#### Random Process Background

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#### Measurable Space Stochatic Process

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Based on

Probability, Random Variables and Random Signal Principles,

P.Z. Peebles, Jr. and B. Shi

#### Outline

- Measurable Space
  - Measurable Space
  - Sigma Alebra
  - Topological Space
  - Open Set
- 2 Stochatic Process

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- Measurable Space
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#### Measurable Space

## Space (1)

- 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 that define the nature of the space.

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



# Space (2)

- While modern mathematics uses many types of spaces, such as
  - Euclidean spaces
  - linear spaces
  - topological spaces
  - Hilbert spaces
  - probability spaces
- it does not define the notion of space itself.

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



## Space (3)

- a space is
   a set (or a universe) with some added structure
- It is <u>not</u> always clear whether a given <u>mathematical</u> object should be considered as a geometric <u>space</u>, or an algebraic <u>structure</u>
- A general definition of structure embraces all common types of space

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



#### 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 defined, and with which one may do
  - deductive reasoning
  - mathematical proofs

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



## 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

## Mathematical objects (3)

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

 $https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mathematical\_object$ 



## 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

Measurable Space

Topological Space Open Set

- a **structure** is a set endowed with some *additional features* on the set
  - e.g. 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.



## Structure (2)

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



## 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.



## 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



# Mathematical space (3)

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

#### Sigma Alebra Topological Space Open Set

Measurable Space

## 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

## 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-spaceintuitively-What-differences-do-they-have

## 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



#### 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 less than or equal to 1

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

intuitively-What-differences-do-they-have



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## Sigma algebra

## Sigma algebra (1)

- We <u>term</u> the <u>structures</u> which allow us to use <u>measure</u> to be <u>sigma</u> algebras
- the only 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<sub>i</sub> in the set,
     ∪<sub>i</sub> E<sub>i</sub> is in the set (for countable i).

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

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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 <u>measure</u> on such a set X tells something about the <u>probability</u> of its <u>subsets</u>.
  - 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-

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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-

## 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 doesn't 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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## Borel Sets (1-1)

- 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

## Borel Sets (1-2)

- 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



## 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



## Borel Sets (2)

- 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.

#### Borel Sets (3-1)

- Start with finite unions of closed-open intervals.
   These sets are completely elementary, and they form an algebra.
- 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 not a σ-algebra.



#### Borel Sets (3)

- 3. 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 necessarily</u> included in 2.
  - Explicit examples of sets in 3 but not in 2 include  $F_{\sigma}$  sets, like, say, the set of *rational numbers*.
- 4. And do the same again.



## Borel Sets (4-1)

• 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  $\sigma$ -algebra, you should include it as well - if you want, as step  $\infty$ 

## Borel Sets (4-2)

- (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  $\sigma$ -algebra.

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  - Sigma Alebra
  - Topological Space
  - Open Set
- Stochatic Process

## Topological Space

#### Topology

 topology from the Greek words

from the Greek words τόπος, 'place, location', and λόγος, 'study'

is concerned with the properties of a geometric object

- that are preserved under continuous 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



#### Topological space (1)

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

## 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 axioms
  - formalizing the concept of closeness.

## 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.

## Topological space (4)

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



## 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.

## Open set (1)

- 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



## Open set (2)

- 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

## Open set (2)

- 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 flexibility in the choice 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 .



## Open set (3)

#### 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.



## Open set (4)

- 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.

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#### Open set (5) Open Balls

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

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#### Open set (6) Interior points

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

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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 not in S.
- The boundary of S is the set ∂S that consists of all of the boundary points of S.

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## Open set (8) Open and Closed Sets

- A set  $O \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is **open** if every point in O is an interior point.
- A set C⊆ R<sup>n</sup> is closed
   if it contains all of its boundary points.

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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 enclose all of the set S within a large enough ball centered at the origin.
- A set that is not bounded is called unbounded

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#### Open Set

## Topologically distinguishable points

- Intuitively, an open set provides a *method* to *distinguish* two points.
- <u>two</u> 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.



#### Metric spaces

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

#### 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|.

#### 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 ε of x.
- In essence, points within  $\varepsilon$  of xapproximate x to an accuracy of degree  $\varepsilon$ .
- Note that ε > 0 always,
   but as ε becomes smaller and smaller,
   one obtains points that approximate x
   to a higher and higher degree of accuracy.



#### The points within $\varepsilon$ of x

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

#### 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  $\varepsilon$  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, <u>rather than</u> speaking of a <u>concrete</u> <u>Euclidean metric</u>, one may <u>use</u> <u>sets</u> to <u>describe</u> points <u>close</u> to x.



## Different collections of sets containing 0

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

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

#### 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.



## 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



## Family of sets (2)

- The term "collection" is used here because,
  - in some contexts,
     a family of sets may be <u>allowed</u>
     to contain repeated copies of any given member, and
  - in other contexts
     it may form a proper class rather than a set.

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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  $\wp(S)$ .

  The **power set**  $\wp(S)$  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<sup>(k)</sup> 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



## Class (1)

- a class is a collection of sets
   (or sometimes other mathematical objects)
   that can be unambiguously defined
   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

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class\_(set\_theory)
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## Class (2)

- 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 ordinal numbers, and
  - the class of all sets,

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class\_(set\_theory)
```

## Class Examples (1)

- The **collection** of all algebraic structures of a given type will usually be a **proper class**.
- Examples include the class of all groups, the class of all vector spaces, and many others.
- In category theory, a category whose collection of objects forms a proper class (or whose collection of morphisms forms a proper class) is called a large category.
- The surreal numbers are a **proper class** of objects that have the properties of a field.

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

- Within set theory, many collections of sets turn out to be proper classes.
- Examples include the class of all sets, the class of all ordinal numbers, and the class of all cardinal numbers.
- One way to prove that a class is proper is to place it in bijection with the class of all ordinal numbers.
   This method is used, for example, in the proof that there is no free complete lattice on three or more generators.

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class (set theory)
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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". With a rigorous foundation, these paradoxes instead suggest proofs that certain classes are proper (i.e., that they are not sets). For example, Russell's paradox suggests a proof that the class of all sets which do not contain themselves is proper, and the Burali-Forti paradox suggests that the class of all ordinal numbers is proper.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class\_(set\_theory)



#### Class Paradoxes (2)

 The paradoxes do not 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 not contain themselves, which would lead to a Russell paradox for classes. A conglomerate, on the other hand, can have proper classes as members, although the theory of conglomerates is not yet well-established.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class\_(set\_theory)



#### Filter

- a filter on a set X is a family  $\mathscr{B}$  of subsets such that:
- $X \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{B}$  if  $A \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ , then  $A \cap B \in \mathcal{B}$ If  $A, B \subset X, A \in \mathcal{B}$ , and  $A \subset B$ , then  $B \in \mathcal{B}$
- 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



#### 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.

 $https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neighbourhood\_system \#Neighbourhood\_basis$ 



#### Neighbourhood basis (2)

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

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

• A family  $\mathscr{B} \subseteq \mathscr{N}(x)$  is a neighbourhood basis for x if and only if  $\mathscr{B}$  is a cofinal subset of  $(\mathscr{N}(x),\supseteq)$  with respect to the partial order  $\supseteq$  (importantly, this partial order is the superset relation and not the subset relation).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neighbourhood system#Neighbourhood basis



#### A collection of sets around x

- In general, one refers to the <u>family</u> of sets containing 0, used to <u>approximate</u> 0, as a <u>neighborhood</u> 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 <u>real numbers</u>.
- 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



#### 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



#### Open ball (1)

- 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)

## Open ball (2)

- 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)

#### 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.
```

#### 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.

## 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.

#### 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.

## Euclidean space definition (1)

• A subset U of the Euclidean n-space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is open if, for every point x in U, there exists a positive real number  $\varepsilon$  (depending on x) such that any point in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  whose Euclidean distance from x is smaller than  $\varepsilon$  belongs to U

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open\_set

# Euclidean space definition (2)

- Equivalently, a subset U of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is open if every point in U is the center of an open ball contained in U
- An example of a subset of  $\mathbb R$  that is <u>not</u> **open** is the closed interval [0,1], since <u>neither</u>  $0-\varepsilon$  <u>nor</u>  $1+\varepsilon$  <u>belongs</u> to [0,1] for any  $\varepsilon>0$ , no matter how small.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open\_set

Measurable Space

Topological Space Open Set

- A subset U of a metric space (M,d) is called open if, for any point x in U, there exists a real number  $\varepsilon > 0$ such that any point  $y \in M$  satisfying  $d(x,y) < \varepsilon$  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



# 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

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

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).
- $d(x,z) \le d(x,y) + d(y,z)$ .

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

#### 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



#### 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  $\tau$  belong to  $\tau$ : if  $\{U_i : i \in I\} \subseteq \tau$  then

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

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

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

• X together with  $\tau$  is called a **topological space**.



#### Topological space definition (2)

- <u>Infinite</u> intersections of open sets need <u>not</u> 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 <u>not</u> metric spaces.

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



#### 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.

## Topological space via neighborhoods (2)

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

## Topological space via neighborhoods (3)

- If N is a neighbourhood of x (i.e.,  $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ ), then  $x \in N$ . 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  $x \in X$  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.



#### 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  $\mathbb{R}$ , where a subset N of  $\mathbb{R}$  is defined to be a neighbourhood of a real number x if it includes an open interval containing x.



#### 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:
  - ullet The empty set and X itself belong to au .
  - Any <u>arbitrary</u> (finite or infinite) union of members of  $\tau$  belongs to  $\tau$  .
  - The intersection of any finite number of members of au belongs to au .



#### Topological space via open sets (2)

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

## 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 <u>recovered</u> by <u>defining</u> N to be a <u>neighbourhood</u> of x if N includes an open set U such that  $x \in U$ .

## Examples of topoloy (1)

- Given  $X = \{1,2,3,4\}$ , the trivial or indiscrete topology on X is the family  $\tau = \{\{\}, \{1,2,3,4\}\} = \{\varnothing,X\}$  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  $\tau = \{\{\},\{2\},\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{1,2,3\},\{1,2,3,4\}\}$  =  $\{\varnothing,\{2\},\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{1,2,3\},X\}$  of six subsets of X forms another topology of X.



# 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 τ = ω(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.

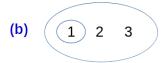
# Examples of topoloy (3)

- 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.

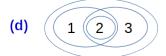


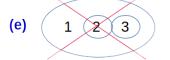
#### Examples of topoloy (4)

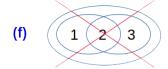












#### Definitions via closed sets

- 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  $\tau$  of **closed subsets** of X. Thus the **sets** in the **topology**  $\tau$  are the **closed sets**, and their complements in X are the **open sets**.

#### Open)

• (Open and Closed Sets)

#### Stochastic Process (1)

In probability theory and related fields,

- a **stochastic** (/stoʊˈkæstɪk/) 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



#### 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 <u>time</u>,

and other terms are used such as **random field** when the **index set** is *n*-dimensional **Euclidean space**  $\mathbb{R}^n$  or a manifold



#### Stochastic Process (4)

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

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 <u>collection</u> of **random variables** defined on a common **probability space**  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ ,

- $\Omega$  is a sample space,
- $\mathscr{F}$  is a  $\sigma$  -algebra,
- P is a probability measure;
- the random variables, <u>indexed</u> by some set T,
- all take values in the same **mathematical space** S, which must be **measurable** with respect to some  $\sigma$  -algebra  $\Sigma$



## Stochastic Process Definition (2)

In other words, for a given **probability space**  $(\Omega, \mathscr{F}, P)$  and a **measurable space**  $(S, \Sigma)$ , 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 other ways to consider a stochastic process, with the above definition being considered the traditional 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.



#### Index set (1)

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 <u>time</u>.

#### Index set (2)

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**.

#### State space

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 values</u> that the **stochastic process** can <u>take</u>.



#### Sample function (1)

A sample function is a <u>single</u> outcome of a stochastic process, so it is formed by taking a <u>single</u> <u>possible value</u> of each <u>random variable</u> 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 \underline{\operatorname{time}}, a sample path of the stochastic process \{X(t,\omega):t\in T\}.
```

#### 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