## Fractal Geometry

Alex Rutar\* University of Waterloo

Winter 2020<sup>†</sup>

<sup>\*</sup>arutar@uwaterloo.ca

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup>Last updated: January 9, 2020

# Contents

Chapte	r I	Topics in Fractal Geometry
1	Dime	nsion Theory
	1.1	The Cantor Set
	1.2	Box Dimensions
	1.3	Constructing Measures in Metric Spaces
	1.4	Hausdorff Measure and Dimension
Chapte	er II	Stochastic Calculus
2	Marti	ngale Theory

# I. Topics in Fractal Geometry

### 1 Dimension Theory

#### 1.1 THE CANTOR SET

Define maps  $f_i : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  for i = 1, 2 given by  $f_1(x) = x/3$  and  $f_2(x) = x/3 + 2/3$ . Let  $C_0 = [0, 1]$ ; given some  $C_k$ , define  $C_{k+1} = f_1(C_k) \cup f_2(C_k)$ ; since the  $f_i$  are linear,  $C_k$  is compact. We thus define  $C_{1/3} = \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n$ , the classical **Cantor set**.

If  $x \in C_{1/3}$ , then x is an accumulation point: given  $\epsilon > 0$ , get N so that  $3^{-N} < \epsilon$  then and thus some endpoint of  $C_N$  disjoint from x is within distance  $\epsilon$  of x. Thus  $C_{1/3}$  is a perfect set and therefore uncountable. Another way to see that the Cantor set is uncountable is to note that  $C_{1/3}$  is homeomorphic to  $\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  with the product topology (via ternary expansions). Moreover, since  $\lambda(C_{1/3}) \leq \lambda(C_n) = \frac{2^n}{3^n}$  for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we see that  $\lambda(C_{1/3}) = 0$ .

More generally, we may define  $C_r$  where  $r \in (0, 1/2)$  by the above process with the functions  $f_1(x) = rx$  and  $f_2(x) = rx + 1 - r$ . Again,  $C_r \cong \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  topologically and  $\lambda(C_r) = 0$ ; but already, we see that our classical analytic perspectives (topological, Lebesgue-measure-theoretic, cardinality) are insufficient to distinguish the  $C_r$  for distinct r.

#### 1.2 Box Dimensions

**Definition.** Let  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be a bounded Borel set, and for each  $\delta > 0$ , let  $N_{\delta}(E)$  be the least number of closed balls of diameter  $\delta$ . We then define the **upper box dimension** of E

$$\overline{\dim}_B E = \limsup_{\delta \to 0} \frac{\log N_{\delta}(E)}{|\log \delta|}$$

and similarly  $\underline{\dim}_B E$  (the **lower box dimension**) with a liminf in place of limsup. If  $\underline{\dim}_B E = \overline{\dim}_B E$ , then we define the **box dimension** to be this shared quantity.

If *I* is any interval, it is easy to see that  $\dim_B I = 1$ . [**TODO**: include proof of invariance on choice of ball] Note that if  $N_{\delta}(E) \sim \delta^{-s}$ , then  $\dim_B E = S$ .

*Example.* Let's show that the box dimension of  $C_{1/3}$  exists, and compute it. Given some  $\delta > 0$ , let n be so that  $3^{-n} \le \delta < 3^{-(n-1)}$ . Certainly we can cover  $C_{1/3}$  by Cantor intervals of level n, so that  $N_{\delta}(C_{1/3}) \le 2^n$ . Moreover, the endpoints of Cantor inversals of level n-1 are distance at least  $3^{-(n-1)} > \delta$  apart. Thus  $N_{\delta}(C_{1/3})$  is at least the number of endpoints of level n-1, i.e.  $N_{\delta}(C_{1/3}) \ge 2^n$ . Thus  $N_{\delta}(C_{1/3}) = 2^n$ , so that

$$\frac{\log 2}{\log 3} = \frac{\log 2^n}{\log 3^n} \le \frac{\log N_{\delta}(C_{1/3})}{|\log \delta|} \le \frac{\log 2^n}{\log 3^{n-1}} = \frac{n}{n-1} \cdot \frac{\log 2}{\log 3}$$

and, as  $\delta \to 0$ ,  $n \to \infty$  so that the  $C_{1/3} = \frac{\log 2}{\log 3}$ .

More generally, using the same technique, we may compute  $C_r = \frac{\log 2}{\log 1/r}$ .

However, the box dimension has poor properties: for example, we may verify  $\dim_B\{0,1,1/2,1/3,\ldots\} = \frac{1}{2}$ . But this is very concerning from a measure theoretic perspective, since this is a countable set with larger "dimension" than some uncountable sets (e.g.  $C_r$  for small r).

#### 1.3 Constructing Measures in Metric Spaces

Let *X* be a metric space.

**Definition.** Given  $A, B \subseteq X$ , say  $d(A, B) = \inf\{d(a, b) : a \in A, b \in B\}$ . Say A, B have **positive** separation if d(A, B) > 0.

If A, B are compact and disjoint, then they have positive separation. We say that an outer measure  $\mu^*$  is a **metric outer measure** if  $\mu^*(A \cup B) = \mu^*(A) + \mu^*(B)$  when A, B have positive separation.

*Example.* The Lebesgue outer measure is a metric outer measure. [TODO: prove]

**1.1 Theorem.**  $\mu^*$  is a metric outer measure if and only if every Borel set is  $\mu^*$ -measurable (in the sense of Caratheodory).

Proof [TODO: prove this (homework), and find a proof of the converse? (may not be true)]

Suppose  $A \subseteq \mathcal{B}$  are both covers of X containing  $\emptyset$  and  $\mathcal{C} : \mathcal{B} \to [0, \infty]$  with  $\mathcal{C}(\emptyset)$ . Let  $\mu_A^*$  and  $\mu_B^*$  be the corresponding extensions of  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{C}|_A$ . Then by definition,  $\mu_B^*(E) \le \mu_A^*(E)$  for all  $E \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ .

Let X be a metric space,  $\mathcal{A}$  cover X containing  $\emptyset$ . Suppose for each  $x \in X$  and  $\delta > 0$ , there exists  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $x \in A$  and  $A \leq \delta$ . Let  $\mathcal{C} : \mathcal{A} \to [0,\infty]$  with  $\mathcal{C}(\emptyset) = 0$ . Set  $\mathcal{A}_{\epsilon} = \{A \in \mathcal{A} : (A) \leq \epsilon\}$ , and define  $\mu_{\epsilon}^*$  by extending  $\mathcal{C}|_{\mathcal{A}_{\epsilon}}$ . In particular, as  $\epsilon$  decreases,  $\mu_{\epsilon}^*$  increases, and define

$$\mu^*(E) = \sup_{\epsilon} \mu_{\epsilon}^*(E) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \mu_{\epsilon}^*(E)$$

**1.2 Theorem.** As defined above,  $\mu^*$  is a metric outer measure.

Proof [TODO: prove this, homework]

*Example.* The Lebesgue measure arises this way; in fact, the  $\mu_{\epsilon}^*$  are all the same outer measure.

#### 1.4 Hausdorff Measure and Dimension

For the remainder of this chapter, if X is a metric space and  $U \subseteq X$ , we denote |U| = (U). **Definition.** A  $\delta$ -cover of a set  $F \subseteq X$  is any countable collection  $\{U_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n \supseteq F$  and  $|U_n| \le \delta$ .

Let  $A = \mathcal{P}(X)$ , and  $A_{\delta} = \{A \subseteq X : |A| \le \delta\}$ . For  $\delta \ge 0$ , put  $\mathcal{C}_s(A) = |A|^s$ . Then for  $s \ge 0$ ,  $\delta > 0$ , and  $E \subseteq$ , we define

$$H_{\delta}^{s}(E) = \inf \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |U_{n}|^{s} : \{U_{n}\} \text{ is a } \delta \text{-cover of } E \right\}$$
$$= \inf \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_{s}(U_{n}) : \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} U_{n} \supseteq E, U_{n} \in \mathcal{A}_{\delta} \right\}$$

This is the outer measure as constructed in **??** with covering family  $A_{\delta}$  and function  $C_s$ . In particular, as  $\delta \to 0$ ,  $H^s_{\delta}$  increases; in particular, by Theorem 1.2,  $H^s(E) = \sup_{\delta} H^s_{\delta}(E)$  is a

metric outer measure. Then apply Caratheodory (??) to get the s-dimensional Hausdorff measure, which is a complete Borel measure.

*xample.* (i)  $H^0$  is the counting measure on any metric space. (ii) Take  $X = \mathbb{R}$  and s = 1. Then  $H^1$  is the Lebesgue measure (on Borel sets). To see this, we have

$$\lambda(E) = \inf \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |I_n| : \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \supseteq E, |I_n| \le \delta \right\}$$
  
 
$$\ge H_{\delta}^{1}(E)$$

for any  $\delta > 0$ ; and conversely, take any  $\delta$ -cover of E, say  $\{U_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  and set  $I_n = \overline{\operatorname{conv} U_n}$  so  $|I_n| = |U_n| \le \delta$ . Thus  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |U_n| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |I_n| \ge \lambda(E)$  for any such cover, so  $\lambda(E) = H_{\delta}^1(E)$  for any  $\delta > 0$ . Thus  $\lambda(E) = H^1(E)$  for any Borel set E.

(iii) More generally, if  $X = \mathbb{R}^n$  and s = n, then  $\lambda = \pi_n \cdot H^n$  where  $\pi_n$  is the n-dimensional volume of the ball of diameter 1. [TODO: this is annoying exercise]

Suppose s < t. Then  $H^s(E) \ge H^t(E)$ .

## II. Stochastic Calculus

**Definition.** Given a measure space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ , a measurable function  $f : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  is called a **random variable**.

**Definition.** A **stochastic process**  $X = \{X_t\}_{t \in T}$  is a collection of random variables defined on some probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ .

Typically  $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  or  $t \in \mathbb{R}^+$  (including 0); t is a discrete or continuous time parameter. Given some  $\omega \in \Omega$  the map  $t \mapsto X_t(\omega)$  is called a **realization** or **path** of this process. We will regard  $\{X_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  as a random element in some path space, equipped with a proper  $\sigma$ -algebra and probability.

Consider  $X_t(\omega)$  as a function  $X:[0,\infty)\times\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$  equipped with the product  $\sigma$ -algebra.

**Definition.** The **distribution** of a stochastic process is the collection of all its finite-dimensional distributions.

Two processes *X* and *Y* can be "the same" in different senses:

**Definition.** Two process  $X = \{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$  and  $Y = \{Y_t\}_{t \geq 0}$  are called **distinguishable** if almost all their sample paths agree; in other words,  $\mathbb{P}(X_t = Y_t, 0 \leq t < \infty) = 1$ . We say that Y is a **modification** of X if for each  $t \geq 0$  we have  $\mathbb{P}(X_t = Y_t) = 1$ . Finally, X and Y are said to have the **same distribution** if all the finite dimensional distributions agree. In other words, if for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 \leq t_1 < t_2 < \cdots < t_n < \infty$ , we have  $(X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_n}) \stackrel{d}{=} (Y_{t_1}, \dots, Y_{t_n})$ .

*Example.* Let X be a continuous stochastic process and N a Poisson point process on  $[0, \infty)$ . Then define

$$Y_t := \begin{cases} X_t & : t \notin N \\ X_t + 1 & : t \in N \end{cases}$$

Thus  $\mathbb{P}(X_t = Y_t) = 1$  for all t, so X is a modification of Y. However,  $\mathbb{P}(X_t = Y_t, t \ge 0) = 0$ , so that X and Y are not indistinguishable.

A filtration formalizes the idea of "information acquired over time".

**Definition.** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space. A **filtration** is a non-decreasing family  $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  of sub- $\sigma$ -algebras of  $\mathcal{F}$  so that  $\mathcal{F}_s \subseteq \mathcal{F}_t \subseteq \mathcal{F}$  for  $0 \leq s < t < \infty$ . We write  $F_{\infty} = \sigma(\bigcup_{t>0} \mathcal{F}_t)$ .

Let  $\{X_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  be a stochastic process. The filtration generated by  $\{X_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  is  $\{\sigma(X_s:0\leq s\leq t)\}_{t\geq 0}$ , in other words  $\mathcal{F}_t$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algbra which makes  $X_s$  measurable for all  $s\in [0,t]$ .

**Definition.** A stochastic process  $\{X_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  is called **adapted** to a filtration  $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  if  $X_t$  is  $\mathcal{F}_t$ -measurable for every  $t\geq 0$ .

The filtration generated by  $\{X_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  is the smallest filtration which makes  $(X_t)_{t\geq 0}$  adapted.

A filtration  $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t\geq 0}$  is said to satisfy the "usual condition" if

- 1. It is right-continuous:  $\lim_{s\to t^+} := \bigcap_{s>t} \mathcal{F}_s = \mathcal{F}_t$
- 2.  $\mathcal{F}_0$  contains all the  $\mathbb{P}$ -null events in  $\mathcal{F}$ .

### 2 Martingale Theory

Consider a filtered space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t \in S})$  where  $S = \mathbb{N}$  or  $S = \mathbb{R}^+$ .

**Definition.** A random time T is called a stopping time if  $\{T \leq t\} \in \mathcal{F}_t$  ("we know it happens when it happens").

*Example.* (i) Constants are trivial stopping times.

- (ii) Last hit a constant before *N* is not a stopping time
  - **2.1 Proposition.** If S, T are stopping times,  $T \vee S$ ,  $T \wedge S$ , T + S are stopping times.

PROOF That  $T \wedge S$  and  $T \vee S$  are stopping times are trivial. For T + S,  $\{T + S > t\} = \{T = 0, S > t\} \cup \{0 < T \le t, T + S > t\} \cup \{T > t\}$ . It suffices to prove that

$$\{0 < T \le t < T + S > t\} = \bigcup_{\substack{r \in \mathbb{Q}^+ \\ 0 < r < t}} \{r < T \le t, S > t - r\}.$$

If there exists r with  $r < T \le t$ , then S > t = r and S + T > r + (t - r) = t, so  $\supseteq$  holds. Conversely, if  $0 < T \le t$  and  $T + S \ge t$ ; then there exists  $r \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that r < T and r + S > t. Hence  $r < T \le t$  and S > t - r.

**Definition.** The  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by a stopping time T is the collection of all the events A for which  $A \cap \{T \leq t\} \in \mathcal{F}_t$  for every  $t \geq 0$ . This is the "information you collect until the stopping time".

Exercise: show that the collection given in the definition above is actually a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

We write  $X_{T \wedge t}$  is a random variable evaluated at time  $T \wedge t$  (or T); in other words,  $(X_{T \wedge t})(\omega) = X_{T \wedge t}(\omega)$ . Then  $\{T_{T \wedge t}\}_{t \geq 0}$ , or  $X^T$ , is a stochastic process stopped at time t.