CONVERSION FROM NONSTANDARD TO STANDARD MEASURE SPACES AND APPLICATIONS IN PROBABILITY THEORY

BY

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ABSTRACT. Let (X, \mathfrak{C}, ν) be an internal measure space in a denumerably comprehensive enlargement. The set X is a standard measure space when equipped with the smallest standard σ -algebra \mathbb{X} containing the algebra \mathfrak{C} , where the extended real-valued measure μ on \mathbb{X} is generated by the standard part of ν . If f is \mathfrak{C} -measurable, then its standard part f is \mathbb{X} -measurable on f. If f and f are finite, then the f-integral of f is infinitely close to the f-integral of f. Applications include coin tossing and Poisson processes. In particular, there is an elementary proof of the strong Markov property for the stopping time of the f-th event and a construction of standard sample functions for Poisson processes.

1. Introduction. Let (X, \mathcal{C}, ν) be an internal measure space in a denumerably comprehensive enlargement (e.g., a suitable ultrapower) of a structure containing the real numbers R. (See Robinson [7].) The set X may for example be a *finite set, i.e., a set $\{x_i\colon 1\le i\le \omega\}$ indexed by an initial segment of the nonstandard natural numbers *N , and ν may be given by a similarly indexed set of nonnegative numbers $\{a_i\colon 1\le i\le \omega\}$ in the extension *R of R with $\nu(A)=\sum_{x_i\in A}a_i$ for each internal set $A\subset X$. In [4] we showed that a standard probability space can be transformed into such a *finite set and family of weights. We now show that if (X, \mathcal{C}, ν) is an arbitrary nonstandard measure space (and even if \mathcal{C} is only an internal algebra and ν a *finitely additive measure on \mathcal{C}), the set X itself, considered now as a standard set, is a standard measure space when equipped with the smallest standard σ -algebra \mathcal{C} generated by \mathcal{C} in X with the measure μ on \mathcal{C} generated by the standard part \mathcal{C} of the measure ν on \mathcal{C} . If $f\colon X\to \mathcal{C}$ is an internal

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G-measurable function, then its standard part f is a standard f-measurable, extended real-valued function on f is a standard f-measurable, then for any f is a standard f-measurable, extended the formula f is a standard f-measurable, extended f is a standard f-measurable, extended f-measurable, extended f is a standard f-measurable, extended f-measura

Recall that $a \simeq b$ in *R means that a-b is in the monad of 0. Here, as in general, we use Robinson's notation [7] with the following exceptions: the symbol μ is used to denote a measure and m(0) to denote the monad of zero; if $a \in {}^*R$, then 0a denotes the unique real number r with $a \simeq r$ if a is finite (i.e., $|a| \le n$ for some $n \in N$), while ${}^0a = +\infty$ if $a \ge n$ for all $n \in N$ and ${}^0a = -\infty$ if $a \le -n$ for all $n \in N$. Here N and *N are the standard and nonstandard natural numbers; we assume that $0 \in N$ and set $1/0 = +\infty$.

2. Construction of measure spaces. We begin with an internal set X in a denumerably comprehensive enlargement. This means that if S is a standard set and A_n is internal with $A_n \in {}^*S$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then the external sequence $\{A_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is the restriction to \mathbb{N} of an internal function from ${}^*\mathbb{N}$ into *S . Enlargements which are ultrapowers or \mathbb{N}_1 saturated models have this property. (See [6, pp. 27-35].) Of course by the set X we mean the collection of internal objects $x \in {}^*S$, for some standard set S, which satisfy the relation $x \in X$. Thus an external sequence $\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ in X is the restriction to \mathbb{N} of an internal "sequence" $\{x_n : n \in {}^*\mathbb{N}\}$ in *S .

Let \mathfrak{A} be an internal collection of internal subsets of X. We need only assume that \mathfrak{A} is an algebra; that is, if A and B are in \mathfrak{A} , then $A \cup B \in \mathfrak{A}$ and $X - A \in \mathfrak{A}$. Since the union of any two sets in \mathfrak{A} is in \mathfrak{A} , it follows by internal induction over N that finite unions of sets in \mathfrak{A} are again in \mathfrak{A} . We now show, however, that countable infinite unions of disjoint nonempty sets in \mathfrak{A} are not in \mathfrak{A} .

Proposition 1. Given $A_n \in \mathbb{C}$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $A_0 \subseteq \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$, then there is an $m \in \mathbb{N}$ with $A_0 \subseteq \bigcup_{n=1}^{m} A_n$.

Proof. Applying the preceding remarks to \mathfrak{A} instead of X, we let $\{A_n: n \in {}^*N\}$ be an internal sequence extending the given sequence $\{A_n: n \in N\}$. Then the set $\{m \in {}^*N: A_0 \subset \bigcup_{n=1}^m A_n\}$ is internal, nonempty, and has a first element which must be finite.

Let ν be an internal mapping of \mathfrak{A} into the nonnegative elements of R, and assume that ν is finitely additive. That is, $\nu(\emptyset) = 0$ and if A and B are

sets in $\mathfrak A$ with $A\cap B=\emptyset$, then $\nu(A\cup B)=\nu(A)+\nu(B)$. For each $A\in\mathfrak A$, set $\mu(A)={}^0(\nu(A));$ μ also is finitely additive and its range is in $R\cup\{+\infty\}$. Let $\mathbb M$ denote the smallest collection of subsets of X, both internal and external, such that $\mathbb M$ is a σ -algebra in the standard sense and $\mathbb M\supset \mathfrak A$. We apply Carathéodory's Extension Theorem [8, pp. 253-260] to show that $(X, \mathbb M, \mu)$ is a standard measure space.

Theorem 1. The extended real-valued function μ has a standard, σ -additive extension to the smallest (external) σ -algebra $\mathbb M$ in X containing $\mathfrak A$. For each $B \in \mathbb M$, the value of this extension is given by $\mu(B) = \inf_{A \in \mathfrak A, B \subseteq A} \mu(A)$. The extension is unique if $\mu(X) < +\infty$, in which case for each $B \in \mathbb M$, $\mu(B) = \sup_{A \in \mathfrak A, B \supseteq A} \mu(A)$ and there is an $A \in \mathfrak A$ with $\mu((B-A) \cup (A-B)) = 0$.

Proof. By Proposition 1, a countable, infinite union of disjoint nonempty sets in \mathfrak{A} cannot be an element of \mathfrak{A} . We may, therefore, form an outer measure from μ and thus extend μ to \mathfrak{M} . Given $B \in \mathfrak{M}$ with $\mu(B) < +\infty$ and given $\epsilon > 0$ in R, there is a sequence $\{A_n \in \mathfrak{A}: n \in N\}$ with $A_n \subset A_{n+1}$ for each $n \in N$ such that $B \subset C = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n$ and $\mu(C) < \mu(B) + \epsilon$. Extend the given sequence to an internal sequence $\{A_n: n \in {}^*N\}$, and choose $\omega \in {}^*N - N$ so that if $1 \le n \le \omega$, then $A_{n-1} \subset A_n$ and $A_n \in \mathfrak{A}$. We may also assume that $\nu(A_\omega) < \mu(B) + \epsilon$. Since $B \subset C \subset A_\omega$, it follows that $\mu(B) = \inf_{A \in \mathfrak{A}} \mu(A)$.

If $\widetilde{\mu}$ is an arbitrary extension of μ to $\widetilde{\mathbb{M}}$, and $B \in \widetilde{\mathbb{M}}$ with $\mu(B) < +\infty$, then given $A \in \widehat{\mathbb{M}}$ and $\epsilon > 0$ in R with $B \subset A$ and $\mu(A) < \mu(B) + \epsilon$, we see that $\widetilde{\mu}(B) \leq \widetilde{\mu}(A) = \mu(A) < \mu(B) + \epsilon$. It follows that $\widetilde{\mu}(B) \leq \mu(B)$ and also $\widetilde{\mu}(A-B) \leq \mu(A-B)$, whence $\mu(A) = \widetilde{\mu}(A) = \widetilde{\mu}(A-B) + \widetilde{\mu}(B) \leq \mu(A-B) + \mu(B) = \mu(A)$. Thus we have the well-known fact that $\widetilde{\mu}(B) = \mu(B)$ for each $B \in \widetilde{\mathbb{M}}$ with $\mu(B) < +\infty$. The rest of the proof is clear.

Examples of spaces (X, \mathcal{C}, ν) can be obtained by taking the nonstandard extension in a denumerably comprehensive enlargement of a standard set S equipped with an algebra \mathcal{C} of subsets and a finitely additive measure λ on \mathcal{C} .(3) In the following examples, \mathcal{C} is the collection of Lebesgue measurable

^{(2) (}Added April 1975.) Ward Henson has proved the uniqueness of the extension when $\mu(X) = +\infty$. The proof uses the fact that each $B \in \mathbb{R}$ is in the σ -algebra generated by some countable algebra $\mathfrak{A}' \subset \mathfrak{A}$ to show that either there is an $A \in \mathfrak{A}$ with $A \subset B$ and $\mu(A) = +\infty$ or there is a sequence $\{A_n \in \mathfrak{A} : n \in N\}$ with $\mu(A_n) < +\infty$ for each n and $B \subset \bigcup_{n \in N} A_n$.

^{(3) (}Added August 1974.) In an unpublished manuscript written in 1966, J. J. Uhl, Jr. noted that λ has a σ -additive extension to the external σ -algebra in *S generated by the external algebra consisting of extensions of standard sets in \mathfrak{L} . Though stated for a countable ultraproduct of S, the result is valid for any enlargement. For comparison with the Stone space of $L^{\infty}(\lambda)$, see [4, p. 77].

sets in R and λ is Lebesgue measure on R.

Example 1. Let $X = {}^*R$, $C = {}^*\mathcal{Q}$, and $\nu = {}^*\lambda$. Then $C = \bigcup_{n=1;n \in \mathbb{N}}^{\infty} {}^*[-n, n]$ is in M and $\mu(C) = +\infty$. Note that

$$\bigcup_{n=1; n\in N}^{\infty} *[-n, n] \neq *\left(\bigcup_{n=1; n\in N}^{\infty} [-n, n]\right) = *R.$$

The monad of zero, m(0), is the \mathfrak{M} -measurable set $\bigcap_{n=1;n\in\mathbb{N}}^{\infty} {}^*[-1/n, 1/n]$ and $\mu(m(0)) = 0$. Since R is contained in a *finite set in *R, R has zero outer measure.

Example 2. Given $\omega \in {}^*N - N$, let $X = [0, \omega] \subset {}^*R$, $\mathcal{C} = \{A \in {}^*\mathfrak{L}: A \subset [0, \omega]\}$, and $\nu = {}^*\lambda/\omega$. Then $\mu(X) = 1$ and $\mu(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} {}^*[0, n]) = 0$.

Example 3. Given $\omega \in {}^*N - N$, let $X = \{n \in {}^*N \colon 0 \le n < \omega\}$ with addition \bigoplus defined by setting $n \bigoplus m = n + m$ when $n + m < \omega$ and $n \bigoplus m = n + m - \omega$ when $n + m \ge \omega$. Let $\mathbb C$ be the class of all internal subsets of X. For each $A \in \mathbb C$, set $\nu(A) = |A|/\omega$, where |A| denotes the internal cardinality of A. Call elements n and m of X equivalent if there is a standard $k \in N$ with either $n \bigoplus k = m$ or $m \bigoplus k = n$. A set B which contains exactly one element from each equivalence class is not measurable since X equals the disjoint union $\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} ((B \bigoplus n) \cup (B \bigoplus (\omega - n)))$.

We next show that G-measurable functions become M-measurable when we take their standard part on X. The standard part 0 of a function $f: X \to {}^*R$ takes the value 0(f(x)) at each $x \in X$. We say that f is G-measurable if f is internal and for each $a \in {}^*R$, $\{x \in X: f(x) < a\} \in G$ and $\{x \in X: f(x) \le a\} \in G$. Of course, we only need one of these conditions if G is an internal G-algebra in the nonstandard sense, i.e., "G" refers to *N .

Theorem 2. If $f: X \to {}^*R$ is A-measurable, then ${}^0f: X \to R \cup \{+\infty, -\infty\}$ is M-measurable.

Proof. Given any standard $a \in R$,

$${x \in X: \ ^{0}f(x) < a} = \bigcup_{n=1:n \in \mathbb{N}}^{\infty} {x \in X: \ f(x) < a-1/n} \in \mathbb{M}.$$

One can easily extend Theorem 2 to the case of an internal mapping F from X into the extension Z of a compact metric space Z with metric Z. Here we assume that for each point Z in some countable dense subset of Z and for each standard rational number Z, we have Z and Z of Z of Z and Z of Z and for each standard rational number Z, we have Z of Z of Z of Z of Z of Z and for each standard rational number Z of Z

In converting nonstandard integrals into standard integrals, we need to consider the fact that the product of any infinite positive number α with $1/\alpha$

is 1 while ${}^0\alpha \cdot {}^0(1/\alpha) = +\infty \cdot 0$. For this reason we assume that $\mu(X) < +\infty$ and we only consider G-measurable functions f taking values in the finite nonstandard real numbers. Recall, however, that for such an f, the set $\{n \in {}^*N: \forall x \in X, |f(x)| \le n\}$ has a first element which must be finite. (See for example 3.3.3 of [7].) In what follows, we use notation such as $f^{-1}[a, b)$ and ${}^0f^{-1}[a, b)$ for the sets $\{x \in X: a \le f(x) < b\}$ and $\{x \in X: a \le f(x) < b\}$.

Theorem 3. Assume that $\mu(X) < +\infty$, and let $f: X \to *[-n, n], n \in \mathbb{N}$, be $\widehat{\mathbb{G}}$ -measurable. Then, for each $A \in \widehat{\mathbb{G}}$, $\int_A f d\nu \simeq \int_A {}^0 f d\mu$.

Proof. We assume that A=X; the general case follows from the fact that ${}^0(f\cdot\chi_A)={}^0f\cdot\chi_A$ where $\chi_A(x)=1$ if $x\in A$ and $\chi_A(x)=0$ if $x\notin A$. We may also assume that for some $\delta>0$ in R, $f(x)\geq\delta$ for all $x\in X$; this follows from the fact that if, for $k=2\delta+\sup_{x\in X}|{}^0f(x)|$, we have $\int (f+k)d\nu\simeq\int (f+k)d\nu$, then since $\int kd\nu\simeq\int kd\mu$, we have $\int fd\nu\simeq\int fd\mu$. Let $D=\{r\in R: \mu(f^{-1}[r])>0\}$; D is finite or countably infinite in R. Let $M=\mu(X)+1$ and fix $\epsilon>0$ in R. There is an increasing finite sequence $0=y_0< y_1< y_2<\cdots< y_m$ in R, with $y_m>\sup_{x\in X} f(x)$, such that $y_i\notin D$ and $y_i-y_{i-1}<\epsilon/3M$ for $1\leq i\leq m$. Let

$$\underline{S}_{\nu} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_{i-1} \nu (f^{-1}[y_{i-1}, y_i)), \qquad \overline{S}_{\nu} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i \nu (f^{-1}[y_{i-1}, y_i)),$$

$$\underline{S}_{\mu} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_{i-1} \mu (^{0}f^{-1}[y_{i-1}, y_i)), \qquad \overline{S}_{\mu} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i \mu (^{0}f^{-1}[y_{i-1}, y_i)).$$

Then

$$\underline{S}_{\nu} \leq \int_{X} f d\nu \leq \overline{S}_{\nu}, \qquad \underline{S}_{\mu} \leq \int_{X} {}^{0} f d\mu \leq \overline{S}_{\mu},$$

$$\overline{S}_{\nu} - \underline{S}_{\nu} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{3M} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \nu (f^{-1}[y_{i-1}, y_{i})) < \frac{\epsilon}{3},$$

and similarly, $\overline{S}_{\mu} - \underline{S}_{\mu} < \epsilon/3$. For any $i, 1 \le i \le m$, $0 \ne -1 (y_{i-1}, y_i) \subseteq f^{-1}(y_{i-1}, y_i) \subseteq f^{-1}(y_{i-1}, y_i) \subseteq f^{-1}(y_{i-1}, y_i)$. Therefore,

$$\begin{split} \mu(^{0}f^{-1}[y_{i-1},\ y_{i}]) &= \mu(^{0}f^{-1}[y_{i-1},\ y)) = \mu(^{0}f^{-1}(y_{i-1},\ y_{i})) \\ &\leq \mu(f^{-1}(y_{i-1},\ y_{i})) \simeq \nu(f^{-1}(y_{i-1},\ y_{i})) \leq \nu(f^{-1}[y_{i-1},\ y_{i})) \\ &\leq \nu(f^{-1}[y_{i-1},\ y_{i}]) \simeq \mu(f^{-1}[y_{i-1},\ y_{i}]) \leq \mu(^{0}f^{-1}[y_{i-1},\ y_{i}]). \end{split}$$

It follows that $\underline{S}_{\nu} \simeq \underline{S}_{\mu}$, and thus $\left| \int_{X} \left| d\nu - \int_{X} {}^{0} \left| d\mu \right| \right| < \epsilon$. Since $\epsilon > 0$ is arbitrary, we are done.

Corollary 1. Let $Y = \{y_i : 1 \le i \le \omega\}$ and $\{\beta_i \in {}^*R : 1 \le i \le \omega\}$ be *finite sets of the same internal cardinality in a denumerably comprehensive enlargement with $\beta_i \ge 0$ for each i and ${}^0(\Sigma_{i=1}^\omega \beta_i) < +\infty$. Let $f: Y \to {}^*[-n, n]$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be internal, and let $\nu(A) = \Sigma_{y_i \in A} \beta_i$ for each internal set $A \subset Y$. Then there is a unique extension μ of ${}^0\nu$ to the smallest (external) σ -algebra containing all internal subsets of Y, and

$$\int_{X} {}^{0} f(y) d\mu(y) \simeq \sum_{i=1}^{\omega} f(y_{i}) \beta_{i}.$$

The author is indebted to Professor L. C. Moore, Jr. for calling to his attention the following corollary to Theorems 1 and 3.

Proposition 2. Assume $\mu(X) < +\infty$. If $g: X \to R \cup \{+\infty, -\infty\}$ is M-measurable, then there is an $f: X \to {}^*R$ which is A-measurable such that 0f = g μ -almost everywhere.

Proof. We assume that g is bounded. The general case follows by obtaining *finite sequences $\{A_n \in \mathbb{C}: 1 \le n \le \omega\}$ and $\{f_n: 1 \le n \le \omega\}$ such that: (i) $A_n \cap A_m = \emptyset$ if $n \ne m$, (ii) each f_n is \mathbb{C} -measurable with support A_n and $A_n \cap A_m = \emptyset$ for μ -almost all μ when μ when μ and μ and μ if for μ we let μ if μ if

Assuming $0 \le g \le M$ on X, let $\{g_n : n \in N\}$ be an increasing sequence of \mathbb{M} -measurable simple functions such that $0 \le g - g_n \le 1/n$ for each $n \in N$. By Theorem 1, there is for each $n \in N$ an \mathbb{G} -measurable function f_n taking the same values as g_n with $0 = g_n \mu$ -a.e. If n < m in N,

$$\int_{X} |f_{n} - f_{m}| d\nu = \int_{X} |f_{n} - f_{m}| d\mu = \int_{X} |g_{n} - g_{m}| d\mu \le \frac{1}{n} \mu(X).$$

There exists, therefore, an $\widehat{\mathbf{d}}$ -measurable function $f_{\omega}: X \to {}^*[0, M]$ such that for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\int_X |f_n - f_{\omega}| d\nu < (\mu(X) + 1)/n$. Thus

$$\int_{X} |g^{-0} f_{\omega}| d\mu \leq \int_{X} |g^{-0} f_{n}| d\mu + \int_{X} |f^{-0} f_{\omega}| d\mu \leq \frac{2}{n} (\dot{\mu}(X) + 1)$$

for each $n \in N$; i.e., $g = {}^{0}f_{\omega} \mu$ -a.e.

3. Applications to probability theory.

Example 4 (Coin tossing). Fix $\omega \in {}^*N - N$ and let X be the set of all

internal sequences of zeros and ones of length ω ; the internal cardinality of X, |X|, is 2^{ω} . Let \mathcal{C} be the class of internal subsets of X, and for each $A \in \mathcal{C}$ let $\nu(A) = 2^{-\omega}|A|$. Then (X, \mathcal{C}, ν) is the internal probability space for the experiment of tossing a fair coin ω times. Any event depending on only a standard finite number of coin tosses corresponds to a set $A \in \mathcal{C}$, and $\nu(A)$ is the usual probability for such an event. Since \mathcal{M} is the smallest σ -algebra in X containing \mathcal{C} , \mathcal{M} contains the σ -algebra corresponding to all the "standard events" of coin tossing. In general, standard events correspond to those sets $B \in \mathcal{M}$ such that if the sequence $\{x_i\} \in B, \{y_i\} \in X$ and for all i less than some infinite $\gamma \in {}^*N - N$ we have $x_i = y_i$, then $\{y_i\} \in B$.

Consider, for example, A_n as the event "the first n-1 tosses are tails, the *n*th toss is a head." If ω is even, the set $A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\omega/2} A_{2n}$ in $\mathfrak A$ corresponds to getting a head, the first one occurring at an even numbered toss in ω -tosses. Moreover,

$$\nu(A) = \sum_{n=1}^{\omega/2} \frac{1}{2^{2n}} = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 3^{\omega}},$$

and $\mu(A) = 1/3$. On the other hand, the set $B = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_{2n}$ in \mathbb{M} corresponds to the standard event of getting at least one head, the first one occurring at an even numbered toss in an infinite number of tosses. Of course, $\mu(B) = 1/3$. It is by working with sets such as B, sets which correspond to standard events, that one can use (X, \mathbb{M}, μ) as a "standard" model for coin tossing.

Example 5 (Poisson processes). Fix $\omega \in {}^*N - N$ and $\lambda > 0$ in R, and let γ be the greatest element of *N with $\gamma \le \lambda \omega$. Divide the interval $[0, \omega)$ into ω^2 intervals $[0, 1/\omega)$, $[1/\omega, 2/\omega)$, ..., $[(\omega^2 - 1)/\omega, \omega)$, and let X denote all $\omega^{2\gamma}$ ways that γ "balls" can be put into the ω^2 "boxes" $[k/\omega, (k+1)/\omega)$. That is, X is the set of all internal sequences $\{x_i\}$ with $1 \le i \le \gamma$ and $1 \le x_i \le \omega^2$ for each i. Let G consist of all internal subsets of X and for each $A \in G$, let $\nu(A) = |A|/\omega^{2\gamma}$. The probability space (X, M, μ) can be used as a model for standard Poisson processes such as radioactive decay, incoming telephone calls, etc. If, for example, $k \in N$ and T is a finite interval of length t, the following version of the well-known calculation using the binomial distribution (see [3, p. 69]) gives the probability $\nu(A)$ of the internal event "There are exactly k balls in T": We assume for simplicity that $\omega = \eta!$ for some $\eta \in {}^*N - N$ and that λ and the endpoints of T are standard rational numbers. Then $\gamma = \omega \lambda$ and there are exactly $t\omega$ of the ω^2 intervals inside T. The probability of putting any one of the γ balls in T is $t\omega/\omega^2 = 1$

 $t/\omega = \lambda t/y$. Therefore

$$\nu(A) = \frac{\gamma!}{(\gamma - k)! \, k!} \cdot \left(\frac{\lambda t}{\gamma}\right)^k \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\lambda t}{\gamma}\right)^{\gamma - k}$$

$$= \frac{(\lambda t)^k}{k!} \cdot \frac{\gamma!}{\gamma^k (\gamma - k)!} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\lambda t}{\gamma}\right)^{\gamma} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\lambda t}{\gamma}\right)^{-k}$$

$$\simeq \frac{(\lambda t)^k}{k!} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda t}{\gamma}\right)^{\gamma} \simeq \frac{(\lambda t)^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda t} = \mu(A).$$

Thus, $\mu(A)$ is the value at k of the Poisson distribution with parameter λt .

Now for each $x \in X$, order the balls by the order in which they fall in the line *R , so that for $1 \le i < \gamma$ we have the ith ball $b_i \le b_{i+1}$, with equality holding if and only if b_i and b_{i+1} are in the same interval $\lfloor k/\omega, (k+1)/\omega \rfloor$. Again fix t > 0, a standard rational number, and fix j > 0 and $k \ge 0$ in N. Given an interval endpoint $t_0 = 0$, $1/\omega$, $2/\omega$, ..., $(\omega^2 - 1)/\omega$, let C_{t_0} be the event "b_j $\in [t_0, t_0 + 1/\omega)$ ", and let D_{t_0} be the event "For $j + 1 \le i \le j + k$, $b_i \in [t_0, t_0 + t)$ and $b_{j+k+1} \notin [t_0, t_0 + t)$." Let $\gamma' = \gamma - j$. Given C_{t_0} , the conditional probability of getting a given ball of the remaining γ' balls in $[t_0, t_0 + t)$ is

$$\frac{t\omega}{\omega^2 - t_0 \omega} = \frac{t}{\omega - t_0} = \frac{\lambda t}{\gamma - t_0 \lambda} = \frac{\lambda t}{\gamma' + j - t_0 \lambda}.$$

Thus for all finite t_0 , and therefore for all $t_0 \le \tau$ for some infinite τ , we have the conditional probability

$$\nu(D_{t_0}|C_{t_0}) = \frac{\gamma'!}{(\gamma'-k)!k!} \cdot \left(\frac{\lambda t}{\gamma'+j-t_0'\lambda}\right)^k \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\lambda t}{\gamma'+j-t_0\lambda}\right)^{\gamma'-k} \simeq \frac{(\lambda t)^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda t}.$$

On the other hand, $\Sigma_{t_0 < \tau} \nu(C_{t_0}) \simeq 1$, and so $\Sigma_{t_0 < \tau} \nu(D_{t_0}|C_{t_0}) \cdot \nu(C_{t_0}) \simeq (\lambda t)^k e^{-\lambda t}/k!$. That is, the μ -probability of having exactly k more balls in the interval of length t after the jth ball is $(\lambda t)^k e^{-\lambda t}/k!$. This gives an elementary proof that for these "stopping times", i.e., the time of the jth event, Poisson processes have the strong Markov property. Since

$$\sum_{k=0, k \in \mathbb{N}}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda_t)^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda t} = e^{\lambda t} \cdot e^{-\lambda t} = 1,$$

the μ -probability of having only a finite number of balls in any finite interval [0, t) is 1. Moreover, since $\lim_{t\to 0} e^{-\lambda t} = 1$, the μ -probability of having ball b_{j+1} infinitely close to b_j is 0, and this being true for each $j \ge 1$ in N, it follows that the μ -probability of having two balls in the same monad is 0.

Let R^+ be the nonnegative real numbers and $\mathcal B$ the Borel sets in R^+ . For each $t \in {}^*R^+$ and $x \in X$, let f(t, x) be the number of balls in [0, t], where we assume now that any ball in the box $[k/\omega, (k+1)/\omega)$ is at k/ω . Although f(t, x) is ${}^*\mathcal B \times \mathcal C$ -measurable on ${}^*R^+ \times X$, we would like to restrict the values of f(t, x) to standard values. That we can do so is a consequence of the following general result.

Theorem 4. Assume that \mathfrak{A} is an internal σ -algebra (in the nonstandard sense) in X. Let $f: {}^*R^+ \times X \to {}^*R$ be an internal ${}^*B \times \mathfrak{A}$ -measurable function such that f(t, x) is an increasing function of t for each $x \in X$. Let $g: R^+ \times X \to R \cup \{+\infty\} \cup \{-\infty\}$ be defined by setting $g(s, x) = \sup_{t = s} {}^0 f(t, x)$ for each $x \in X$. Then g(s, x) is an increasing and right continuous function of s for each $x \in X$, and g is $g(s, x) = \sup_{t = s} {}^0 f(t, x)$.

Proof. Clearly, g(s, x) is an increasing function of s for each $x \in X$. Fix $x \in X$ and $s \in R^+$, and let a = g(s, x). Assume that $g(\cdot, x)$ is not right continuous at s. Then $\exists \epsilon > 0$ in R so that for each $n \in N$ there is a $t \in {}^*R$ with s < t < s + 1/n such that $f(t, x) - a \ge \epsilon$. It follows that there are an $\omega \in {}^*N - N$ and a t with $s < t < s + 1/\omega$ such that $f(t, x) - a \ge \epsilon$. But this is impossible since $f(t, x) \le a$. Thus $g(\cdot, x)$ is right continuous at s.

To show that g is $\mathcal{B} \times \mathbb{M}$ -measurable, we let h_a be the function defined on X for a given $a \in R$ by setting $h_a(x) = \inf\{t \in {}^*R^+: f(t, x) \geq a\}$. Then h_a is \mathcal{C} -measurable since $\{x: h_a(x) \geq 0\} = X$ and for any $\beta > 0$ in *R ,

$$\{x: \ h_a(x) \ge \beta\} = \bigcap_{\substack{q \text{ rational in } *P; q < \beta}} \{x: f(q, x) < a\}.$$

It follows from Theorem 2 that 0h_a is \mathbb{M} -measurable on X, and thus $\{(s,x)\in R^+\times X\colon s<{}^0h_a(x)\}$ is $\mathbb{B}\times\mathbb{M}$ -measurable. We therefore have for any $a\in R$, the $\mathbb{B}\times\mathbb{M}$ -measurable set

$$\bigcup_{n=1; n \in \mathbb{N}}^{\infty} \{ (s, x) \in \mathbb{R}^{+} \times X: \ s < {}^{0}h_{a-1/n}(x) \}
= \bigcup_{n=1; n \in \mathbb{N}}^{\infty} \{ (s, x) \in \mathbb{R}^{+} \times X: \ \forall t \simeq s, \ f(t, x) < a - 1/n \}
= \{ (s, x) \in \mathbb{R}^{+} \times X: \ g(s, x) < a \}.$$

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