## 1 Ordinals and transifite induction

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

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

$$\operatorname{succ}(n) \coloneqq n \cup \{n\} \in \mathsf{Ord}$$

• If  $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathsf{Ord}$  is a set, then

$$\sup \mathcal{X} \coloneqq \bigcup \mathcal{X} \in \mathit{Ord}$$

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  $\alpha = \operatorname{succ}(n)$  then  $\alpha$  is a successor ordinal. Otherwise,  $\alpha$  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  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ ,  $\operatorname{succ}(I) \leq x$ . But then  $\operatorname{succ}(I) = I$ , a contradiction.

Theorem 3 (Transfinite induction) For a logical statement  $\phi$ , if

- 1.  $\phi(0)$  holds,
- 2.  $\phi(n) \implies \phi(\operatorname{succ}(n))$  (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  $\phi$  holds for all ordinals.

Proof. Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be the class where  $\phi$  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.

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

$$F^{0}(x) \coloneqq x$$
  
 $F^{\operatorname{succ}(n)}(x) \coloneqq f(F^{n}(x))$ 

If  $\alpha$  is a limit ordinal,

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

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

$$F^{\alpha}(x) \le F^{\operatorname{succ}(\alpha)}(x) \le F^{\beta}(x) = F^{\alpha}(x)$$

hence

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

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  $\beta$  such that  $y \leq F^{\beta}(x)$ :

• If  $\beta = \operatorname{succ}(\gamma)$ , then

$$F^{\gamma}(x) \le y \le f(F^{\gamma}(x)) = F^{\beta}(x)$$

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

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

so 
$$F^{\beta}(x) = y$$
.

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

## 2 $\pi$ - $\lambda$ systems and theorem

Special notation:

- I'll use II to represent disjoint unions,
- Unto represent increasing unions,

• and  $\supseteq$  to represent *proper* relative complements:  $A \setminus B$  when  $B \subseteq A$ .

Definition 5 ( $\lambda$ -system aka Dynkin system)  $\mathcal{D}$  is a Dynkin system on  $\Omega$  iff

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

$$A \subseteq B \implies B \setminus A \in \mathcal{D}$$

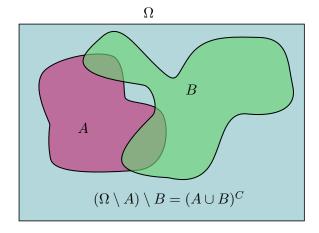
• Closure under increasing  $\sigma$ -unions:

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

Allowing arbitrary complements would give a  $\sigma$ -algebra as

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

allowing arbitrary  $\sigma$ -unions and intersections.



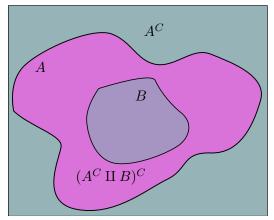
Theorem 6 (Alternative definition of  $\lambda$ -system) Equivalently,

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

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

• Closure under disjoint  $\sigma$ -unions

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



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

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

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

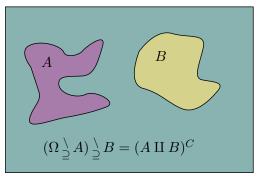
Then  $\{B_n\}$  are pairwise-disjoint and

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

proving sufficiency.

For necessity, suppose  $\mathcal{D}$  satisfies the criteria of definition 5 ( $\lambda$ -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:

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



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

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

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

therefore

$$B = \prod B_n = \bigcup \uparrow A_n \in \mathcal{D}$$

Definition 7 ( $\pi$ -system) A  $\pi$ -system is closed under finite intersections.

Theorem 8 If  $\mathcal{D}$  is a  $\pi$ -system and  $\lambda$ -system then it is a  $\sigma$ -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  $\lambda$ -system, so  $A^C \cap B^C \in \mathcal{D}$  because it is a  $\pi$ -system, and its complement is in  $\mathcal{D}$  by closure under complements. In particular,  $\mathcal{D}$  must be closed under *arbitrary* relative complements as

$$A \setminus B = A \supseteq (A \cap B)$$

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

$$B_1 = A_1$$

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

so  $B_i$  are pairwise-disjoint and

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

proving closure under  $\sigma$ -unions.

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

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

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

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

It suffices to show  $\lambda(P)$  is a  $\pi$ -system because then it must be a  $\sigma$ -algebra. Let U(X) indicate the set of disjoint  $\sigma$ -unions in X:

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

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

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

And define

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

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

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

for some  $\omega \in Ord$ .

We will show by induction that for any  $\alpha \in Ord$ , 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  $\pi$ -system.
- 2. Any element in  $\Lambda^{\operatorname{succ}(\alpha)}(P)$  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  $\Lambda^{\operatorname{succ}(\alpha)}$  in terms of proper complements and disjoint unions of intersections of elements in  $\Lambda^{\alpha}(P)$ :

$$A \cap B^{C} = A \supseteq \overbrace{(B \cap A)}^{\in \Lambda^{3\alpha}(P)} \in \Lambda^{3\alpha+1}(P)$$

$$A^{C} \cap B^{C} = (A \cup B)^{C} = ((A \cap B^{C}) \coprod B)^{C} \in \Lambda^{3\alpha+3}(P)$$

$$(\coprod_{i} A_{i}) \cap (\coprod_{j} B_{j}) = \coprod_{i,j} \overbrace{A_{i} \cap B_{j}}^{\in \Lambda^{3\alpha}(P)} \in \Lambda^{3\alpha+1}(P)$$

$$A^{C} \cap \coprod_{j} B_{j} = \coprod_{i,j} \underbrace{A^{C} \cap B_{j}}_{\in \Lambda^{3\alpha+1}(P)} \in \Lambda^{3\alpha+2}(P)$$
which are all in  $\Lambda^{3\alpha+3}(P) = \Lambda^{3\operatorname{succ}(\alpha)}(P)$ 

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

3. If  $\alpha$  is a limit ordinal, then set

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

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  $\omega$ , hence  $\Lambda^{3\omega}(P) = \Lambda^{\omega}(P) = \lambda(P)$  and  $\lambda(P)$  is closed under intersections.