This measure on  $\mathscr{F}$  is the required extension, because by (3.7) it agrees with P on  $\mathscr{F}_0$ .

## Uniqueness and the $\pi$ - $\lambda$ Theorem

To prove the extension in Theorem 3.1 is unique requires some auxiliary concepts. A class  $\mathscr{D}$  of subsets of  $\Omega$  is a  $\pi$ -system if it is closed under the formation of finite intersections:

$$(\pi)$$
  $A, B \in \mathscr{P}$  implies  $A \cap B \in \mathscr{P}$ .

A class  $\mathcal{L}$  is a  $\lambda$ -system if it contains  $\Omega$  and is closed under the formation of complements and of finite and countable *disjoint* unions:

- $(\lambda_1)$   $\Omega \in \mathscr{S}$ ;
- $(\lambda_2)$   $A \in \mathcal{L}$  implies  $A^c \in \mathcal{L}$ ;
- $(\lambda_3)$   $A_1, A_2, \ldots, \in \mathscr{S}$  and  $A_n \cap A_m = \emptyset$  for  $m \neq n$  imply  $\bigcup_n A_n \in \mathscr{S}$ .

Because of the disjointness condition in  $(\lambda_3)$ , the definition of  $\lambda$ -system is weaker (more inclusive) than that of  $\sigma$ -field. In the presence of  $(\lambda_1)$  and  $(\lambda_2)$ , which imply  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{L}$ , the countably infinite case of  $(\lambda_3)$  implies the finite one.

In the presence of  $(\lambda_1)$  and  $(\lambda_3)$ ,  $(\lambda_2)$  is equivalent to the condition that  $\mathcal{L}$  is closed under the formation of proper differences:

$$(\lambda', A, B \in \mathcal{L} \text{ and } A \subseteq B \text{ imply } B - A \in \mathcal{L}.$$

Suppose, in fact, that  $\mathscr{L}$  satisfies  $(\lambda_2)$  and  $(\lambda_3)$ . If  $A, B \in \mathscr{L}$  and  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $\mathscr{L}$  contains  $B^c$ , the disjoint union  $A \cup B^c$ , and its complement  $(A \cup B^c)^c = B - A$ . Hence  $(\lambda_2)$ . On the other hand, if  $\mathscr{L}$  satisfies  $(\lambda_1)$  and  $(\lambda_2)$ , then  $A \in \mathscr{L}$  implies  $A^c = \Omega - A \in \mathscr{L}$ . Hence  $(\lambda_2)$ .

Although a  $\sigma$ -field is a  $\lambda$ -system, the reverse is not true (in a four-point space take  $\mathscr{L}$  to consist of  $\varnothing$ ,  $\Omega$ , and the six two-point sets). But the connection is close:

**Lemma 6.** A class that is both a  $\pi$ -system and a  $\lambda$ -system is a  $\sigma$ -field.

PROOF. The class contains  $\Omega$  by  $(\lambda_1)$  and is closed under the formation of complements and finite intersections by  $(\lambda_2)$  and  $(\pi)$ . It is therefore a field. It is a  $\sigma$ -field because if it contains sets  $A_n$ , then it also contains the disjoint sets  $B_n = A_n \cap A_1^c \cap \cdots \cap A_{n-1}^c$  and by  $(\lambda_3)$  contains  $\bigcup_n A_n = \bigcup_n B_n$ .

Many uniqueness arguments depend on *Dynkin's*  $\pi$ - $\lambda$  theorem:

**Theorem 3.2.** If  $\mathscr{P}$  is a  $\pi$ -system and  $\mathscr{L}$  is a  $\lambda$ -system, then  $\mathscr{P} \subset \mathscr{L}$  implies  $\sigma(\mathscr{P}) \subset \mathscr{L}$ .

PROOF. Let  $\mathcal{L}_0$  be the  $\lambda$ -system generated by  $\mathscr{P}$ —that is, the intersection of all  $\lambda$ -systems containing  $\mathscr{P}$ . It is a  $\lambda$ -system, it contains  $\mathscr{P}$ , and it is contained in every  $\lambda$ -system that contains  $\mathscr{P}$  (see the construction of generated  $\sigma$ -fields, p. 21). Thus  $\mathscr{P} \subset \mathcal{L}_0 \subset \mathcal{L}$ . If it can be shown that  $\mathcal{L}_0$  is also a  $\pi$ -system, then it will follow by Lemma 6 that it is a  $\sigma$ -field. From the minimality of  $\sigma(\mathscr{P})$  it will then follow that  $\sigma(\mathscr{P}) \subset \mathcal{L}_0$ , so that  $\mathscr{P} \subset \sigma(\mathscr{P}) \subset \mathcal{L}_0 \subset \mathscr{L}$ . Therefore, it suffices to show that  $\mathcal{L}_0$  is a  $\pi$ -system.

For each A, let  $\mathcal{L}_A$  be the class of sets B such that  $A \cap B \in \mathcal{L}_0$ . If A is assumed to lie in  $\mathcal{P}$ , or even if A is merely assumed to lie in  $\mathcal{L}_0$ , then  $\mathcal{L}_A$  is a  $\lambda$ -system: Since  $A \cap \Omega = A \in \mathcal{L}_0$  by the assumption,  $\mathcal{L}_A$  satisfies  $(\lambda_1)$ . If  $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{L}_A$  and  $B_1 \subset B_2$ , then the  $\lambda$ -system  $\mathcal{L}_0$  contains  $A \cap B_1$  and  $A \cap B_2$  and hence contains the proper difference  $(A \cap B_2) - (A \cap B_1) = A \cap (B_2 - B_1)$ , so that  $\mathcal{L}_A$  contains  $B_2 - B_1$ :  $\mathcal{L}_A$  satisfies  $(\lambda'_2)$ . If  $B_n$  are disjoint  $\mathcal{L}_A$ -sets, then  $\mathcal{L}_0$  contains the disjoint sets  $A \cap B_n$  and hence contains their union  $A \cap (\bigcup_n B_n)$ :  $\mathcal{L}_A$  satisfies  $(\lambda_3)$ .

If  $A \in \mathcal{P}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{P}$ , then  $(\mathcal{P} \text{ is a } \pi\text{-system})$   $A \cap B \in \mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{L}_0$ , or  $B \in \mathcal{L}_A$ . Thus  $A \in \mathcal{P}$  implies  $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{L}_A$ , and since  $\mathcal{L}_A$  is a  $\lambda$ -system, minimality gives  $\mathcal{L}_0 \subset \mathcal{L}_A$ .

Thus  $A \in \mathcal{P}$  implies  $\mathcal{L}_0 \subset \mathcal{L}_A$ , or, to put it another way,  $A \in \mathcal{P}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{L}_0$  together imply that  $B \in \mathcal{L}_A$  and hence  $A \in \mathcal{L}_B$ . (The key to the proof is that  $B \in \mathcal{L}_A$  if and only if  $A \in \mathcal{L}_B$ .) This last implication means that  $B \in \mathcal{L}_0$  implies  $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{L}_B$ . Since  $\mathcal{L}_B$  is a  $\lambda$ -system, it follows by minimality once again that  $B \in \mathcal{L}_0$  implies  $\mathcal{L}_0 \subset \mathcal{L}_B$ . Finally,  $B \in \mathcal{L}_0$  and  $C \in \mathcal{L}_0$  together imply  $C \in \mathcal{L}_B$ , or  $B \cap C \in \mathcal{L}_0$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{L}_0$  is indeed a  $\pi$ -system.

Since a field is certainly a  $\pi$ -system, the uniqueness asserted in Theorem 3.1 is a consequence of this result:

**Theorem 3.3.** Suppose that  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are probability measures on  $\sigma(\mathcal{P})$ , where  $\mathcal{P}$  is a  $\pi$ -system. If  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  agree on  $\mathcal{P}$ , then they agree on  $\sigma(\mathcal{P})$ .

PROOF. Let  $\mathscr{L}$  be the class of sets A in  $\sigma(\mathscr{P})$  such that  $P_1(A) = P_2(A)$ . Clearly  $\Omega \in \mathscr{L}$ . If  $A \in \mathscr{L}$ , then  $P_1(A^c) = 1 - P_1(A) = 1 - P_2(A) = P_2(A^c)$ , and hence  $A^c \in \mathscr{L}$ . If  $A_n$  are disjoint sets in  $\mathscr{L}$ , then  $P_1(\bigcup_n A_n) = \sum_n P_1(A_n) = \sum_n P_2(A_n) = P_2(\bigcup_n A_n)$ , and hence  $\bigcup_n A_n \in \mathscr{L}$ . Therefore  $\mathscr{L}$  is a  $\lambda$ -system. Since by hypothesis  $\mathscr{P} \subset \mathscr{L}$  and  $\mathscr{P}$  is a  $\pi$ -system, the  $\pi$ - $\lambda$  theorem gives  $\sigma(\mathscr{P}) \subset \mathscr{L}$ , as required.

Note that the  $\pi$ - $\lambda$  theorem and the concept of  $\lambda$ -system are exactly what are needed to make this proof work: The essential property of probability measures is countable additivity, and this is a condition on countable *disjoint* unions, the only kind involved in the requirement  $(\lambda_3)$  in the definition of  $\lambda$ -system. In this, as in many applications of the  $\pi$ - $\lambda$  theorem,  $\mathcal{L} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{P})$  and therefore  $\sigma(\mathcal{P}) = \mathcal{L}$ , even though the relation  $\sigma(\mathcal{P}) \subset \mathcal{L}$  itself suffices for the conclusion of the theorem.

## **Monotone Classes**

A class  $\mathcal{M}$  of subsets of  $\Omega$  is *monotone* if it is closed under the formation of monotone unions and intersections:

- (i)  $A_1, A_2, \ldots \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $A_n \uparrow A$  imply  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ ;
- (ii)  $A_1, A_2, \ldots \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $A_n \downarrow A$  imply  $A \in \mathcal{M}$ .

Halmos's monotone class theorem is a close relative of the  $\pi$ - $\lambda$  theorem but will be less frequently used in this book.

**Theorem 3.4.** If  $\mathcal{F}_0$  is a field and  $\mathscr{M}$  is a monotone class, then  $\mathcal{F}_0 \subset \mathscr{M}$  implies  $\sigma(\mathcal{F}_0) \subset \mathscr{M}$ .

PROOF. Let  $m(\mathcal{F}_0)$  be the minimal monotone class over  $\mathcal{F}_0$ —the intersection of all monotone classes containing  $\mathcal{F}_0$ . It is enough to prove  $\sigma(\mathcal{F}_0) \subset m(\mathcal{F}_0)$ ; this will follow if  $m(\mathcal{F}_0)$  is shown to be a field, because a monotone field is a  $\sigma$ -field.

Consider the class  $\mathscr{G} = [A: A^c \in m(\mathscr{F}_0)]$ . Since  $m(\mathscr{F}_0)$  is monotone, so is  $\mathscr{G}$ . Since  $\mathscr{F}_0$  is a field,  $\mathscr{F}_0 \subset \mathscr{G}$ , and so  $m(\mathscr{F}_0) \subset \mathscr{G}$ . Hence  $m(\mathscr{F}_0)$  is closed under complementation.

Define  $\mathscr{G}_1$  as the class of A such that  $A \cup B \in m(\mathscr{F}_0)$  for all  $B \in \mathscr{F}_0$ . Then  $\mathscr{G}_1$  is a monotone class and  $\mathscr{F}_0 \subset \mathscr{G}_1$ ; from the minimality of  $m(\mathscr{F}_0)$  follows  $m(\mathscr{F}_0) \subset \mathscr{G}_1$ . Define  $\mathscr{G}_2$  as the class of B such that  $A \cup B \in m(\mathscr{F}_0)$  for all  $A \in m(\mathscr{F}_0)$ . Then  $\mathscr{G}_2$  is a monotone class. Now from  $m(\mathscr{F}_0) \subset \mathscr{G}_1$  it follows that  $A \in m(\mathscr{F}_0)$  and  $B \in \mathscr{F}_0$  together imply that  $A \cup B \in m(\mathscr{F}_0)$ ; in other words,  $B \in \mathscr{F}_0$  implies that  $B \in \mathscr{G}_2$ . Thus  $\mathscr{F}_0 \subset \mathscr{G}_2$ ; by minimality,  $m(\mathscr{F}_0) \subset \mathscr{G}_2$ , and hence  $A, B \in m(\mathscr{F}_0)$  implies that  $A \cup B \in m(\mathscr{F}_0)$ .

## Lebesgue Measure on the Unit Interval

Consider once again the unit interval (0, 1] together with the field  $\mathcal{B}_0$  of finite disjoint unions of subintervals (Example 2.2) and the  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathcal{B} = \sigma(\mathcal{B}_0)$  of Borel sets in (0, 1]. According to Theorem 2.2, (2.12) defines a probability measure  $\lambda$  on  $\mathcal{B}_0$ . By Theorem 3.1,  $\lambda$  extends to  $\mathcal{B}$ , the extended  $\lambda$  being Lebesgue measure. The probability space  $((0, 1], \mathcal{B}, \lambda)$  will be the basis for much of the probability theory in the remaining sections of this chapter. A few geometric properties of  $\lambda$  will be considered here. Since the intervals in (0, 1] form a  $\pi$ -system generating  $\mathcal{B}$ ,  $\lambda$  is the only probability measure on  $\mathcal{B}$  that assigns to each interval its length as its measure.