### 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



#### Outline

- Open Sets and Classes
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  - Topological Space
  - Borel Sets
- Stochatic Process

### Open set examples

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

# 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
  - <u>all</u> 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 (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

- An open ball  $B_r(a)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  centered at  $a = (a_1, \dots a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with radius r is 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**

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  $\mathbb{R}^2$ 

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

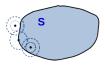


# Open set (6) Interior points

- 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  $\overline{S}$



an interior point



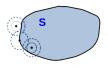
a boundary point

# Open set (7) Boundary points

- A point p∈ R<sup>n</sup> 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  $\partial S$  that consists of all of the boundary points of S.







a boundary point

# 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.

https://ximera.osu.edu/mooculus/calculus E/continuityOfFunctionsOfSeveralVariables/digInOpenAndOfSeveralVariables/digInOpe

# Open set (9) 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,  $B_M(0)$ 

• A set that is not bounded is called unbounded

https://ximera.osu.edu/mooculus/calculusE/continuityOfFunctionsOfSeveralVariables/digInOpenAndranders(Anthreas and Anthreas Ant



### Discrete Topology

- a discrete space is a particularly simple example
   of a topological space or similar structure,
   one in which the points form a discontinuous sequence,
   meaning they are isolated from each other in a certain sense.
- The discrete topology is the finest topology that can be given on a set.
  - every subset is open
  - every singleton subset is an open set

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



#### Singletone

- a singleton, also known as a unit set or one-point set, is a set with exactly one element.
- for example, the set {0} is a singleton whose single element is 0

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discrete\_space

# Indiscrete Space (1)

- a topological space with the trivial topology is one where the only open sets are the empty set and the entire space.
- Such spaces are commonly called indiscrete, anti-discrete, concrete or codiscrete.
  - every subset can be open (the discrete topology), or
  - <u>no</u> subset can be open (the indiscrete topology) except the space itself and the empty set .

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



# Indiscrete Space (2)

- Intuitively, this has the consequence that
   <u>all points</u> of the space are "lumped together"
   and <u>cannot</u> be <u>distinguished</u> by topological means (<u>not</u> topologically <u>distinguishable</u> points)
- Every indiscrete space is a pseudometric space in which the distance between any two points is zero.

 $https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discrete\_space$ 

#### T<sub>0</sub> Space

- In topology and related branches of mathematics, a topological space X is a T0 space or Kolmogorov space (named after Andrey Kolmogorov) if for every pair of distinct points of X, at least one of them has a neighborhood not containing the other.
- In a T0 space, all points are topologically distinguishable.
- This condition, called the T0 condition, is the weakest of the separation axioms.
- Nearly all topological spaces normally studied in mathematics are T0 spaces.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kolmogorov\_space



## Topologically distinguishable points

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

## Topologically distinguishable points

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#### 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  $\varepsilon$  of x approximate 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 Euclidean metric</u>, one may <u>use sets</u> to <u>describe points 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 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.

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)

#### Outline

- Open Sets and Classes
  - Open Set
  - Class
- 2 Borel Sets
  - Measurable Space
  - 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/
```

## 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)
```

## 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.

#### Outline

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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.



## 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.



## 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.

# 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,
  - a **space** usually has some internal structure.

## 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-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
```

• 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.

## 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*".

#### Outline

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

# 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.

#### 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.



#### 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.



#### 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.

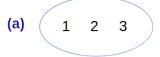


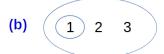
## Examples of topoloy (1)

- 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 (2)













#### Every union of (c)

(c) is a topology  $\{\{\},\{1\},\{2\},\{1,2\},\{1,2,3\}\}$  every union of (c)

U	{}	{1}	{2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}
{}	{}	{1}	{2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}
{1}	{1}	{1}	{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}
{2}	{2}	{1,2}	{2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}
{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}
{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}

# Every intersection of (c)

(c) is a topology  $\{\{\},\{1\},\{2\},\{1,2\},\{1,2,3\}\}$  every intersection of (c)

Π	{}	{1}	{2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}
{}	{}	{}	{}	{}	{}
{1}	{}	{1}	{}	{1}	{1}
{2}	{}	{}	{2}	{2}	{2}
{1,2}	{}	{1}	{2}	{1,2}	{1,2}
{1,2,3}	{}	{1}	{2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}

#### Every union of (f)

(f) is <u>not</u> a topology  $\{\{\},\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{1,2,3\}\}$  every union of (f)

U	{}	{1,2}	$\{2,3\}$	{1,2,3}
{}	{}	{1,2}	{2,3}	{1,2,3}
{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}
{2,3}	{2,3}	{1,2,3}	{2,3}	{1,2,3}
{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}

# Every intersection of (f)

(f) is not a topology  $\{\{\},\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{1,2,3\}\}$  every intersection of (f)

$\cap$	{}	{1,2}	{2,3}	{1,2,3}
{}	{}	{}	{}	{}
{1,2}	{}	{1,2}	{2}	{1,2}
{2,3}	{}	{2}	{2,3}	{2,3}
{1,2,3}	{}	{1,2}	{2,3}	{1,2,3}

## Examples of topoloy (3)

• 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.

#### Examples of topoloy (4)

• 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 (5)

• Given  $X = \{1,2,3,4\}$ , the *discrete* topology on X is the power set of X, which is the family  $\tau = \mathcal{O}(X)$  consisting of *all possible* subsets of X. the family

$$\tau = \begin{cases} \{\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{4\} \\ \{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{1,4\}, \{2,3\}, \{2,4\}, \{3,4\}, \\ \{1,2,3\}, \{1,2,4\}, \{1,3,4\}, \{2,3,4\}, \{1,2,3,4\} \} \end{cases}$$

• In this case the topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called a *discrete* space.



## Examples of topoloy (6)

• Given  $X = \mathbb{Z}$ , the set of integers, the family  $\tau$  of all finite subsets of the integers plus  $\mathbb{Z}$  itself is <u>not</u> a topology, because (for example) the <u>union</u> of all finite sets <u>not</u> containing <u>zero</u> is <u>not</u> finite <u>but</u> is also <u>not</u> all of  $\mathbb{Z}$ , and so it cannot be in  $\tau$ .

# Definition via Open Sets (1)

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

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

#### Definition via Open Sets (2)

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

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



#### Definition via Open Sets (3)

- <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 not metric spaces.



#### Definition via Open Sets (4)

- 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 arbitrary (finite or infinite) union of members of  $\tau$  belongs to  $\tau$  .
  - $\bullet$  the intersection of any finite number of members of  $\tau$  belongs to  $\tau$  .

#### Definition via Open Sets (5)

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

## Definition 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.

## Definition 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.

#### Definition 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.



#### Definition via Neighborhoods (4)

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



#### Definition via Neighborhoods (5)

- 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  $x \in U$ .



#### Definitions via Closed Sets (1)

- 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.



## Homeomorphism (1)

#### a homeomorphism

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

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

# Homeomorphism (2)

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

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

# Homeomorphism (3)

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

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

# 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.

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

#### 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<sub>i</sub> in the set,
     ∪ 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</u> <u>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 σ-algebra, you should include it as well - if you want, as step ∞

#### 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.

## 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 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, indexed 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  $t \in \mathcal{T}$  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 <u>function</u> of <u>two variables</u>,  $t\in T$  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