:

- the empty set is given a size of zero
- if a measurable set is contained inside another one, then its size is less than or equal to the size of the containing set
- the size of a disjoint union of sets is the sum of the individual sets' sizes

https://www.quora.com/What-is-a-measurable-space-and-probability-space-

intuitively-What-differences-do-they-have

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Probability space

• A probability space is simply

a measurable space equipped with a probability measure.

- A probability measure has the special property of giving the entire space a size of 1.
 - this then implies that the size of any <u>disjoint union</u> of sets (the <u>sum</u> of the sizes of the sets) in the **probability space** is <u>less than</u> or <u>equal to</u> **1**

https://www.quora.com/What-is-a-measurable-space-and-probability-space-

intuitively-What-differences-do-they-have

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Euclidean space definition (1)

A subset U of the Euclidean n-space Rⁿ is open if, for every point x in U, there exists a positive real number ε (depending on x) such that any point in Rⁿ whose Euclidean distance from x is smaller than ε belongs to U

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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Euclidean space definition (2)

- Equivalently, a subset U of ℝⁿ is open if every point in U is the center of an open ball contained in U
- An example of a subset of ℝ that is not open is the closed interval [0,1], since neither 0 − ε nor 1 + ε belongs to [0,1] for any ε > 0, no matter how small.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_set

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Metric space definition (1)

- A subset U of a metric space (M, d) is called open if, for any point x in U, there exists a real number ε > 0 such that any point y ∈ M satisfying d(x, y) < ε belongs to U.
- Equivalently, *U* is **open** if every point in *U* has a neighborhood contained in *U*.
- This generalizes the Euclidean space example, since Euclidean space with the Euclidean distance is a metric space.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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Metric space definition (2)

• Formally, a **metric space** is an ordered pair (*M*, *d*) where *M* is a set and d is a metric on *M*, i.e., a function

$$d: M \times M \to \mathbb{R}$$

satisfying the following axioms for all points $x, y, z \in M$:

•
$$d(x,x)=0.$$

• If
$$x \neq y$$
, then $d(x,y) > 0$.

•
$$d(x,y) = d(y,x)$$
.

•
$$d(x,z) \leq d(x,y) + d(y,z)$$
.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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Metric space definition (3)

- satisfying the following axioms for all points $x, y, z \in M$:
 - The distance from a point *to itself* is zero:
 - (Positivity) The distance between two distinct points is always positive:
 - (Symmetry) The distance from x to y is always the same as the distance from y to x:
 - The triangle inequality holds: This is a natural property of both physical and metaphorical notions of distance: you can arrive at z from x by taking a detour through y, but this will not make your journey any faster than the shortest path.
- If the metric d is <u>unambiguous</u>, one often refers by abuse of notation to "the metric space M".

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_set

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topology

from the Greek words $\tau \dot{\sigma} \pi o \varsigma$, 'place, location', and $\lambda \dot{\sigma} \gamma o \varsigma$, 'study'

is concerned with the properties of a geometric object

- that are *preserved* under <u>continuous</u> deformations, such as stretching, twisting, crumpling, and bending;
- that is, without closing holes, opening holes, tearing, gluing, or passing through itself.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topology

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Topological space (1)

 a topological space is, roughly speaking, a geometrical space in which closeness is defined but <u>cannot</u> necessarily be measured by a numeric distance.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Borel_set

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Topological space (2)

- More specifically, a topological space is
- a set whose elements are called points,
- along with an additional structure called a topology,
 - which can be defined as
 - a set of neighbourhoods for each point
 - that satisfy some <u>axioms</u>
 - formalizing the concept of closeness.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Borel_set

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Topological space (3)

• There are several equivalent definitions of a topology, the most commonly used of which is the definition through open sets, which is easier than the others to manipulate.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Borel_set

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Topological space (4)

- A topological space is the most general type of a mathematical space that <u>allows</u> for the definition of
 - limits,
 - continuity, and
 - connectedness.
- Common types of topological spaces include
 - Euclidean spaces,
 - metric spaces and
 - manifolds.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Borel_set

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Topological space (5)

- Although very general, the concept of topological spaces is fundamental, and used in virtually every branch of modern mathematics.
- The study of **topological spaces** in their own right is called point-set topology or general topology.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Borel_set

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Topological space definition (1)

• A topology τ on a set X is

a set of subsets of X with the *properties* below. Each member of τ is called an open set.[3]

- $X \in \tau$ and $\varnothing \in \tau$
- Any union of sets in τ belong to τ : if $\{U_i : i \in I\} \subseteq \tau$ then

$$\bigcup_{i\in I}U_i\in\tau$$

• Any finite intersection of sets in τ belong to τ : if $U_1, \ldots, U_n \in \tau$ then

$$U_1 \cap \cdots \cap U_n \in \tau$$

• X together with τ is called a **topological space**.

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Topological space definition (2)

- Infinite intersections of open sets need not be open.
- For example, the intersection of all intervals of the form (-1/n, 1/n), where *n* is a positive integer, is the set {0} which is not open in the real line.
- A metric space is a topological space, whose topology consists of the collection of all subsets that are unions of open balls.
- There are, however, topological spaces that are not metric spaces.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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Topological space via neighborhoods (1)

- This axiomatization is due to Felix Hausdorff.
- Let X be a set;
- the elements of X are usually called points, though they can be any mathematical object.
- We allow X to be empty.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological_space

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Topological space via neighborhoods (2)

- Let N be a function assigning to each x (point) in X a non-empty collection N(x) of subsets of X.
- The elements of *N*(x) will be called neighbourhoods of x with respect to *N* (or, simply, neighbourhoods of x).
- The function \mathscr{N} is called a neighbourhood topology if *the axioms* below are satisfied; and
- then X with \mathcal{N} is called a topological space.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological space

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Topological space via neighborhoods (3)

- If N is a neighbourhood of x (i.e., N ∈ N(x)), then x ∈ N.
 In other words, each point belongs to every one of its neighbourhoods.
- If N is a subset of X and includes a neighbourhood of x, then N is a neighbourhood of x. I.e., every superset of a neighbourhood of a point x ∈ X is again a neighbourhood of x.
- The intersection of two neighbourhoods of x x is a neighbourhood of x.
- Any neighbourhood \mathcal{N} of x includes a neighbourhood \mathcal{M} of x such that \mathcal{N} is a neighbourhood of each point of M.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological_space

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Topological space via neighborhoods (4)

- The first three axioms for neighbourhoods have a clear meaning.
- The fourth axiom has a very important use in the structure of the theory, that of linking together the neighbourhoods of different points of X.
- A standard example of such a system of neighbourhoods is for the real line ℝ, where a subset N of ℝ is defined to be a neighbourhood of a real number x if it includes an open interval containing x.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological space

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Topological space via open sets (1)

- A topology on a set X may be defined as a collection τ of subsets of X, called open sets and satisfying the following axioms:
 - The empty set and X itself belong to au .
 - Any arbitrary (finite or infinite) union of members of τ belongs to τ .
 - The intersection of any finite number of members of τ belongs to τ .

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological_space

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Topological space via open sets (2)

- As this definition of a topology is the most <u>commonly used</u>, the set τ of the open sets is commonly called a **topology** on X.
- A subset $C \subseteq X$ is said to be closed in (X, τ) if its complement $X \setminus C$ is an open set.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological_space

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Topological space via neighborhoods (3)

- Given such a structure, a subset U of X is defined to be **open** if U is a neighbourhood of all points in U.
- The **open sets** then satisfy the axioms given below.
- Conversely, when given the open sets of a topological space, the neighbourhoods satisfying the above axioms can be recovered by defining N to be a neighbourhood of x if N includes an open set U such that x ∈ U.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological_space

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Examples of topoloy (1)

• Given $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$,

the trivial or indiscrete topology on X is the family $\tau = \{\{\}, \{1,2,3,4\}\} = \{\emptyset, X\}$ consisting of only the two subsets of X required by the axioms forms a topology of X.

• Given $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, the family $\tau = \{\{\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3, 4\}\}$ $= \{\emptyset, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}, X\}$ of six subsets of X forms another topology of X.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological space

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Examples of topoloy (2)

• Given $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$,

the discrete topology on X is the power set of X, which is the family $\tau = \mathscr{O}(X)$ consisting of all possible subsets of X. In this case the topological space (X, τ) is called a discrete space.

Given X = Z, the set of integers, the family τ of all finite subsets of the integers plus Z itself is not a topology, because (for example) the union of all finite sets not containing zero is not finite but is also not all of Z, and so it cannot be in τ.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological space

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Examples of topoloy (3)

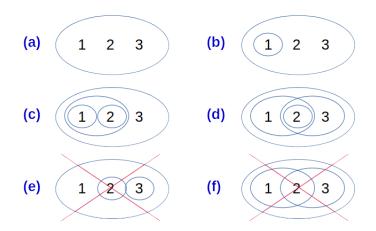
- Let τ be denoted with the circles, here are four examples (a), (b), (c), (d), and two non-examples (e), (f) of topologies on the three-point set {1,2,3}.
- (e) is <u>not</u> a topology because the union of {2} and {3} [i.e. {2,3}] is missing;
- (f) is not a topology because the intersection of {1,2} and {2,3} [i.e. {2}], is missing.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological space

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Examples of topoloy (4)



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Definitions via closed sets

• Using de Morgan's laws,

the above axioms defining **open sets** become axioms defining **closed sets**:

- The empty set and X are closed.
 - The intersection of any collection of **closed sets** s also **closed**.
 - The union of any <u>finite number</u> of **closed sets** is also **closed**.
- Using these axioms, another way to define a topological space is as a set X together with a collection τ of closed subsets of X. Thus the sets in the topology τ are the closed sets, and their complements in X are the open sets.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_set

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Sigma algebra (1)

- We <u>term</u> the **structures** which allow us to use **measure** to be **sigma algebras**
- the <u>only</u> requirements for sigma algebras (on a set X) are:
 - the {} and X are in the **set**.
 - if A is in the **set**, complement(A) is in the **set**.
 - for any sets E_i in the set, $\bigcup_i E_i$ is in the set (for countable *i*).

https://medium.com/intuition/measure-theory-for-beginners-an-intuitive-approach-intuiti

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Sigma algebra (2)

- The most intuitive way to think about a **sigma algebra** is that it is the kind of **structure** we can do probability on.
 - for example, we can assign <u>ratios</u> of <u>areas</u> and <u>length</u>, so the measure on such a set X tells something about the probability of its subsets.
 - we can find the probability of subsets A and B because we know their ratios with respect to a set X ;
 - we also know that
 - (the measure of) their complements are defined, and
 - their unions and intersections are defined,
 - so we know how to find the probability of things in this set X.

https://medium.com/intuition/measure-theory-for-beginners-an-intuitive-approach-intuiti

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Sigma algebra (3)

- The sigma algebra which contains the standard topology on R (that is, *all* open sets on R) is called the **Borel Sigma Algebra**, and the elements of this set are called **Borel sets**.
- What this gives us, is the set of sets on which outer measure gives our list of dreams. That is, if we take a Borel set and we check that length follows translation, additivity, and interval length, it will always hold.

https://medium.com/intuition/measure-theory-for-beginners-an-intuitive-approach-intuiti

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Sigma algebra (4)

- The set of Lebesgue measurable sets is the set of Borel sets, along with (union) all the sets which differ from a Borel set by a set of measure 0.
- More intuitively, it is all the sets we can normally measure, plus a bunch of stuff that <u>doesn't</u> affect our ideas of area or volume (think about the border of the circle above).

https://medium.com/intuition/measure-theory-for-beginners-an-intuitive-approach-

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- a Borel set is any set in a topological space that can be formed from open sets (or, equivalently, from closed sets) through the operations of
 - countable union,
 - countable intersection, and
 - relative complement.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Borel_set

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- For a topological space X, the collection of all Borel sets on X forms a σ-algebra, known as the Borel algebra or Borel σ-algebra.
- The Borel algebra on X is the smallest σ-algebra containing all open sets (or, equivalently, all closed sets).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Borel_set

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Borel Sets (1-3)

- Borel sets are important in measure theory, since any measure defined on the open sets of a space, or on the closed sets of a space, must also be defined on all Borel sets of that space.
- Any measure defined on the Borel sets is called a **Borel measure**.
- Borel sets and the associated Borel hierarchy also play a fundamental role in descriptive set theory.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Borel set

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- Borel sets are those obtained from intervals by means of the operations allowed in a *σ*-algebra. So we may construct them in a (transfinite) "sequence" of steps:
- ... And again and again.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/220248/understanding-borel-sets

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- Start with finite unions of closed-open intervals. These sets are completely elementary, and they form an algebra.
- 2. Adjoin countable unions and intersections of elementary sets. What you get already includes open sets and closed sets, intersections of an open set and a closed set, and so on. Thus you obtain an algebra, that is still <u>not</u> a σ -algebra.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/220248/understanding-borel-sets

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- Again, adjoin countable unions and intersections to 2. Observe that you get a strictly larger class, since a countable intersection of countable unions of intervals is <u>not</u> <u>necessarily</u> included in 2. Explicit examples of sets in 3 but not in 2 include F_σ sets, like, say, the set of *rational numbers*.
- 4. And do the same again.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/220248/understanding-borel-sets

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• And even after a sequence of steps we are not yet finished. Take, say, a countable union of a set constructed at step 1, a set constructed at step 2, and so on. This union may very well not have been constructed at any step yet. By axioms of σ -algebra, you should include it as well - if you want, as step ∞

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/220248/understanding-borel-sets

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- (or, technically, the first infinite ordinal, if you know what that means).
- And then continue in the same way until you reach the first uncountable ordinal. And only then will you finally obtain the generated σ -algebra.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/220248/understanding-borel-sets

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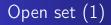
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- an open set is a generalization of an open interval in the real line.
- a metric space is a set along with a distance defined between any two points
- in a metric space,

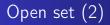
an **open set** is a set that, along with every point P, contains all points that are sufficiently near to P

• all points whose distance to P is less than some value depending on P

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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- More generally, an open set is
 - a member of a given collection of subsets of a given set,
 - a collection that has the property of containing
 - every union of its members
 - every finite intersection of its members
 - the empty set
 - the whole set itself

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_set

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- A set in which such a collection is given is called a **topological space**, and the collection is called a **topology**.
- These conditions are very <u>loose</u>, and allow enormous <u>flexibility</u> in the <u>choice</u> of open sets.
- For example,
 - every subset can be open (the discrete topology), or
 - no subset can be open (the indiscrete topology) except
 - the space itself and
 - the empty set .

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_set

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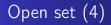
Example:

- The *circle* represents the set of points (x, y) satisfying $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$.
- The *disk* represents the set of points (x, y) satisfying $x^2 + y^2 < r^2$.
- The circle set is an open set,
- the disk set is its boundary set, and
- the union of the circle and disk sets is a closed set.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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- A set is a collection of distinct objects.
- Given a set A, we say that a is an element of A if a is one of the distinct objects in A, and we write a ∈ A to denote this
- Given two sets A and B, we say that A is a subset of B if every element of A is also an element of B write A ⊆ B to denote this.

https://ximera.osu.edu/mooculus/calculusE/continuityOfFunctionsOfSeveralVariables/digInOpenAndVariables/digI

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Open set (5) Open Balls

- We give these definitions in general, for when one is working in Rⁿ since they are really not all that different to define in Rⁿ than in R²
- An open ball $B_r(a)$ in \mathbb{R}^n <u>centered</u> at $a = (a_1, \dots a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with radius ris the set of all points $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that the <u>distance</u> between x and \mathbf{a} is less than r
- $\bullet~\mbox{In } \mathbb{R}^2$ an open~ball is often called an open~disk

https://ximera.osu.edu/mooculus/calculusE/continuityOfFunctionsOfSeveralVariables/digInOpenAndVariables/digI

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Open set (6) Interior points

- Suppose that $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$.
- A point *p* ∈ S is an interior point of S if there exists an open ball B_r(*p*) ⊆ S.
- Intuitively, *p* is an interior point of S if we can squeeze an entire open ball centered at *p* within S

https://ximera.osu.edu/mooculus/calculusE/continuityOfFunctionsOfSeveralVariables/digInOpenAndOpen

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Open set (7) Boundary points

- A point $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a **boundary point** of *S* if <u>all</u> open balls centered at p contain both points in *S* and points <u>not</u> in *S*.
- The boundary of S is the set ∂S that consists of all of the boundary points of S.

https://ximera.osu.edu/mooculus/calculusE/continuityOfFunctionsOfSeveralVariables/digInOpenAndOpen

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Open set (8) Open and Closed Sets

- A set O ⊆ ℝⁿ is open if every point in O is an interior point.
- A set C ⊆ ℝⁿ is closed if it contains all of its boundary points.

https://ximera.osu.edu/mooculus/calculusE/continuityOfFunctionsOfSeveralVariables/digInOpenAndOpen

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Open set (8) Bounded and Unbounded

• A set S is **bounded** if there is an open ball $B_M(0)$ such that

$S \subseteq B$.

- intuitively, this means that we can <u>enclose</u> all of the set *S* <u>within</u> a large enough ball centered at the origin.
- A set that is not bounded is called unbounded

https://ximera.osu.edu/mooculus/calculusE/continuityOfFunctionsOfSeveralVariables/digInOpenAndOpen

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Open Set

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Measurable Space Topological Space Sigma Alebra **Open Set** Class

Topologically distinguishable points

- Intuitively, an open set provides a *method* to *distinguish* two points.
- two points in a topological space, there exists an open set
 - containing one point but
 - not containing the other (distinct) point
 - the two points are topologically distinguishable.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_set

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Metric spaces

- In this manner, one may speak of whether two points, or more generally two subsets, of a topological space are "near" without concretely defining a distance.
- Therefore, **topological spaces** may be seen as a <u>generalization</u> of **spaces** equipped <u>with</u> a notion of distance, which are called **metric spaces**.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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The set of all real numbers

 In the set of all real numbers, one has the natural Euclidean metric; that is, a function which *measures* the distance between two real numbers: d(x,y) = |x - y|.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_set

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All points close to a real number x

- Therefore, given a real number x, one can speak of the set of all points <u>close</u> to that real number x; that is, within ɛ of x.
- In essence, points within ε of x approximate x to an accuracy of degree ε.
- Note that ɛ > 0 always, but as ɛ becomes smaller and smaller, one obtains points that approximate x to a higher and higher degree of accuracy.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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The points within ε of x

- For example, if x = 0 and ε = 1, the points within ε of x are precisely the points of the interval (-1,1);
- However, with $\varepsilon = 0.5$, the points within ε of x are precisely the points of (-0.5, 0.5).
- Clearly, these points <u>approximate</u> x to a greater degree of accuracy than when ε = 1.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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without a concrete Euclidean metric

- The previous examples shows,
 for the case x = 0, that one may approximate x to higher and higher degrees of accuracy by defining ε to be smaller and smaller.
- In particular, sets of the form $(-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ give us a lot of <u>information</u> about points close to x = 0.
- Thus, rather than speaking of a concrete Euclidean metric, one may use sets to describe points close to x.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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Different collections of sets containing 0

• This innovative idea has far-reaching consequences; in particular, by defining

 $\frac{\text{different collections of sets containing 0}}{(\text{distinct from the sets } (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)),}$ one may find <u>different results</u> regarding the <u>distance</u> between 0 and other real numbers.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_set

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Image: A matrix

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A set for measuring distance

- For example, if we were to define *R* as the *only* such set for "*measuring distance*", all points are close to 0
- since there is only <u>one</u> possible degree of accuracy one may achieve in <u>approximating</u> 0: being a member of *R*.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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The measure as a binary condition

- Thus, we find that in some sense, every real number is distance 0 away from 0.
- It may help in this case to think of the measure as being a binary condition:
 - all things in **R** are equally close to 0,
 - while any item that is not in R is not close to 0.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_set

Image: A matrix

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Family of sets (1)

- a collection F of subsets of a given set S is called
 - a family of subsets of S, or
 - a family of sets over S.
- More generally,
 - a collection of any sets whatsoever is called
 - a family of sets,
 - set family, or
 - a set system

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Family_of_sets

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- The term "collection" is used here because,
 - in some contexts,
 - a family of sets may be allowed
 - to contain repeated copies of any given member, and
 - in other contexts

it may form a proper class rather than a set.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Family_of_sets

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Family of sets – examples

- The set of all subsets of a given set S is called the power set of S and is denoted by ℘(S).
 The power set ℘(S) of a given set S is a family of sets over S.
- A subset of S having k elements is called a k-subset of S. The k-subset S^(k) of a set S form a **family** of **sets**.
- Let $S = \{a, b, c, 1, 2\}$. An example of a **family** of **sets** over S (in the multiset sense) is given by $F = \{A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4\}$, where $A_1 = \{a, b, c\}, A_2 = \{1, 2\}, A_3 = \{1, 2\}$, and $A_4 = \{a, b, 1\}$.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Family of sets

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Filter

- a filter on a set X is a family \mathscr{B} of subsets such that:
- X ∈ ℬ and Ø ∉ ℬ if A ∈ ℬ and B ∈ ℬ, then A ∩ B ∈ ℬ
 If A, B ⊂ X, A ∈ ℬ, and A ⊂ B, then B ∈ ℬ
- A filter on a set may be thought of as representing a "collection of large subsets", one intuitive example being the neighborhood filter.
- Filters appear in order theory, model theory, and set theory, but can also be found in topology, from which they originate. The dual notion of a filter is an ideal.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filter_(set_theory)#filter_base

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Neighbourhood basis (1)

- A neighbourhood basis or local basis (or neighbourhood base or local base) for a point x is a filter base of the neighbourhood filter;
- this means that it is a subset $\mathscr{B} \subseteq \mathscr{N}(x)$ such that for all $V \in \mathscr{N}(x)$, there exists some $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $B \subseteq V$. That is, for any **neighbourhood** V we can find a **neighbourhood** B in the **neighbourhood basis** that is contained in V.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neighbourhood_system#Neighbourhood_basis

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Neighbourhood basis (2)

• Equivalently, \mathscr{B} is a local basis at x if and only if the neighbourhood filter \mathscr{N} can be recovered from \mathscr{B} in the sense that the following equality holds:

$$\mathscr{N}(x) = \{ V \subseteq X : B \subseteq V \text{ for some } B \in \mathscr{B} \}$$

A family B ⊆ N(x) is a neighbourhood basis for x if and only if B is a cofinal subset of (N(x), ⊇) with respect to the partial order ⊇ (importantly, this partial order is the superset relation and not the subset relation).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neighbourhood_system#Neighbourhood_basis

Measurable Space Topological Space Sigma Alebra **Open Set** Class

A collection of sets around x

- In general, one refers to the <u>family</u> of sets containing 0, used to approximate 0, as a neighborhood basis;
- a member of this neighborhood basis is referred to as an **open set**.
- In fact, one may <u>generalize</u> these notions to an <u>arbitrary</u> set (X); rather than just the real numbers.
- In this case, given a point (x) of that set (X), one may define a collection of sets
 "around" (that is, containing) x, used to approximate x.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_set

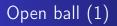
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Smaller sets containing x

- Of course, this collection would have to satisfy certain properties (known as axioms) for otherwise we may not have a well-defined method to measure distance.
- For example, every point in X should approximate x to some degree of accuracy.
- Thus X should be in this family.
- Once we begin to define "smaller" sets containing x, we tend to approximate x to a greater degree of accuracy.
- Bearing this in mind, one may define the remaining axioms that the family of sets about x is required to satisfy.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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- a **ball** is the solid figure bounded by a **sphere**; it is also called a **solid sphere**.
 - a closed ball

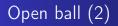
includes the boundary points that constitute the sphere

• an open ball

excludes them

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ball_(mathematics)

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- A ball in *n* dimensions is called a hyperball or n-ball and is bounded by a hypersphere or (*n*−1)-sphere
- One may talk about **balls** in any topological space *X*, not necessarily induced by a metric.
- An *n*-dimensional topological ball of X is any subset of X which is homeomorphic to an Euclidean n-ball.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ball (mathematics)

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Homeomorphism (1)

• a homeomorphism

(from Greek ὅμοιος (homoios) 'similar, same', and μορφή (morphē) 'shape, form', named by Henri Poincaré), **topological isomorphism**, or **bicontinuous function** is a bijective and continuous function between topological spaces that has a continuous inverse function.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homeomorphism

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Homeomorphism (2)

- Homeomorphisms are the isomorphisms in the category of topological spaces – the mappings that preserve all the topological properties of a given space.
- Two spaces with a homeomorphism between them are called homeomorphic, and from a topological viewpoint they are the same.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homeomorphism

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Homeomorphism (3)

Very roughly speaking,
 a topological space is a geometric object,
 and the homeomorphism is
 a continuous stretching and bending
 of the object into a new shape.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homeomorphism

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Homeomorphism (4)

- Thus, a *square* and a *circle* are homeomorphic to each other, but a *sphere* and a *torus* are not.
- However, this description can be misleading.
- Some continuous deformations are not homeomorphisms, such as the deformation of a line into a point.
- Some homeomorphisms are <u>not</u> continuous deformations, such as the homeomorphism between a *trefoil knot* and a *circle*.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homeomorphism

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Measurable Space Topological Space Sigma Alebra Open Set Class

Outline



Measurable Space

- Measurable Space
- Topological Space
- Sigma Alebra
- Open Set

Class



Image: A math a math

Measurable Space Topological Space Sigma Alebra Open Set Class



• a class is a collection of sets

(or sometimes other mathematical objects) that can be unambiguously <u>defined</u> by a property that all its members share.

 Classes act as a way to have set-like collections while differing from sets so as to avoid Russell's paradox

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class_(set_theory)

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- A class that is not a set is called a proper class, and
- a class that is a set is sometimes called a small class.
- the followings are proper classes in many formal systems
 - the class of all sets
 - the class of all ordinal numbers
 - the class of all cardinal numbers

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class_(set_theory)

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- consider "the set of all sets with property X."
- especially when dealing with categories, since the objects of a concrete category are all sets with certain additional structure.
- However, if we're not careful about this we can get into serious trouble –

https://www.quora.com/In-set-theory-what-is-the-difference-between-a-set-of-

objects-and-a-class-of-objects

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- let X be the set of all sets which do not contain *themselves*
- Since X is a set, we can ask whether X is an element of *itself*.
- But then we run into a paradox if X contains itself as an element, then it does not, and vice versa.

https://www.quora.com/In-set-theory-what-is-the-difference-between-a-set-of-

objects-and-a-class-of-objects

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- In order to avoid this paradox, we cannot consider the collection of <u>all sets</u> to be itself a set.
- This means we have to *throw out* the whole "the set of all sets with property X" construction. But we wanted that.
- So the way we get around it is to say that there's something called a **class**, which is like a set but not a set.

https://www.quora.com/In-set-theory-what-is-the-difference-between-a-set-of-

objects-and-a-class-of-objects

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- Then we can talk about "the class X of all sets with property Y."
- Since X is <u>not</u> a set, it can't be an element of itself, and we're fine.
- Of course, if we need to talk about the collection of all classes, we need to create another name that goes another step back, and so forth.

https://www.quora.com/In-set-theory-what-is-the-difference-between-a-set-of-

objects-and-a-class-of-objects

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Class Examples (1)

- The collection of all algebraic structures of a given type will usually be a proper class.
 - (a class that is <u>not</u> a set is called a proper class)
 - the class of all groups
 - the class of all vector spaces
 - and many others.
- Within set theory, many collections of sets turn out to be proper classes.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class_(set_theory)

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Class Examples (2)

- One way to prove that a class is proper is to place it in bijection with the class of all ordinal numbers.
 - Cardinal numbers indicate an <u>amount</u> how many of something we have: one, two, three, four, five.
 - Ordinal numbers indicate <u>position</u> in a series: first, second, third, fourth, fifth.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class_(set_theory) https://editarians.com/cardinals-ordinals/

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Class Paradoxes (1)

- The **paradoxes** of naive set theory can be explained in terms of the *inconsistent tacit assumption* that "all classes are sets".
- These paradoxes do <u>not</u> arise with classes because there is no notion of classes containing classes.
- Otherwise, one could, for example, define a class of all classes that do <u>not</u> contain themselves, which would lead to a Russell paradox for classes.

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class_(set_theory)
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Class Paradoxes (2)

- With a rigorous foundation, these **paradoxes** instead *suggest proofs* that certain classes are proper (i.e., that they are not sets).
 - Russell's paradox suggests a proof that the class of <u>all sets</u> which do not contain themselves is proper
 - the **Burali-Forti paradox** suggests that the class of all ordinal numbers is proper.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class_(set_theory)

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Measurable Space Topological Space Stochatic Process Russell's Paradox (1)

 According to the unrestricted comprehension principle, for any sufficiently well-defined property, there is the set of all and only the objects that have that property.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russell%27s_paradox

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Russell's Paradox (2)

- Let R be the set of all sets (R = {x | x ∉ x}) that are not members of themselves (R ∉ R).
 - if R is <u>not</u> a member of itself (R ∉ R), then its definition (the set of all sets) entails <u>that</u> it is a member of itself (R ∈ R);
 - yet, *if* it is a member of itself $(R \in R)$, *then* it is <u>not</u> a member of itself $(R \notin R)$, since it is the set of all sets <u>that</u> are <u>not</u> members of themselves $(R \notin R)$
- the resulting contradiction is Russell's paradox.
- Let $R = \{x \mid x \notin x\}$, then $R \in R \iff R \notin R$

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russell%27s_paradox

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Russell's Paradox (3)

- *Most sets* commonly encountered are not members of themselves.
- For example, consider the set of all squares in a plane.
- This set is not itself a square in the plane, thus it is not a member of itself.
- Let us call a set "normal" if it is not a member of itself, and "abnormal" if it is a member of itself.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russell%27s paradox

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Russell's Paradox (4)

- Clearly every set must be either normal or abnormal.
- The set of squares in the plane is normal.
- In contrast, the complementary set that contains everything which is <u>not</u> a <u>square</u> in the plane is itself <u>not</u> a <u>square</u> in the plane, and so it is one of its own members and is therefore abnormal.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russell%27s_paradox

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Russell's Paradox (5)

- Now we consider the set of all normal sets, *R*, and try to determine whether *R* is normal or abnormal.
 - If R were normal, it would be contained in the set of all normal sets (itself), and therefore be abnormal;
 - on the other hand *if R* were abnormal, it would <u>not</u> be contained in the set of all normal sets (itself), and therefore be normal.
- This leads to the conclusion that *R* is neither normal nor abnormal: **Russell's paradox**.

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Stochastic Process (1)

In probability theory and related fields, a **stochastic** (/stoʊ'kæstık/) or **random** process is a mathematical object usually defined as a family of **random variables**.

The word stochastic in English was originally used as an adjective with the definition "pertaining to **conjecturing**", and stemming from a Greek word meaning "to <u>aim</u> at a mark, <u>guess</u>", and the Oxford English Dictionary gives the year 1662 as its earliest occurrence.

From Ancient Greek στοχαστικός (stokhastikós), from στοχάζομαι (stokházomai, "aim at a target, guess"), from στόχος (stókhos, "an aim, a guess").

> https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stochastic https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/stochastic

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Stochastic Process (2)

The definition of a **stochastic process** varies, but a **stochastic process** is *traditionally* defined as a collection of **random variables** indexed by some set.

The terms **random process** and **stochastic process** are considered <u>synonyms</u> and are used <u>interchangeably</u>, without the **index set** being precisely specified.

Both "collection", or "family" are used while instead of "index set", sometimes the terms "parameter set" or "parameter space" are used.

Stochastic Process (3)

The term **random function** is also used to refer to a **stochastic** or **random process**, though sometimes it is only used when the stochastic process takes real values.

This term is also used when the **index sets** are **mathematical spaces** other than the **real line**,

while the terms **stochastic process** and **random process** are usually used when the **index set** is interpreted as time,

and other terms are used such as **random field** when the **index set** is *n*-dimensional **Euclidean space** \mathbb{R}^n or a manifold https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stochastic process

Stochastic Process (4)

A stochastic process can be denoted, by $\{X(t)\}_{t\in T}$, $\{X_t\}_{t\in T}$, $\{X(t)\}$, $\{X_t\}$ or simply as X or X(t), although X(t) is regarded as an abuse of function notation.

For example, X(t) or X_t are used to refer to the **random variable** with the **index** t, and not the entire **stochastic process**.

If the **index set** is $T = [0, \infty)$, then one can write, for example, $(X_t, t \ge 0)$ to denote the **stochastic process**.

Stochastic Process Definition (1)

A stochastic process is defined as a collection of random variables defined on a common probability space (Ω, \mathscr{F}, P) ,

- Ω is a sample space,
- \mathscr{F} is a σ -algebra,
- *P* is a **probability measure**;
- the random variables, indexed by some set T,
- all take values in the same **mathematical space** S, which must be **measurable** with respect to some σ -algebra Σ

Stochastic Process Definition (2)

In other words, for a given probability space (Ω, \mathscr{F}, P) and a measurable space (S, Σ) , a stochastic process is a collection of S-valued random variables, which can be written as:

 $\{X(t):t\in T\}.$

Stochastic Process Definition (3)

Historically, in many problems from the natural sciences a point $t \in T$ had the meaning of time, so X(t) is a **random variable** representing a value observed at time t.

A stochastic process can also be written as $\{X(t, \omega) : t \in T\}$ to reflect that it is actually a function of two variables, $t \in T$ and $\omega \in \Omega$.

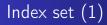
Stochastic Process Definition (4)

There are <u>other</u> ways to consider a stochastic process, with the above definition being considered the <u>traditional</u> one.

For example, a stochastic process can be interpreted or defined as a S^{T} -valued **random variable**, where S^{T} is the space of all the possible functions from the set T into the space S.

However this alternative definition as

a "function-valued random variable" in general requires additional regularity assumptions to be **well-defined**.



The set T is called the **index set** or **parameter set** of the **stochastic process**.

Often this set is some <u>subset</u> of the <u>real line</u>, such as the natural numbers or an interval, giving the set T the interpretation of time.



In addition to these sets, the index set T can be another set with a **total order** or a more general set, such as the Cartesian plane R^2 or *n*-dimensional **Euclidean space**, where an element $t \in T$ can represent a point in space.

That said, many results and theorems are only possible for **stochastic processes** with a **totally ordered index set**.



The mathematical space S of a stochastic process is called its state space.

This mathematical space can be defined using integers, real lines, *n*-dimensional Euclidean spaces, complex planes, or more abstract mathematical spaces.

The **state space** is defined using elements that reflect the <u>different</u> values that the **stochastic process** can take.

Sample function (1)

A sample function is a single outcome of a stochastic process, so it is formed by taking a single possible value of each random variable of the stochastic process.

More precisely, if $\{X(t, \omega) : t \in T\}$ is a **stochastic process**, then for any point $\omega \in \Omega$, the mapping $X(\cdot, \omega) : T \to S$, is called a **sample function**, a **realization**, or, particularly when T is interpreted as <u>time</u>, a **sample path** of the **stochastic process** $\{X(t, \omega) : t \in T\}$.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stochastic process

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Sample function (2)

This means that for a fixed $\omega \in \Omega$, there exists a sample function that maps the index set T to the state space S.

Other names for a **sample function** of a **stochastic process** include **trajectory**, **path function** or **path**

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