Random Process Background

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

Outline

- Open Sets and Classes
 - Open Set
 - Class
- 2 Borel Sets
 - Measurable Space
 - Topological Space
 - Borel Sets
- Stochatic Process



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- Open Sets and Classes
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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.

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

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∈ Rⁿ is a boundary point of S if all 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 $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ 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 <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

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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 <u>defining</u> 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 ε of x
 approximate x to an accuracy of degree ε.
- 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 ε of x

- For example, if x = 0 and $\varepsilon = 1$, 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 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 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, <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 <u>not</u> in R is <u>not close</u> 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 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

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 \(\varphi(S)\).
 The power set \(\varphi(S)\) 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



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.

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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

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 generalize these notions to an arbitrary 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.



Smaller sets containing x

- Of course, this collection would have to satisfy certain properties (known as axioms) for otherwise we may <u>not</u> 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 <u>define</u> the remaining axioms that the family of sets about x is required to satisfy.



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)

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 - Topological Space
 - Borel Sets
- Stochatic Process

Class (1)

- 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

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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 sets
 - the class of all ordinal numbers
 - the class of all cardinal numbers

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

Class (3)

- 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

Class (4)

- 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

Class (5)

- In order to avoid this paradox,
 we <u>cannot</u> consider the collection of <u>all</u> sets
 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-ofobjects-and-a-class-of-objects



Class (6)

- Then we can talk about
 "the class X of all sets with property Y."
- Since X is not 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

Class Examples (1)

- The collection of all algebraic structures of a given type will usually be a proper class.
 (a class that is not 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.

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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 position in a series: first, second, third, fourth, fifth.

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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 <u>Russell paradox</u> 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</u> sets which do not contain themselves is proper
 - the **Burali-Forti paradox** *suggests* that the class of all ordinal numbers is proper.

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class (set theory)
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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.

Russell's Paradox (2)

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

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 <u>not</u> itself a <u>square</u> in the plane, thus it is not a <u>member</u> of itself.
- Let us call a set "normal" if it is <u>not</u> a member of itself, and "abnormal" if it is a member of itself.

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.

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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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

Structure (1)

- 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



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.

https://www.localmaxradio.com/questions/what-is-a-mathematical-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 between points that define the nature of the space.

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



Space (2)

- 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)

Space (3)

- 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**

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

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



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.local maxradio.com/questions/what-is-a-mathematical-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

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

intuitively-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 <u>special property</u> of giving the <u>entire space</u> a size of 1.
 - this then implies that the size
 of any <u>disjoint union</u> of sets
 (the <u>sum</u> of the <u>sizes</u> of the sets)
 in the <u>probability space</u>
 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



Euclidean space definition (1)

• A subset U of the **Euclidean n-space** \mathbb{R}^n is open

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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
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Euclidean space definition (2)

• Equivalently, a subset U of \mathbb{R}^n is open

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if every point in U is the center of an open ball contained in U
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• 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.

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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 $\varepsilon > 0$ 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.



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

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:
 - (Triangle inequality) 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*".



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Topology (1)

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

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

Topology (2)

- topology is concerned with the properties of a geometric object that are preserved
 - under continuous deformations such as
 - stretching
 - twisting
 - crumpling
 - bending

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

- that is, without
 - closing holes
 - opening holes
 - tearing
 - gluing
 - passing through itself

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 measured by a <u>numeric</u> distance.

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

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



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.

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

Topological space (4)

- A topological space is the most general type of a mathematical space that allows for the definition of
 - limits
 - continuity
 - connectedness
- 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.

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



Topological space (5)

- Common types of topological spaces include
 - Euclidean spaces: a set of points satisfying certain relationships, expressible in terms of distance and angles.
 - metric spaces: a set together with a notion of distance between points. The distance is measured by a function called a metric or distance function.
 - manifolds: a topological space that *locally* resembles
 Euclidean space near each point. More precisely, an n-manifold is a topological space with the property that each point has a neighborhood that is homeomorphic to an open subset of n-dimensional Euclidean space.

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



Topological space definition (1-1)

- A topology τ on a set X is
 a set of subsets of X with the properties below.
 - a topology τ on a set X: a set of subsets of X members of τ : subsets of X
- ullet each member of au is called an open set.
- X together with τ is called a **topological space**

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

Topological space definition (1-2)

- topology τ : a set of subsets of X has the properties below
 - $X \in \tau$ and $\varnothing \in \tau$
 - any union of sets in τ belong to τ : any union of subsets of X 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 any finite intersection of subsets of X belong to τ : if $U_1, \ldots, U_n \in \tau$ then

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

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



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



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 τ belongs to τ .
 - The intersection of any finite number of members of au belongs to au .

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



Topological space via open sets (2)

- As this definition of a topology is the most commonly used, 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

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.

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



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 = ℘(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.

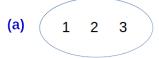
Examples of topoloy (3)

- 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.

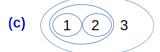
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological space



Examples of topoloy (4)

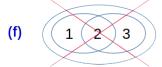












Topological space via neighborhoods (1)

- 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.

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

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 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

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.

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



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.

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



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 $x \in U$.

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



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



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 not continuous deformations, such as the homeomorphism between a trefoil knot and a circle.

Outline

- Open Sets and Classes
 - Open Set
 - Class
- 2 Borel Sets
 - Measurable Space
 - Topological Space
 - Borel Sets
- Stochatic Process

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_i in the set,
 ∪ E_i 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.

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

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.

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

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</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

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 σ-algebra, you should include it as well - if you want, as step ∞

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

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 σ -algebra.

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

Stochastic Process (1)

In probability theory and related fields, a **stochastic** (/stoʊ'kæstɪk/) 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 <u>collection</u> of **random variables** <u>indexed</u> 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 (Ω, \mathcal{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 <u>value</u> observed <u>at time</u> 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 time.

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 <u>point</u> in <u>space</u>.

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 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 \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

Open Sets and Classes Borel Sets Stochatic Process