

1 Ordinals and transfinite induction

Definition 1 (The ordinals, Ord) *These are defined inductively:*

- $0 := \emptyset \in \text{Ord}$
- If $n \in \text{Ord}$ then

$$\text{succ}(n) := n \cup \{n\} \in \text{Ord}$$

- If $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \text{Ord}$ is a set, then

$$\sup \mathcal{X} := \bigcup \mathcal{X} \in \text{Ord}$$

In other words, an ordinal is the set of all smaller ordinals. In particular, the last definition precludes the ordinals from being a set. Ord is bigger than any set. They form a class.

If $\alpha = \text{succ}(n)$ then α is a successor ordinal. Otherwise, α is a limit ordinal.

Theorem 2 (Ord is well-ordered) *Every nonempty class of ordinals contains a least element.*

Proof. Let \mathcal{X} be a nonempty class of ordinals. Then it suffices to show

$$I := \inf \mathcal{X} = \bigcap \mathcal{X} \in \mathcal{X}$$

Suppose $I \notin \mathcal{X}$. Then for any $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $I < x$. Consequently, for any $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\text{succ}(I) \leq x$. But then $\text{succ}(I) = I$, a contradiction. \square

Theorem 3 (Transfinite induction) *For a logical statement ϕ , if*

1. $\phi(0)$ holds,
2. $\phi(n) \implies \phi(\text{succ}(n))$ (strictly speaking, this follows from (3) but is usually easier to prove first)
3. If, for all $n < \alpha$, $\phi(n)$ is true then $\phi(\alpha)$ is true:

$$(\forall n < \alpha) \phi(n) \implies \phi(\alpha)$$

Then ϕ holds for all ordinals.

Proof. Let \mathcal{X} be the class where ϕ does not hold. Suppose $\mathcal{X} \neq \emptyset$. Then let for all ordinals $n < \inf \mathcal{X}$, $\phi(n)$ by hypothesis. Hence, by (3), $\phi(\inf \mathcal{X})$ holds. But then $\inf \mathcal{X} \notin \mathcal{X}$, contradicting **theorem 2** (Ord is well-ordered). Therefore, \mathcal{X} is empty. \square

Theorem 4 (Ord fixed point theorem) *Let (X, \leq) be a complete ordered space. Suppose $F : X \rightarrow X$ is nondecreasing. Define*

$$F^0(x) := x$$

$$F^{\text{succ}(n)}(x) := F(F^n(x))$$

If α is a limit ordinal,

$$F^\alpha(x) := \sup_{\beta < \alpha} F^\beta(x)$$

Then for any $x \in X$, $F^\alpha(x)$ is eventually the smallest fixed point of F greater than or equal to x .

Proof. Fix x . Then $F^\square(x) : \mathbf{Ord} \rightarrow X$ is nondecreasing by construction. Because \mathbf{Ord} is bigger than any set, $F^\square(x)$ cannot be injective. Hence there is some smallest $\alpha \in \mathbf{Ord}$ such that $F^\alpha(x) = F^\gamma(x)$ with $\gamma > \alpha$. But $\alpha < \text{succ}(\alpha) \leq \beta$, so by monotonicity,

$$F^\alpha(x) \leq F^{\text{succ}(\alpha)}(x) \leq F^\beta(x) = F^\alpha(x)$$

hence

$$F(F^\alpha(x)) = F^{\text{succ}(\alpha)}(x) = F^\alpha(x)$$

so F fixes $F^\alpha(x)$.

Suppose y is a fixed point and $x \leq y \leq F^\alpha(x)$. Then there is some smallest β such that $y \leq F^\beta(x)$:

- If $\beta = \text{succ}(\gamma)$, then

$$F^\gamma(x) \leq y \leq F(F^\gamma(x)) = F^\beta(x)$$

But by monotonicity, $F(F^\gamma(x)) \leq F(y) = y$ by assumption y is fixed. Thus $y = F^\gamma(x)$ for some $\gamma \leq \alpha$.

- If β is a limit ordinal, then for all $\gamma < \beta$,

$$F^\gamma(x) \leq y \leq F^\beta(x) = \sup_{\hat{\gamma} < \beta} F^{\hat{\gamma}}(x) = y$$

so $F^\beta(x) = y$. □

By characterizing σ -algebras and λ -systems as fixed points of set functions, this result becomes a powerful tool for proving results about generated σ -algebras and λ -systems.

2 π - λ systems and theorem

Special notation:

- I'll use \amalg to represent *disjoint* unions,
- $\bigcup\uparrow$ to represent *increasing* unions,

- and \setminus_{\supseteq} to represent *proper* relative complements: $A \setminus B$ when $B \subseteq A$.

Definition 5 (λ -system aka Dynkin system) \mathcal{D} is a Dynkin system on Ω iff

- $\Omega \in \mathcal{D}$
- Closure under proper relative complements:

$$A \subseteq B \implies B \setminus_{\supseteq} A \in \mathcal{D}$$

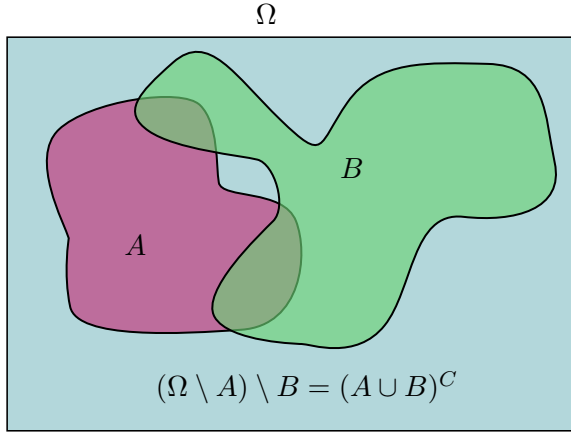
- Closure under increasing σ -unions:

$$A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq \dots \in \mathcal{D} \implies \bigcup_{\uparrow} A_n \in \mathcal{D}$$

Allowing arbitrary complements would give a σ -algebra as

$$(\Omega \setminus A) \setminus B = (A \cup B)^C = A^C \cap B^C$$

allowing arbitrary σ -unions and intersections.



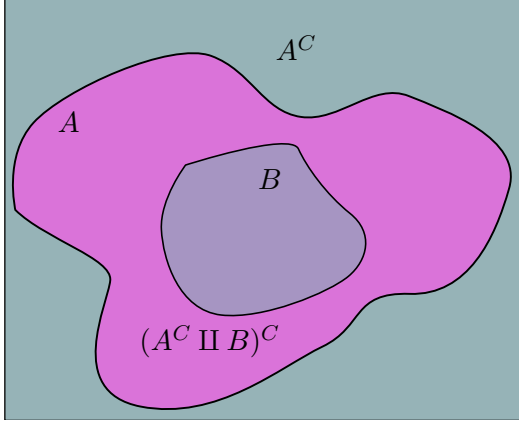
Theorem 6 (Alternative definition of λ -system) *Equivalently,*

- $\Omega \in \mathcal{D}$
- Closure under global complements:

$$A \in \mathcal{D} \implies A^C \in \mathcal{D}$$

- Closure under disjoint σ -unions

Proof. Suppose \mathcal{D} meets the criteria of [theorem 6 \(Alternative definition of \$\lambda\$ -system\)](#). Then \mathcal{D} contains proper relative complements as $A \setminus_{\supseteq} B = (A^C \cup B)^C$:



But by taking proper relative complements, we can convert an ascending σ -union into a disjoint σ -union: if $A_n \uparrow A$, let

$$B_1 = A_1 \in \mathcal{D}$$

$$B_n = A_n \setminus \bigcup_{i < n} A_i \in \mathcal{D}$$

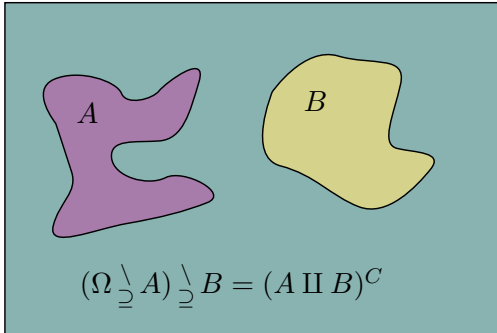
Then $\{B_n\}$ are pairwise-disjoint and

$$A = \bigcup_n A_n = \coprod_n B_n \in \mathcal{D}$$

proving sufficiency.

For necessity, suppose \mathcal{D} satisfies the criteria of [definition 5](#) (λ -system aka Dynkin system). As $A^C = \Omega \setminus A$, a proper complement, it suffices to show closure under disjoint unions. First, note that it is closed under finite disjoint unions:

$$A \amalg B = ((\Omega \setminus A) \setminus B)^C \in \mathcal{D}$$



because the complements are proper by disjointness. Suppose B_i are pairwise disjoint. Then $B = \coprod B_i \in \mathcal{D}$ by hypothesis.

$$A_1 = B_1 \in \mathcal{D}$$

$$A_n = B_n \amalg A_{n-1} \in \mathcal{D}$$

therefore

$$B = \coprod B_n = \bigcup \uparrow A_n \in \mathcal{D} \quad \square$$

Definition 7 (π -system) A π -system is closed under finite intersections.

Theorem 8 If \mathcal{D} is a π -system and λ -system then it is a σ -algebra.

Proof. First, prove \mathcal{D} is an algebra. Note that \mathcal{D} is closed under binary union as $A \cup B = (A^C \cap B^C)^C$ and $A^C, B^C \in \mathcal{D}$ because \mathcal{D} is a λ -system, so $A^C \cap B^C \in \mathcal{D}$ because it is a π -system, and its complement is in \mathcal{D} by closure under complements. In particular, \mathcal{D} must be closed under *arbitrary* relative complements as

$$A \setminus B = A \setminus_{\supseteq} (A \cap B)$$

Suppose A_i is a countable sequence of sets in \mathcal{D} . Then let

$$\begin{aligned} B_1 &= A_1 \\ B_n &= A_n \setminus \coprod_{i < n} B_i \end{aligned}$$

so B_i are pairwise-disjoint and

$$\bigcup A_n = \coprod B_n \in \mathcal{D}$$

proving closure under σ -unions. \square

Theorem 9 (Dynkin's π - λ theorem) If $P \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ where π is a π -system and \mathcal{D} is a λ -system, then

$$\sigma(P) \subseteq \mathcal{D}$$

Proof. As $\lambda(P)$ is the minimal λ -system containing P ,

$$\lambda(P) \subseteq \mathcal{D}$$

It suffices to show $\lambda(P)$ is a π -system because then it must be a σ -algebra.

Let $U(X)$ indicate the set of disjoint σ -unions in X :

$$U(X) := \left\{ \coprod_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i : A_i \in X, A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \right\}$$

Let $C(X)$ indicate the set of complements in X :

$$C(X) := \{A^C : A \in X\}$$

And define

$$\Lambda(X) := X \cup U(X) \cup C(X) = U(X) \cup C(X) : (2^{2^\Omega}, \subseteq) \rightarrow (2^{2^\Omega}, \subseteq)$$

By construction, $\Lambda(X) = X$ iff X is a λ -system. By monotonicity ($X \subseteq \Lambda(X)$), the minimum fixed point of Λ containing X is the λ -system generated by X . By [theorem 4 \(Ord fixed point theorem\)](#),

$$\Lambda^\omega(P) = \lambda(P)$$

for some $\omega \in \mathbf{Ord}$.

We will show by induction that for any $\alpha \in \mathbf{Ord}$, the intersection of any two elements in $\Lambda^\alpha(P)$ is in $\Lambda^{3\alpha}(P)$.

1. This is trivially true for $\alpha = 0$ by the hypothesis that P is a π -system.
2. Any element in $\Lambda^{\text{succ}(\alpha)}(P)$ can be written as A , A^C , or $\coprod A_i$ with $A, A_i \in \Lambda^\alpha$. Consider writing an intersection of elements in $\Lambda^{\text{succ}(\alpha)}$ in terms of proper complements and disjoint unions of intersections of elements in $\Lambda^\alpha(P)$:

$$\begin{aligned} A \cap B^C &= A \setminus \overbrace{(B \cap A)}^{\in \Lambda^{3\alpha}(P)} && \in \Lambda^{3\alpha+1}(P) \\ A^C \cap B^C &= (A \cup B)^C = ((A \cap B^C) \amalg B)^C && \in \Lambda^{3\alpha+3}(P) \\ \left(\coprod_i A_i \right) \cap \left(\coprod_j B_j \right) &= \coprod_{i,j} \overbrace{A_i \cap B_j}^{\in \Lambda^{3\alpha}(P)} && \in \Lambda^{3\alpha+1}(P) \\ A^C \cap \coprod B_j &= \coprod \overbrace{A^C \cap B_j}^{\in \Lambda^{3\alpha+1}(P)} && \in \Lambda^{3\alpha+2}(P) \end{aligned}$$

which are all in $\Lambda^{3\alpha+3}(P) = \Lambda^{3\text{succ}(\alpha)}(P)$.

3. If α is a limit ordinal, then set

$$3\alpha \geq 3 \sup_{\beta < \alpha} \beta = \sup_{\beta < \alpha} 3\beta$$

For any two $A, B \in \Lambda^\alpha$ there must be some $n_A, n_B < \alpha$ such that $A \in \Lambda^{n_A}(P)$ and $B \in \Lambda^{n_B}(P)$. Hence, if $n = \max(n_A, n_B)$, then $A \cap B \in \Lambda^{3n}(P) \subseteq \Lambda^{3\alpha}(P)$.

But this process terminates at ω , hence $\Lambda^{3\omega}(P) = \Lambda^\omega(P) = \lambda(P)$ and $\lambda(P)$ is closed under intersections. \square