

COMPLEXITY OF DEEP COMPUTATIONS VIA TOPOLOGY OF FUNCTION SPACES

EDUARDO DUEÑEZ¹ JOSÉ IOVINO¹ TONATIUH MATOS-WIEDERHOLD²
LUCIANO SALVETTI² FRANKLIN D. TALL²

¹Department of Mathematics, University of Texas at San Antonio
²Department of Mathematics, University of Toronto

ABSTRACT. This paper revisits and extends a bridge between functional analysis and model theory, emphasizing its relevance to the theoretical foundations of machine learning. We show that the compactness behavior of families of Baire class 1 functions mirrors the learnability conditions in the sense of *Probably Approximately Correct* (PAC) learning, and that the failure of compactness corresponds to the presence of infinite *Vapnik-Chervonenkis* (VC) dimension. From this perspective, Rosenthal compacta emerge as the natural topological counterpart of PAC-learnable concept classes, while NIP vs. IP structures capture the precise boundary between analytical regularity and combinatorial intractability. These parallels suggest a unified framework linking compactness, definability, and learnability, exemplifying how the topology of function spaces encodes the algorithmic and epistemic limits of prediction.

1. INTRODUCTION

In this paper we study limit behavior of real-valued computations as the value of certain parameters of the computation model tend towards infinity, or towards zero, or towards some other fixed value, e.g., the depth of a neural network tending to infinity, or the time interval between layers of the network tending toward zero. Recently, particular cases of this situation have attracted considerable attention in deep learning research (e.g., Neural Ordinary Differential Equations [CRBD], Physics-Informed Neural Networks [RPK19], deep equilibrium models [BKK], etc.). In this paper, we combine ideas of topology and model theory to study these limit phenomena from a unified viewpoint.

Informed by model theory, to each computation in a given computation model, we associate a continuous real-valued function, called the *type* of the computation, that describes the logical properties of this computation with respect to the rest of the model. This allows us to view computations in any given computational model as elements of a space of real-valued functions, which is called the *space of types* of the model. The idea of embedding models of theories into their type spaces is central in model theory. The embedding of computations into spaces of types allows us to utilize the vast theory of topology of function spaces, known as C_p -theory, to obtain results about complexity of topological limits of computations. As we shall indicate next, recent classification results for spaces of functions provide an elegant and powerful machinery to classify computations according to their levels of “tameness” or “wildness”, with the former corresponding roughly to polynomial approximability and the latter to exponential approximability. The viewpoint of spaces of types, which we have borrowed from model theory, thus becomes a “Rosetta stone” that allows us to interconnect various classification programs: In

³² topology, the classification of Rosenthal compacta pioneered by Todorčević [Tod99];
³³ in logic, the classification of theories developed by Shelah [She90]; and in statistical
³⁴ learning, the notion PAC learning and VC dimension pioneered by Vapkins and
³⁵ Chervonenkis [VC74, VC71].

³⁶ In a previous paper [ADIW24], we introduced the concept of limits of computations,
³⁷ which we called *ultracomputations* (given they arise as ultrafilter limits of
³⁸ standard computations) and *deep computations* (following usage in machine learn-
³⁹ ing [BKK]). There is a technical difference between both designations, but in this
⁴⁰ paper, to simplify the nomenclature, we will ignore the difference and use only the
⁴¹ term “deep computation”.

⁴² In [ADIW24], we proved a new “tame vs wild” (i.e., polynomial vs exponential)
⁴³ dichotomy for complexity of deep computations by invoking a classical result of
⁴⁴ Grothendieck from late 50s [Gro52]. Under our model-theoretic Rosetta stone,
⁴⁵ polynomial approximability in the sense of computation becomes identified with the
⁴⁶ notion of continuous extendability in the sense of topology, and with the notions of
⁴⁷ *stability* and *type definability* in the sense of model theory.

⁴⁸ In this paper, we follow a more general approach, i.e., we view deep computations
⁴⁹ as pointwise limits of continuous functions. In topology, real-valued functions that
⁵⁰ arise as the pointwise limit of a sequence of continuous are called *functions of the*
⁵¹ *first Baire class*, or *Baire class 1* functions, or *Baire-1* for short; Baire class 1 form
⁵² a step above simple continuity in the hierarchy of functions studied in real analysis
⁵³ (Baire class 0 functions being continuous functions). Intuitively, Baire-1 functions
⁵⁴ represent functions with “controlled” discontinuities, so they are crucial in topology
⁵⁵ and set theory.

⁵⁶ We prove a new “tame vs wild” Ramsey-theoretic dichotomy for complexity of
⁵⁷ general deep computations by invoking a famous paper by Bourgain, Fremlin and
⁵⁸ Talagrand from the late 70s [BFT78], and a new trichotomy for the class of “tame”
⁵⁹ deep computations by invoking an equally celebrated result of Todorčević, from the
⁶⁰ late 90s, for functions of the first Baire class [Tod99].

⁶¹ Todorčević’s trichotomy regards *Rosenthal compacta*; these are special classes of
⁶² topological spaces, defined as compact spaces that can be embedded (homeomor-
⁶³ phically identified as a subset) within the space of Baire class 1 functions on some
⁶⁴ Polish (separable, complete metric) space, under the pointwise convergence topol-
⁶⁵ ogy. Rosenthal compacta exhibit “topological tameness,” meaning they behave in
⁶⁶ relatively controlled ways, and since the late 70’s, they have played a crucial role
⁶⁷ for understanding complexity of structures of functional analysis, especially, Banach
⁶⁸ spaces. Todorčević’s trichotomy has been utilized to settle longstanding problems
⁶⁹ in topological dynamics and topological entropy [GM22].

⁷⁰ Through our Rosetta stone, Rosenthal compacta in topology correspond to the
⁷¹ important concept of “No Independence Property” (known as “NIP”) in model
⁷² theory, identified by Shelah [She71, She90], and to the concept of Probably Ap-
⁷³ proximately Correct learning (known as “PAC learnability”) in statistical learning
⁷⁴ theory identified by Valiant [Val84].

⁷⁵ Going beyond Todorčević’s trichotomy, we invoke a more recent heptachotomy
⁷⁶ for Rosenthal compacta obtained by Argyros, Dodos and Kanellopoulos [ADK08].
⁷⁷ Argyros, Dodos and Kanellopoulos identified the fundamental “prototypes” of sepa-
⁷⁸ rable Rosenthal compacta, and proved that any non-metrizable separable Rosenthal
⁷⁹ compactum must contain a “canonical” embedding of one of these prototypes. They

80 showed that if a separable Rosenthal compactum is not hereditarily separable, it
 81 must contain an uncountable discrete subspace of the size of the continuum.

82 We believe that the results presented in this paper show practitioners of com-
 83 putation, or topology, or descriptive set theory, or model theory, how classification
 84 invariants used in their field translate into classification invariants of other fields.
 85 However, in the interest of accessibility, we do not assume previous familiarity with
 86 high-level topology or model theory, or computing. The only technical prerequisite
 87 of the paper is undergraduate-level topology. The necessary topological background
 88 beyond undergraduate topology is covered in section 3.

89 Throughout the paper, we focus on classical computation; however, by refining
 90 the model-theoretic tools, the results presented here can be extended to quantum
 91 computation and open quantum systems. This extension will be addressed in a
 92 forthcoming paper.

93 2. TECHNICAL AND HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

94 Suppose that A is a subset of the real line \mathbb{R} and that \overline{A} is its *closure*. It is a
 95 well-known fact that any point of closure of A , say $x \in \overline{A}$, can be *approximated*
 96 by points inside of A , in the sense that a sequence $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq A$ must exist with
 97 the property that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$. For most applications we wish to approximate
 98 objects more complicated than points, such as functions.

99 Suppose we wish to build a neural network that decides, given an 8 by 8 black-
 100 and-white image of a hand-written scribble, what single decimal digit the scrib-
 101 ble represents. Maybe there exists f , a function representing an optimal solution
 102 to this classifier. Thus if X is the set of all (possible) images, then for $I \in X$,
 103 $f(I) \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 9\}$ is the “best” (or “good enough” for whatever deployment is
 104 needed) possible guess. Training the neural network involves approximating f until
 105 its guesses are within an acceptable error range. In general, f might be a function
 106 defined on a more complicated topological space X .

107 Often computers’ viable operations are restricted (addition, subtraction, multi-
 108 plication, division, etc.) and so we want to approximate a complicated function
 109 using simple functions (like polynomials). The problem is that, in contrast with
 110 mere points, functions in the closure of a set of functions need not be approximable
 111 (meaning the pointwise limit of a sequence of functions) by functions in the set.

112 Functions that are the pointwise limit of continuous functions are *Baire class 1*
 113 *functions*, and the set of all of these is denoted by $B_1(X)$. Notice that these are
 114 not necessarily continuous themselves! A set of Baire class 1 functions, A , will be
 115 relatively compact if its closure consists of just Baire class 1 functions (we delay the
 116 formal definition of *relatively compact* until Section 3, but the fact mentioned here
 117 is sufficient). The Bourgain-Fremlin-Talagrand (BFT) theorem reveals a precise
 118 correspondence between relative compactness in $B_1(X)$ and the model-theoretic
 119 notion of *Non-Independence Property* (NIP). This was realized by Pierre Simon in
 120 [Sim15b].

121 Simon’s insight was to view definable families of functions as sets of real-valued
 122 functions on type spaces and to interpret relative compactness in $B_1(X)$ as a form
 123 of “tame behavior” under ultrafilter limits. From this perspective, NIP theories are
 124 those whose definable families behave like relatively compact sets of Baire class 1
 125 functions, avoiding the wild, $\beta\mathbb{N}$ -like configurations that witness instability. This

126 observation opened a new bridge between analysis and logic: topological compact-
 127 ness corresponds to the absence of combinatorial independence. Simon’s later de-
 128 velopments connected these ideas to *Keisler measures* and *empirical averages*, al-
 129 lowing tools from functional analysis to be used to study learnability and definable
 130 types. This reinterpretation of model-theoretic tameness through the lens of the
 131 BFT theorem has made NIP a central notion not only in stability theory but also
 132 in contemporary connections with learning theory and ergodic analysis.

Historically, the notion of NIP arises from Shelah’s foundational work on the classification theory of models. In his seminal book *Unstable Theories* [She78], Shelah introduced the independence property as a key dividing line within unstable structures, identifying the class of *stable* theories inside those in which this property fails. Fix a first-order formula $\varphi(x, y)$ in a language L and a model M of an L -theory T . We say that $\varphi(x, y)$ has the *independence property (IP)* in M if there is a sequence $(c_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq M^{|x|}$ such that for every $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ there is $a_S \in M^{|y|}$ with

$$\forall i \in \mathbb{N}, \quad M \models \varphi(c_i, a_S) \iff i \in S.$$

133 The formula $\varphi(x, y)$ has the IP if it does so in some model M , and the formula
 134 has the *non-independence property (NIP)* if it does not have the IP. The latter
 135 notion of NIP generalizes stability by forbidding the full combinatorial indepen-
 136 dence pattern while allowing certain controlled forms of instability. Thus, Simon’s
 137 interpretation of the BFT theorem can be viewed as placing Shelah’s dividing line
 138 into a topological-analytic framework, connecting the earliest notions of stability
 139 to compactness phenomena in spaces of Baire class 1 functions.

140 One of the most important innovations in Machine Learning is the mathemati-
 141 cal notion, introduced by Turing Awardee Leslie Valiant in the 1980s, of ‘probably
 142 approximately correct learning’, or PAC-learning for short [BD19]. We give a stan-
 143 dard but short overview of these concepts in the context that is relevant to this
 144 work.

145 Consider the following important idea in data classification. Suppose that A is
 146 a set and that \mathcal{C} is a collection of sets. We say that \mathcal{C} *shatters* A if every subset
 147 of A is of the form $C \cap A$ for some $C \in \mathcal{C}$. For a classical geometric example, if
 148 A is the set of four points on the Euclidean plane of the form $(\pm 1, \pm 1)$, then the
 149 collection of all half-planes does not shatter A , the collection of all open balls does
 150 not shatter A , but the collection of all convex sets shatters A . While A need not be
 151 finite, it will usually be assumed to be so in Machine Learning applications. A finer
 152 way to distinguish collections of sets that shatter a given set from those that do
 153 not is by the *Vapnik-Chervonenkis dimension (VC-dimension)*, which is equal to
 154 the cardinality of the largest finite set shattered by the collection, in case it exists,
 155 or to infinity otherwise.

156 A concrete illustration of these ideas appears when considering threshold clas-
 157 sifiers on the real line. Let \mathcal{H} be the collection of all indicator functions h_t given
 158 by $h_t(x) = 1$ if $x \leq t$ and $h_t(x) = 0$ otherwise. Each h_t is a Baire class 1 func-
 159 tion, and the family \mathcal{H} is relatively compact in $B_1(\mathbb{R})$. In model-theoretic terms,
 160 \mathcal{H} is NIP, since no configuration of points and thresholds can realize the full inde-
 161 pendence pattern of a binary matrix. By contrast, the family of parity functions
 162 $\{x \mapsto (-1)^{\langle w, x \rangle} : w \in \{0, 1\}^n\}$ on $\{0, 1\}^n$ (here $\langle w, x \rangle$ is the usual vector dot product)
 163 has the independence property and fails relative compactness in $B_1(X)$, capturing
 164 the analytical meaning of instability. This dichotomy mirrors the behavior of con-
 165 cept classes with finite versus infinite VC dimension in statistical learning theory.

Going back to the model theoretic framework, let

$$\mathcal{F}_\varphi(M) := \{\varphi(M, a) : a \in M^{|y|}\}$$

be the family of subsets of $M^{|x|}$ defined by instances of the formula φ , where $\varphi(M, a)$ is the set of $|x|$ -tuples c in M for which $M \models \varphi(c, a)$. The fundamental theorem of statistical learning states that a binary hypothesis class is PAC-learnable if and only if it has finite VC-dimension, and the subsequent theorem connects the rest of the concepts presented in this section.

Theorem 2.1 (Laskowski). *The formula $\varphi(x, y)$ has the NIP if and only if $\mathcal{F}_\varphi(M)$ has finite VC-dimension.*

For two simple examples of formulas satisfying the NIP, consider first the language $L = \{<\}$ and the model $M = (\mathbb{R}, <)$ of the reals with their usual linear order. Take the formula $\varphi(x, y)$ to mean $x < y$, then $\varphi(M, a) = (-\infty, a)$, and so $\mathcal{F}_\varphi(M)$ is just the set of left open rays. The VC-dimension of this collection is 1, since it can shatter a single point, but no two point set can be shattered since the rays are downwards closed. Now in contrast, the collection of open intervals, given by the formula $\varphi(x; y_1, y_2) := (y_1 < x) \wedge (x < y_2)$, has VC-dimension 2.

In this work, we study the corresponding notions of NIP (and hence PAC-learnability) in the context of Compositional Computation Structures (CCS) introduced in [ADIW24].

3. GENERAL TOPOLOGICAL PRELIMINARIES

In this section we give preliminaries from general topology and function space theory. We include some of the proofs for completeness but a reader familiar with these topics may skip them.

A *Polish space* is a separable and completely metrizable topological space. The most important examples are the reals \mathbb{R} , the Cantor space $2^\mathbb{N}$ (the set of all infinite binary sequences, endowed with the product topology), and the Baire space $\mathbb{N}^\mathbb{N}$ (the set of all infinite sequences of naturals, also with the product topology). Countable products of Polish spaces are Polish; this includes spaces like $\mathbb{R}^\mathbb{N}$, the space of sequences of real numbers. A subspace of a Polish space is itself Polish if and only if it is a G_δ -set, that is, it can be written as the intersection of a countable family of open subsets; in particular, closed subsets and open subsets of Polish spaces are also Polish spaces.

In this work we talk a lot about subspaces, and so there is a pertinent subtlety of the definitions worth mentioning: *completely metrizable space* is not the same as *complete metric space*; for an illustrative example, notice that $(0, 1)$ is homeomorphic to the real line, and thus a Polish space (being Polish is a topological property), but with the metric inherited from the reals, as a subspace, $(0, 1)$ is **not** a complete metric space. In summary, a Polish space has its topology generated by *some* complete metric, but other metrics generating the same topology might not be. In practice, such as when studying descriptive set theory, one finds that we can often keep the metric implicit.

Given two topological spaces X and Y we denote by $B_1(X, Y)$ the set of all functions $f : X \rightarrow Y$ such that for all open $U \subseteq Y$, $f^{-1}[U]$ is an F_σ subset of X (that is, a countable union of closed sets); we call these types of functions *Baire class 1 functions*. When $Y = \mathbb{R}$ we simply denote this collection by $B_1(X)$. We endow $B_1(X, Y)$ with the topology of pointwise convergence (the topology inherited

from the product topology of Y^X). By $C_p(X, Y)$ we denote the set of all continuous functions $f : X \rightarrow Y$ with the topology of pointwise convergence. Similarly, $C_p(X) := C_p(X, \mathbb{R})$. A natural question is, how do topological properties of X translate to $C_p(X)$ and vice versa? These questions, and in general the study of these spaces, are the concern of C_p -theory, an active field of research in general topology which was pioneered by A. V. Arhangel'skiĭ and his students in the 1970's and 1980's. This field has found many exciting applications in model theory and functional analysis. Good recent surveys on the topics include [HT23] and [Tka11]. We begin with the following:

Fact 3.1. *If all open subsets of X are F_σ (in particular if X is metrizable), then $C_p(X, Y) \subseteq B_1(X, Y)$.*

The proof of the following fact (due to Baire) can be found in Section 10 of [Tod97].

Fact 3.2 (Baire). *If X is a complete metric space, then the following are equivalent:*

- (i) *f is a Baire class 1 function, that is, $f \in B_1(X)$.*
- (ii) *f is a pointwise limit of continuous functions.*
- (iii) *For every closed $F \subseteq X$, the restriction $f|_F$ has a point of continuity.*

Moreover, if X is Polish and $f \notin B_1(X)$, then there exists countable $D_0, D_1 \subseteq X$ and reals $a < b$ such that $\overline{D_0} = \overline{D_1}$, $D_0 \subseteq f^{-1}(-\infty, a]$ and $D_1 \subseteq f^{-1}[b, \infty)$.

A subset $L \subseteq X$ is *relatively compact* in X if the closure of L in X is compact. Relatively compact subsets of $B_1(X)$ (for X Polish space) have been objects of interest to many people working in Analysis and Topological Dynamics. We begin with the following well-known result. Recall that a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^X$ of real-valued functions is *pointwise bounded* if for every $x \in X$ there is $M_x > 0$ such that $|f(x)| < M_x$ for all $f \in A$. We include the proof for the reader's convenience:

Lemma 3.3. *Let X be a Polish space and $A \subseteq B_1(X)$ be pointwise bounded. The following are equivalent:*

- (i) *A is relatively compact in $B_1(X)$.*
- (ii) *A is relatively countably compact in $B_1(X)$, i.e., every countable subset of A has an accumulation point in $B_1(X)$.*
- (iii) *$\overline{A} \subseteq B_1(X)$, where \overline{A} denotes the closure in \mathbb{R}^X .*

Proof. By definition, being pointwise bounded means that there is, for each $x \in X$, $M_x > 0$ such that, for every $f \in A$, $|f(x)| \leq M_x$.

(i) \Rightarrow (ii) holds in general.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii) Assume that A is relatively countably compact in $B_1(X)$ and that $f \in \overline{A} \setminus B_1(X)$. By Fact 3.2, there are countable $D_0, D_1 \subseteq X$ with $\overline{D_0} = \overline{D_1}$, and $a < b$ such that $D_0 \subseteq f^{-1}(-\infty, a]$ and $D_1 \subseteq f^{-1}[b, \infty)$. We claim that there is a sequence $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq A$ such that for all $x \in D_0 \cup D_1$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$. Indeed, use the countability to enumerate $D_0 \cup D_1$ as $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$. Then find, for each positive n , $f_n \in A$ with $|f_n(x_i) - f(x_i)| < \frac{1}{n}$ for all $i \leq n$. The claim follows.

By relative countable compactness of A , there is an accumulation point $g \in B_1(X)$ of $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$. It is straightforward to show that since f and g agree on $D_0 \cup D_1$, g does not have a point of continuity on the closed set $\overline{D_0} = \overline{D_1}$, which contradicts Fact 3.2.

254 (iii) \Rightarrow (i) Suppose that $\overline{A} \subseteq B_1(X)$. Then $\overline{A} \cap B_1(X) = \overline{A}$ is a closed subset of
 255 $\prod_{x \in X} [-M_x, M_x]$; Tychonoff's theorem states that the product of compact spaces
 256 is always compact, and since closed subsets of compact spaces are compact, \overline{A} must
 257 be compact, as desired. \square

258 **3.1. From Rosenthal's dichotomy to NIP.** The fundamental idea that
 259 connects the rich theory here presented to real-valued computations is the concept
 260 of an *approximation*. In the reals, points of closure from some subset can always
 261 be approximated by points inside the set, via a convergent sequence. For more
 262 complicated spaces, such as $C_p(X)$, this fails in a remarkably intriguing way. Let
 263 us show an example that is actually the protagonist of a celebrated result. Con-
 264 sider the Cantor space $X = 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ and let $p_n(x) = x(n)$ define a continuous mapping
 265 $X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$. Then one can show (see Chapter 1.1 of [Tod97] for details) that, per-
 266 haps surprisingly, the only continuous functions in the closure of $\{p_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are the
 267 functions p_n themselves; moreover, none of the subsequences of $\{p_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converge.
 268 In some sense, this example is the worst possible scenario for convergence. The
 269 topological space obtained from this closure is well-known. Topologists refer to it
 270 as the Stone-Čech compactification of the discrete space of natural numbers, or $\beta\mathbb{N}$
 271 for short, and it is an important object of study in general topology.

272 **Theorem 3.4** (Rosenthal's Dichotomy). *If X is Polish and $\{f_n\} \subseteq C_p(X)$ is point-
 273 wise bounded, then either $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ contains a convergent subsequence or a subse-
 274 quence whose closure (in \mathbb{R}^X) is homeomorphic to $\beta\mathbb{N}$.*

275 In other words, a pointwise bounded set of continuous functions will either con-
 276 tain a subsequence that converges or a subsequence whose closure is essentially
 277 the same as the example mentioned in the previous paragraphs (the worst possible
 278 scenario). Note that in the preceding example, the functions are trivially pointwise
 279 bounded in \mathbb{R}^X as the functions can only take values 0 and 1.

280 If we intend to generalize our results from $C_p(X)$ to the bigger space $B_1(X)$, we
 281 find a similar dichotomy. Either every point of closure of the set of functions will
 282 be a Baire class 1 function, or there is a sequence inside the set that behaves in the
 283 worst possible way (which in this context, is the IP!). The theorem is usually not
 284 phrased as a dichotomy but rather as an equivalence (with the NIP instead):

285 **Theorem 3.5** (Bourgain-Fremlin-Talagrand, Theorem 4G in [BFT78]). *Let X be
 286 a Polish space and $A \subseteq C_p(X)$ be pointwise bounded. The following are equivalent:*

- 287 (i) A is relatively compact in $B_1(X)$, i.e., $\overline{A} \subseteq B_1(X)$.
 288 (ii) For every $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq A$ and for every $a < b$ there is $I \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$\bigcap_{n \in I} f_n^{-1}(-\infty, a] \cap \bigcap_{n \notin I} f_n^{-1}[b, \infty) = \emptyset.$$

289 Our goal now is to characterize relatively compact subsets of $B_1(X, Y)$ when
 290 $Y = \mathbb{R}^P$ with P countable. Given $P \in \mathcal{P}$ we denote the *projection map* onto the
 291 P -coordinate by $\pi_P : \mathbb{R}^P \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. From a high-level topological interpretation, the
 292 subsequent lemma states that, in this context, the spaces \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{R}^P are really not
 293 that different, and that if we understand the Baire class 1 functions of one space,
 294 then we also understand the functions of both. In fact, \mathbb{R} and any other Polish
 295 space is embeddable as a closed subspace of \mathbb{R}^P .

295 **Lemma 3.6.** *Let X be a Polish space and \mathcal{P} be a countable set. Then, $f \in B_1(X, \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})$*
296 *if and only if $\pi_P \circ f \in B_1(X)$ for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$.*

Proof. Only one implication needs a proof. Suppose that $\pi_P \circ f \in B_1(X)$ for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$. Let V be a basic open subset of $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$. That is, there exists a finite $\mathcal{P}' \subseteq \mathcal{P}$ such that $V = \bigcap_{P \in \mathcal{P}'} \pi_P^{-1}[U_P]$ where U_P is open in \mathbb{R} . Finally,

$$f^{-1}[V] = \bigcap_{P \in \mathcal{P}'} (\pi_P \circ f)^{-1}[U_P]$$

297 is an F_σ set. Since \mathcal{P} is countable, $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$ is second countable so every open set U in
298 $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$ is a countable union of basic open sets. Hence, $f^{-1}[U]$ is F_σ . \square

299 Below we consider \mathcal{P} with the discrete topology. For each $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$ denote
300 $\hat{f}(P, x) := \pi_P \circ f(x)$ for all $(P, x) \in \mathcal{P} \times X$. Similarly, for each $g : \mathcal{P} \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ denote
301 $\check{g}(x)(P) := g(P, x)$. Given $A \subseteq (\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})^X$, we denote \hat{A} as the set of all \hat{f} such that
302 $f \in A$.

303 The map $(\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})^X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P} \times X}$ given by $f \mapsto \hat{f}$ is a homeomorphism and its inverse is
304 given by $g \mapsto \check{g}$.

305 **Lemma 3.7.** *Let X be a Polish space and \mathcal{P} be countable. Then, $f \in B_1(X, \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})$ if*
306 *and only if $\hat{f} \in B_1(\mathcal{P} \times X)$.*

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Given an open set of reals U , we have that for every $P \in \mathcal{P}$, $f^{-1}[\pi_P^{-1}[U]]$ is F_σ by Lemma 3.6. Given that \mathcal{P} is a discrete countable space, we observe that

$$\hat{f}^{-1}[U] = \bigcup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} (\{P\} \times f^{-1}[\pi_P^{-1}[U]])$$

is also an F_σ set. (\Leftarrow) By lemma 3.6 it suffices to show that $\pi_P \circ f \in B_1(X)$ for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$. Fix an open $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Write $\hat{f}^{-1}[U] = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} F_n$ where F_n is closed in $\mathcal{P} \times X$. Then,

$$(\pi_P \circ f)^{-1}[U] = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{x \in X : (P, x) \in F_n\}$$

307 which is F_σ . \square

308 We now direct our attention to a notion of the NIP that is more general than
309 the one from the introduction. It can be interpreted as a sort of continuous version
310 of the one presented in the preceding section.

Definition 3.8. We say that $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^X$ has the *Non-Independence Property* (NIP) if and only if for every $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq A$ and for every $a < b$ there are finite disjoint sets $E, F \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$\bigcap_{n \in E} f_n^{-1}(-\infty, a] \cap \bigcap_{n \in F} f_n^{-1}[b, \infty) = \emptyset.$$

Note that if X is compact and $A \subseteq C_p(X)$, then A has the NIP if and only if for every $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq A$ and for every $a < b$ there is $I \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$\bigcap_{n \in I} f_n^{-1}(-\infty, a] \cap \bigcap_{n \notin I} f_n^{-1}[b, \infty) = \emptyset.$$

311 Given $A \subseteq Y^X$ and $K \subseteq X$ we write $A|_K := \{f|_K : f \in A\}$, i.e., the set of
312 all restrictions of functions in A to K . The following Theorem is a slightly more
313 general version of Theorem 3.5.

314 **Theorem 3.9.** Assume that \mathcal{P} is countable, X is a Polish space, and $A \subseteq C_p(X, \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})$
315 is such that $\pi_P \circ A$ is pointwise bounded for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$. The following are equivalent
316 for every compact $K \subseteq X$:

- 317 (1) $\overline{A|_K} \subseteq B_1(K, \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})$.
318 (2) $\pi_P \circ A|_K$ has the NIP for every $P \in \mathcal{P}$.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2). Let $P \in \mathcal{P}$. Fix $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq A$ and $a < b$. By (1) we have that $\overline{A|_K} \subseteq B_1(K, \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})$. Applying the homeomorphism $f \mapsto \hat{f}$ and using lemma 3.7 we get $\overline{\hat{A}|_{\mathcal{P} \times K}} \subseteq B_1(\mathcal{P} \times K)$. By Theorem 3.5, there is $I \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$(\mathcal{P} \times K) \cap \bigcap_{n \in I} f_n^{-1}(-\infty, a] \cap \bigcap_{n \notin I} f_n^{-1}[b, \infty) = \emptyset$$

Hence,

$$K \cap \bigcap_{n \in I} (\pi_P \circ f_n)^{-1}(-\infty, a] \cap \bigcap_{n \notin I} (\pi_P \circ f_n)^{-1}[b, \infty) = \emptyset$$

By compactness, there are finite $E \subseteq I$ and $F \subseteq \mathbb{N} \setminus I$ such that

$$K \cap \bigcap_{n \in E} (\pi_P \circ f_n)^{-1}(-\infty, a] \cap \bigcap_{n \in F} (\pi_P \circ f_n)^{-1}[b, \infty) = \emptyset$$

319 Thus, $\pi_P \circ A|_L$ has the NIP.

320 (2) \Rightarrow (1) Fix $f \in \overline{A|_K}$. By lemma 3.6 it suffices to show that $\pi_P \circ f \in B_1(K)$
321 for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$. By (2), $\pi_P \circ A|_K$ has the NIP. Hence, by Theorem 3.5 we have
322 $\pi_P \circ A|_K \subseteq B_1(K)$. But then $\pi_P \circ f \in \overline{\pi_P \circ A|_K} \subseteq B_1(K)$. \square

323 Lastly, a simple but significant result that helps understand the operation of
324 restricting a set of functions to a specific subspace of the domain space X , of course
325 in the context of the NIP, is that we may always assume that said subspace is
326 closed. Concretely, whether we take its closure or not has no effect on the NIP:

327 **Lemma 3.10.** Assume that X is Hausdorff and that $A \subseteq C_p(X)$. The following
328 are equivalent for every $L \subseteq X$:

- 329 (i) A_L has the NIP.
330 (ii) $A|_{\bar{L}}$ has the NIP.

Proof. It suffices to show that (i) \Rightarrow (ii). Suppose that (ii) does not hold, i.e., that there are $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq A$ and $a < b$ such that for all finite disjoint $E, F \subseteq \mathbb{N}$:

$$\bar{L} \cap \bigcap_{n \in E} f_n^{-1}(-\infty, a] \cap \bigcap_{n \in F} f_n^{-1}[b, \infty) \neq \emptyset.$$

Pick $a' < b'$ such that $a < a' < b' < b$. Then, for any finite disjoint $E, F \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ we can choose

$$x \in \bar{L} \cap \bigcap_{n \in E} f_n^{-1}(-\infty, a') \cap \bigcap_{n \in F} f_n^{-1}(b', \infty)$$

By definition of closure:

$$L \cap \bigcap_{n \in E} f_n^{-1}(-\infty, a') \cap \bigcap_{n \in F} f_n^{-1}(b', \infty) \neq \emptyset.$$

331 This contradicts (i). \square

332 4. NIP IN THE CONTEXT OF COMPOSITIONAL COMPUTATION STRUCTURES

333 In this section, we study what the NIP tell us in the context of deep computations
 334 as defined in [ADIW24]. We say a structure (L, \mathcal{P}, Γ) is a *Compositional*
 335 *Computation Structure* (CCS) if $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$ is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$, with the pointwise
 336 convergence topology, and $\Gamma \subseteq L^L$ is a semigroup under composition. The motiva-
 337 tion for CCS comes from (continuous) model theory, where \mathcal{P} is a fixed collection
 338 of predicates and L is a (real-valued) structure. Every point in L is identified with
 339 its “type”, which is the tuple of all values the point takes on the predicates from
 340 \mathcal{P} , i.e., an element of $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$. In this context, elements of \mathcal{P} are called *features*. In the
 341 discrete model theory framework, one views the space of complete-types as a sort of
 342 compactification of the structure L . In this context, we don’t want to consider only
 343 points in L (realized types) but in its closure \bar{L} (possibly unrealized types). The
 344 problem is that the closure \bar{L} is not necessarily compact, an assumption that turns
 345 out to be very useful in the context of continuous model theory. To bypass this
 346 problem in a framework for deep computations, Alva, Dueñez, Iovino and Walton
 347 introduced in [ADIW24] the concept of *shards*, which essentially consists in cover-
 348 ing (a large fragment) of the space \bar{L} by compact, and hence pointwise-bounded,
 349 subspaces (shards). We shall give the formal definition next.

350 A *sizer* is a tuple $r_{\bullet} = (r_p)_{p \in \mathcal{P}}$ of positive real numbers indexed by \mathcal{P} . Given a
 351 sizer r_{\bullet} , we define the r_{\bullet} -shard as:

$$L[r_{\bullet}] = L \cap \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}} [-r_p, r_p]$$

352 For an illustrative example, we can frame Newton’s polynomial root approxima-
 353 tion method in the context of a CCS (see Example 5.6 of [ADIW24] for details) as
 354 follows. Begin by considering the extended complex numbers $\hat{\mathbb{C}} := \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$ with
 355 the usual Riemann sphere topology that makes it into a compact space (where
 356 unbounded sequences converge to ∞). In fact, not only is this space compact
 357 but it is covered by the shard given by the sizer $(1, 1, 1)$ (the unit sphere is con-
 358 tained in the cube $[-1, 1]^3$). The space $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$ is homeomorphic to the usual unit
 359 sphere $S^2 := \{(x, y, z) : x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1\}$ of \mathbb{R}^3 , by means of the stereographic
 360 projection and its inverse $\hat{\mathbb{C}} \rightarrow S^2$. This function is regarded as a triple of pred-
 361 icates $x, y, z : \hat{\mathbb{C}} \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ where each will map an extended complex number to
 362 its corresponding real coordinate on the cube $[-1, 1]^3$. Now fix the cubic com-
 363 plex polynomial $p(s) := s^3 - 1$, and consider the map which performs one step
 364 in Newton’s method at a particular (extended) complex number s , for finding
 365 a root of p , $\gamma_p : \hat{\mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \hat{\mathbb{C}}$. The explicit inner workings of γ_p are irrelevant for
 366 this example, except for the fact that it is a continuous mapping. It follows that
 367 $(S^2, \{x, y, z\}, \{\gamma_p^k : k \in \mathbb{N}\})$ is a CCS. The idea is that repeated applications of
 368 $\gamma_p(s), \gamma_p \circ \gamma_p(s), \gamma_p \circ \gamma_p \circ \gamma_p(s), \dots$ would approximate a root of p provided s was
 369 a good enough initial guess.

370 The r_{\bullet} -type-shard is defined as $\mathcal{L}[r_{\bullet}] = \overline{L[r_{\bullet}]}$ and \mathcal{L}_{sh} is the union of all type-
 371 shards. Notice that \mathcal{L}_{sh} is not necessarily equal to $\mathcal{L} = \bar{L}$, unless \mathcal{P} is countable
 372 (see [ADIW24]). A *transition* is a map $f : L \rightarrow L$, in particular, every element
 373 in the semigroup Γ is a transition (these are called *realized computations*). In
 374 practice, one would like to work with “definable” computations, i.e., ones that can
 375 be described by a computer. In this topological framework, being continuous is an
 376 expected requirement. However, as in the case of complete-types in model theory,

377 we will work with “unrealized computations”, i.e., maps $f : \mathcal{L}_{sh} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{sh}$. Note that
 378 continuity of a computation does not imply that it can be continuously extended
 379 to \mathcal{L}_{sh} .

380 Suppose that a transition map $f : L \rightarrow \mathcal{L}$ can be extended continuously to
 381 a map $\mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}$. Then, the Stone-Weierstrass theorem implies that the feature
 382 $\pi_P \circ f$ (here P is a fixed predicate, and the feature is hence continuous) can be
 383 uniformly approximated by polynomials on the compact set $\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]$. Theorem 2.2 in
 384 [ADIW24] formalizes the converse of this fact, in the sense that transitions maps
 385 that are not continuously extendable in this fashion cannot be obtained from simple
 386 constructions involving predicates. Under this framework, the features $\pi_P \circ f$ of such
 387 transitions f are not approximable by polynomials, and so they are understood as
 388 “non-computable” since, again, we expect the operations computers carry out to be
 389 determined by elementary algebra corresponding to polynomials (namely addition
 390 and multiplication). Therefore it is crucial we assume some extendibility conditions.

391 We say that the CCS (L, \mathcal{P}, Γ) satisfies the *Extendibility Axiom* if for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$,
 392 there is $\tilde{\gamma} : \mathcal{L}_{sh} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{sh}$ such that for every sizer r_\bullet there is an s_\bullet such that
 393 $\tilde{\gamma}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} : \mathcal{L}[r_\bullet] \rightarrow \mathcal{L}[s_\bullet]$ is continuous. For a deeper discussion about this axiom, we
 394 refer the reader to [ADIW24].

395 A collection R of sizers is called *exhaustive* if $\mathcal{L}_{sh} = \bigcup_{r_\bullet \in R} \mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]$. We say that
 396 $\Delta \subseteq \Gamma$ is R -*confined* if $\gamma|_{L[r_\bullet]} : L[r_\bullet] \rightarrow L[r_\bullet]$ for every $r_\bullet \in R$ and $\gamma \in \Delta$. Elements in
 397 Δ are called *real-valued computations* (in this article we will refer to them simply as
 398 *computations*) and elements in $\overline{\Delta} \subseteq \mathcal{L}_{sh}^L$ are called (real-valued) *deep computations*
 399 or *ultracomputations*. By $\tilde{\Delta}$ we denote the set of all extensions $\tilde{\gamma}$ for $\gamma \in \Delta$. For a
 400 more complete description of this framework, we refer the reader to [ADIW24].

401 **4.1. NIP and Baire-1 definability of deep computations.** Under what con-
 402 ditions are deep computations Baire class 1, and thus well-behaved according to
 403 our framework, on type-shards? The next Theorem says that, again under the
 404 assumption that \mathcal{P} is countable, the space of deep computations is a Rosenthal
 405 compactum (when restricted to shards) if and only if the set of computations has
 406 the NIP on features. Hence, we can import the theory of Rosenthal compacta into
 407 this framework of deep computations.

408 **Theorem 4.1.** *Let (L, \mathcal{P}, Γ) be a CCS satisfying the Extendibility Axiom with \mathcal{P}
 409 countable. Let R be an exhaustive collection of sizers. Let $\Delta \subseteq \Gamma$ be R -confined. The
 410 following are equivalent.*

- 411 (1) $\overline{\tilde{\Delta}}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} \subseteq B_1(\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet], \mathcal{L}[r_\bullet])$ for all $r_\bullet \in R$.
 412 (2) $\pi_P \circ \Delta|_{L[r_\bullet]}$ has the NIP for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$ and $r_\bullet \in R$, that is, for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$,
 413 $r_\bullet \in R$, $a < b$, $\{\gamma_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \Delta$ there are finite disjoint $E, F \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$L[r_\bullet] \cap \bigcap_{n \in E} (\pi_P \circ \gamma_n)^{-1}(-\infty, a) \cap \bigcap_{n \in F} (\pi_P \circ \gamma_n)^{-1}[b, \infty) = \emptyset.$$

414 Moreover, if any (hence all) of the preceding conditions hold, then every deep
 415 computation $f \in \overline{\Delta}$ can be extended to a Baire-1 function on shards, i.e., there is
 416 $\tilde{f} : \mathcal{L}_{sh} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{sh}$ such that $\tilde{f}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} \in B_1(\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet], \mathcal{L}[r_\bullet])$ for all $r_\bullet \in R$. In particular, on
 417 each shard every deep computation is the pointwise limit of a countable sequence of
 418 computations.

419 *Proof.* Since \mathcal{P} is countable, then $\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^\mathcal{P}$ is Polish. Also, the Extendibility
 420 Axiom implies that $\pi_P \circ \tilde{\Delta}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]}$ is a pointwise bounded set of continuous functions

for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$. Hence, Theorem 3.9 and Lemma 3.10 prove the equivalence of (1) and (2). If (1) holds and $f \in \overline{\Delta}$, then write $f = \underline{\mathcal{U}\lim_i} \gamma_i$ as an ultralimit. Define $\tilde{f} := \mathcal{U}\lim_i \tilde{\gamma}_i$. Hence, for all $r_\bullet \in R$ we have $\tilde{f}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} \in \overline{\tilde{\Delta}}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} \subseteq B_1(\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet], \mathcal{L}[r_\bullet])$. That every deep computation is a pointwise limit of a countable sequence of computations follows from the fact that for a Polish space X every compact subset of $B_1(X)$ is Fréchet-Urysohn (that is, a space where topological closures coincide with sequential closures, see Theorem 3F in [BFT78] or Theorem 4.1 in [Deb13]). \square

Given a countable set Δ of computations satisfying the NIP on features and shards (condition (2) of Theorem 4.1) we have that $\overline{\tilde{\Delta}}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]}$ (for a fixed sizer r_\bullet) is a separable *Rosenthal compactum* (compact subset of $B_1(P \times \mathcal{L}[r_\bullet])$). The work of Todorčević ([Tod99]) and Argyros, Dodos, Kanellopoulos ([ADK08]) culminates in a trichotomy theorem for separable Rosenthal Compacta. Inspired by the work of Glasner and Megrelishvili ([GM22]), we are interested to see how this allows us to classify and obtain different levels of PAC-learnability (NIP).

Recall that a topological space X is *hereditarily separable* (HS) if every subspace is separable and that X is *first countable* if every point in X has a countable local basis. Every separable metrizable space is hereditarily separable and it is a result of R. Pol that every hereditarily separable Rosenthal compactum is first countable (see section 10 in [Deb13]). This suggests the following definition:

Definition 4.2. Let (L, \mathcal{P}, Γ) be a CCS satisfying the Extendibility Axiom and R be an exhaustive collection of sizers. Let $\Delta \subseteq \Gamma$ be an R -confined countable set of computations satisfying the NIP on shards and features (condition (2) in Theorem 4.1). We say that Δ is:

- (i) NIP_1 if $\overline{\tilde{\Delta}}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]}$ is first countable for every $r_\bullet \in R$.
- (ii) NIP_2 if $\overline{\tilde{\Delta}}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]}$ is hereditarily separable for every $r_\bullet \in R$.
- (iii) NIP_3 if $\overline{\tilde{\Delta}}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]}$ is metrizable for every $r_\bullet \in R$.

Observe that $NIP_3 \Rightarrow NIP_2 \Rightarrow NIP_1 \Rightarrow NIP$. A natural question that would continue this work is to find examples of CCS that separate these levels of NIP. In [Tod99], Todorčević isolates 3 canonical examples of Rosenthal compacta that witness the failure of the converse implications above. We now present some separable and non-separable examples of Rosenthal compacta:

- (1) *Alexandroff compactification of a discrete space of size continuum.* For each $a \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ consider the map $\delta_a : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $\delta_a(x) = 1$ if $x = a$ and $\delta_a(x) = 0$ otherwise. Let $A(2^{\mathbb{N}}) = \{\delta_a : a \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}\} \cup \{0\}$, where 0 is the zero map. Notice that $A(2^{\mathbb{N}})$ is a compact subset of $B_1(2^{\mathbb{N}})$, in fact $\{\delta_a : a \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}\}$ is a discrete subspace of $B_1(2^{\mathbb{N}})$ and its pointwise closure is precisely $A(2^{\mathbb{N}})$. Hence, this is a Rosenthal compactum which is not first countable. Notice that this space is also not separable.
- (2) *Extended Alexandroff compactification.* For each finite binary sequence $s \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}$, let $v_s : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by $v_s(x) = 1$ if x extends s and $v_s(x) = 0$ otherwise. Let $\hat{A}(2^{\mathbb{N}})$ be the pointwise closure of $\{v_s : s \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$, i.e., $\hat{A}(2^{\mathbb{N}}) = A(2^{\mathbb{N}}) \cup \{v_s : s \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. Note that this space is a separable Rosenthal compactum which is not first countable.
- (3) *Split Cantor.* Let $<$ be the lexicographic order in the space of infinite binary sequences, i.e., $2^{\mathbb{N}}$. For each $a \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ let $f_a^- : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by

464 $f_a^-(x) = 1$ if $x < a$ and $f_a^-(x) = 0$ otherwise. Let $f_a^+ : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given
 465 by $f_a^+(x) = 1$ if $x \leq a$ and $f_a^+(x) = 0$ otherwise. The split Cantor is the
 466 space $S(2^{\mathbb{N}}) = \{f_a^- : a \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}\} \cup \{f_a^+ : a \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is a separable Rosenthal
 467 compactum. One example of a countable dense subset is the set of all f_a^+
 468 and f_a^- where a is an infinite binary sequence that is eventually constant.
 469 Moreover, it is hereditarily separable but it is not metrizable.

- (4) *Alexandroff Duplicate.* Let K be any compact metric space and consider the Polish space $X = C(K) \sqcup K$, i.e., the disjoint union of $C(K)$ (with its supremum norm topology) and K . For each $a \in K$ define $g_a^0, g_a^1 : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as follows:

$$g_a^0(x) = \begin{cases} x(a), & x \in C(K) \\ 0, & x \in K \end{cases}$$

$$g_a^1(x) = \begin{cases} x(a), & x \in C(K) \\ \delta_a(x), & x \in K \end{cases}$$

470 Let $D(K) = \{g_a^0 : a \in K\} \cup \{g_a^1 : a \in K\}$. Notice that $D(K)$ is a first
 471 countable Rosenthal compactum. It is not separable if K is uncountable.
 472 The interesting case will be when $K = 2^{\mathbb{N}}$.

- (5) *Extended Alexandroff Duplicate of the split Cantor.* For each finite binary sequence $t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}$ let $a_t \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ be the sequence starting with t and ending with 0's and let $b_t \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ be the sequence starting with t and ending with 1's. Define $h_t : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

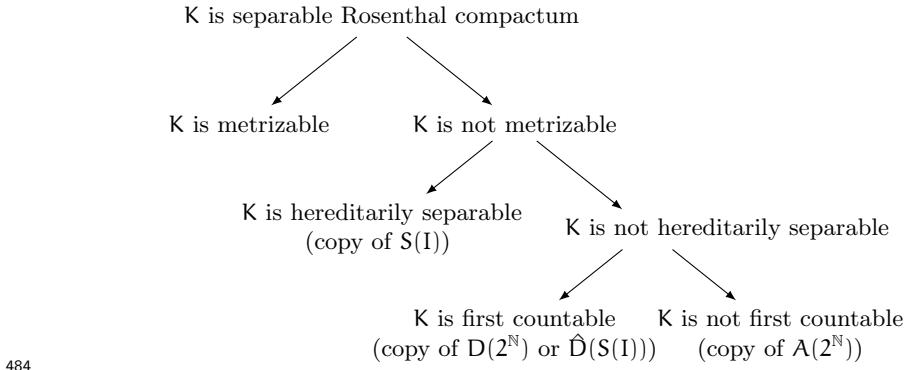
$$h_t(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < a_t \\ 1/2, & a_t \leq x \leq b_t \\ 1, & b_t < x \end{cases}$$

473 Let $\hat{D}(S(2^{\mathbb{N}}))$ be the pointwise closure of the set $\{h_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. Hence,
 474 $\hat{D}(S(2^{\mathbb{N}}))$ is a separable first countable Rosenthal compactum which is not
 475 hereditarily separable. In fact, it contains an uncountable discrete subspace
 476 (see Theorem 5 in [Tod99]).

477 **Theorem 4.3** (Todorčević's Trichotomy, [Tod99], Theorem 3 in [ADK08]). *Let K
 478 be a separable Rosenthal Compactum.*

- 479 (i) *If K is hereditarily separable but non-metrizable, then $S(2^{\mathbb{N}})$ embeds into K .*
- 480 (ii) *If K is first countable but not hereditarily separable, then either $D(2^{\mathbb{N}})$ or
 $\hat{D}(S(2^{\mathbb{N}}))$ embeds into K .*
- 482 (iii) *If K is not first countable, then $A(2^{\mathbb{N}})$ embeds into K .*

483 In other words, we have the following classification:



484

485 Lastly, the definitions provided here for NIP_i ($i = 1, 2, 3$) are topological.

486 **Question 4.4.** Is there a non-topological characterization for NIP_i , $i = 1, 2, 3$?

487 More can be said about the nature of the embeddings in Todorčević's Trichotomy.
 488 Given a separable Rosenthal compactum K , there is typically more than one countable dense subset of K . We can view a separable Rosenthal compactum as the accumulation points of a countable family of pointwise bounded real-valued functions.
 489 The choice of the countable families is not important when a bijection between them can be lifted to a homeomorphism of their closures. To be more precise:

490 **Definition 4.5.** Given a Polish space X , a countable set I and two pointwise bounded families $\{f_i : i \in I\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^X$, $\{g_i : i \in I\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^X$ indexed by I . We say that $\{f_i : i \in I\}$ and $\{g_i : i \in I\}$ are *equivalent* if and only if the map $f_i \mapsto g_i$ is extended to a homeomorphism from $\overline{\{f_i : i \in I\}}$ to $\overline{\{g_i : i \in I\}}$.

491 Notice that in the separable examples discussed before $(\hat{A}(2^N), S(2^N)$ and $\hat{D}(S(2^N))$), the countable dense subsets are indexed by the binary tree $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$. This choice of index is useful because the Ramsey theory of perfect subsets of the Cantor space $2^{\mathbb{N}}$ can be imported to analyze the behavior of the accumulation points. Since $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$ is countable, we can always choose this index for the countable dense subsets. This is done in [ADK08].

492 **Definition 4.6.** Given a Polish space X and a pointwise bounded family $\{f_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. We say that $\{f_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$ is *minimal* if and only if for every dyadic subtree $\{s_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$ of $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$, $\{f_{s_t} : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$ is equivalent to $\{f_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$.

493 One of the main results in [ADK08] is that there are (up to equivalence) seven minimal families of Rosenthal compacta and that for every relatively compact $\{f_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\} \subseteq B_1(X)$ there is a dyadic subtree $\{s_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$ such that $\{f_{s_t} : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$ is equivalent to one of the minimal families. We shall describe the minimal families next. We will follow the same notation as in [ADK08]. For any node $t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}$, we denote by $t^\frown 0^\infty$ ($t^\frown 1^\infty$) the infinite binary sequence starting with t and ending in 0's (1's). Fix a regular dyadic subtree $R = \{s_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$ of $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$ (i.e., a dyadic subtree such that every level of R is contained in a level of $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$) with the property that for all $s, s' \in R$, $s^\frown 0^\infty \neq s'^\frown 0^\infty$ and $s^\frown 1^\infty \neq s'^\frown 1^\infty$. Given $t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}$, let v_t be the characteristic function of the set $\{x \in 2^{\mathbb{N}} : x \text{ extends } t\}$. Let $<$ be the lexicographic order in $2^{\mathbb{N}}$. Given $a \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}$, let $f_a^+ : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be the characteristic function of $\{x \in 2^{\mathbb{N}} : a \leq x\}$ and let $f_a^- : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be the characteristic function of

518 $\{x \in 2^{\mathbb{N}} : a < x\}$. Given two maps $f, g : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ we denote by $(f, g) : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \sqcup 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 519 the function which is f on the first copy of $2^{\mathbb{N}}$ and g on the second copy of $2^{\mathbb{N}}$.

- 520 (1) $D_1 = \{\frac{1}{|t|+1}v_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is discrete in $\overline{D_1} = A(2^{\mathbb{N}})$.
- 521 (2) $D_2 = \{s_t^\frown 0^\infty : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is discrete in $\overline{D_2} = 2^{\leq\mathbb{N}}$.
- 522 (3) $D_3 = \{f_{s_t^\frown 0^\infty}^+ : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is a discrete in $\overline{D_3} = S(2^{\mathbb{N}})$.
- 523 (4) $D_4 = \{f_{s_t^\frown 1^\infty}^- : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is discrete in $\overline{D_4} = S(2^{\mathbb{N}})$.
- 524 (5) $D_5 = \{v_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is discrete in $\overline{D_5} = \hat{A}(2^{\mathbb{N}})$.
- 525 (6) $D_6 = \{(v_{s_t}, s_t^\frown 0^\infty) : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is discrete in $\overline{D_6} = \hat{D}(2^{\mathbb{N}})$.
- 526 (7) $D_7 = \{(v_{s_t}, x_{s_t^\frown 0^\infty}^+) : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is discrete in $\overline{D_7} = \hat{D}(S(2^{\mathbb{N}}))$

527 **Theorem 4.7** (Heptacotomy of minimal families, Theorem 2 in [ADK08]). *Let
 528 X be Polish. For every relatively compact $\{f_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\} \subseteq B_1(X)$, there exists $i =$
 529 $1, 2, \dots, 7$ and a regular dyadic subtree $\{s_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$ of $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$ such that $\{f_{s_t} : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$
 530 is equivalent to D_i . Moreover, all D_i are minimal and mutually non-equivalent.*

531 **4.2. NIP and definability by universally measurable functions.** We now
 532 turn to the question: what happens when \mathcal{P} is uncountable? Notice that the
 533 countability assumption is crucial in the proof of Theorem 3.9 essentially because it
 534 makes $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$ a Polish space. For the uncountable case, we may lose Baire-1 definability
 535 so we shall replace $B_1(X)$ by a bigger class. Recall that the purpose of studying the
 536 class of Baire-1 functions is that a pointwise limit of continuous functions is not
 537 necessarily continuous. In [BFT78], J. Bourgain, D.H. Fremlin and M. Talagrand
 538 characterized the Non-Independence Property of a set of continuous functions with
 539 various notions of compactness in function spaces containing $C(X)$, such as $B_1(X)$.
 540 In this section we will replace $B_1(X)$ with the larger space $M_r(X)$ of universally
 541 measurable functions. The development of this section is based on Theorem 2F in
 542 [BFT78]. We now give the relevant definitions. Readers with little familiarity with
 543 measure theory can review the appendix for standard definitions appearing in this
 544 subsection.

545 Given a Hausdorff space X and a measurable space (Y, Σ) , we say that $f : X \rightarrow Y$
 546 is *universally measurable* (with respect to Σ) if $f^{-1}(E)$ is universally measurable
 547 for every $E \in \Sigma$, i.e., $f^{-1}(E)$ is μ -measurable for every Radon probability measure
 548 μ on X . When $Y = \mathbb{R}$ we will always take $\Sigma = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, the Borel σ -algebra of \mathbb{R} .
 549 In that case, a function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is universally measurable if and only if $f^{-1}(U)$
 550 is μ -measurable for every Radon probability measure μ on X and every open set
 551 $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Following [BFT78], the collection of all universally measurable real-valued
 552 functions will be denoted by $M_r(X)$. In the context of deep computations, we will
 553 be interested in transition maps from a state space $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$ to itself. There are two
 554 natural σ -algebras one can consider in the product space $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$: the Borel σ -algebra,
 555 i.e., the σ -algebra generated by open sets in $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$; and the cylinder σ -algebra, i.e.,
 556 the σ -algebra generated by Borel cylinder sets or equivalently basic open sets in
 557 $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$. Note that when \mathcal{P} is countable, both σ -algebras coincide but in general the
 558 cylinder σ -algebra is strictly smaller. We will use the cylinder σ -algebra to define
 559 universally measurable maps $f : \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$. The reason for this choice is because of
 560 the following characterization:

561 **Lemma 4.8.** *Let X be a Hausdorff space and $Y = \prod_{i \in I} Y_i$ be any product of
 562 measurable spaces (Y_i, Σ_i) for $i \in I$. Let Σ_Y be the cylinder σ -algebra generated by
 563 the measurable spaces (Y_i, Σ_i) . Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$. The following are equivalent:*

- 564 (i) $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is universally measurable (with respect to Σ_Y).
 565 (ii) $\pi_i \circ f : X \rightarrow Y_i$ is universally measurable (with respect to Σ_i) for all $i \in I$.

566 *Proof.* (i) \Rightarrow (ii) is clear since the projection maps π_i are measurable and the com-
 567 position of measurable functions is measurable. To prove (ii) \Rightarrow (i), suppose that
 568 $C = \prod_{i \in I} C_i$ is a measurable cylinder and let J be the finite set of $i \in I$ such that
 569 $C_i \neq Y_i$. Then, $C = \bigcap_{i \in J} \pi_i^{-1}(C_i)$ so $f^{-1}(C) = \bigcap_{i \in J} (\pi_i \circ f)^{-1}(C_i)$ is a universally
 570 measurable set by assumption. \square

571 The previous lemma says that a transition map is universally measurable if and
 572 only if it is universally measurable on all its features. In other words, we can check
 573 measurability of a transition just by checking measurability in all its features. We
 574 will denote by $M_r(X, \mathbb{R}^P)$ the collection of all universally measurable functions
 575 $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^P$ (with respect to the cylinder σ -algebra), endowed with the topology of
 576 pointwise convergence.

577 **Definition 4.9.** Let (L, \mathcal{P}, Γ) be a CCS. We say that a transition $f : L \rightarrow L$ is
 578 *universally measurable shard-definable* if and only if there exists $\tilde{f} : \mathcal{L}_{sh} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{sh}$
 579 extending f such that for every sizer r_\bullet there is a sizer s_\bullet such that the restriction
 580 $\tilde{f}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} : \mathcal{L}[r_\bullet] \rightarrow \mathcal{L}[s_\bullet]$ is universally measurable, i.e. $\pi_P \circ \tilde{f}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} : \mathcal{L}[r_\bullet] \rightarrow [-s_P, s_P]$
 581 is μ -measurable for every Radon probability measure μ on $\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]$.

582 We will need the following result about NIP and universally measurable func-
 583 tions:

584 **Theorem 4.10** (Bourgain-Fremlin-Talagrand, Theorem 2F in [BFT78]). *Let X be a
 585 Hausdorff space and $A \subseteq C(X)$ be pointwise bounded. The following are equivalent:*

- 586 (i) $\overline{A} \subseteq M_r(X)$.
 587 (ii) For every compact $K \subseteq X$, $A|_K$ has the NIP.
 588 (iii) For every Radon measure μ on X , A is relatively countably compact in
 589 $\mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$, i.e., every countable subset of A has an accumulation point in
 590 $\mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$.

591 Theorem 3.5 immediately yields the following.

592 **Theorem 4.11.** *Let (L, \mathcal{P}, Γ) be a CCS satisfying the Extendibility Axiom. Let R
 593 be an exhaustive collection of sizers. Let $\Delta \subseteq \Gamma$ be R -confined. If $\pi_P \circ \Delta|_{L[r_\bullet]}$ has
 594 the NIP for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$ and all $r_\bullet \in R$, then every deep computation is universally
 595 measurable shard-definable.*

596 *Proof.* By the Extendibility Axiom, Theorem 3.5 and lemma 3.10 we have that
 597 $\pi_P \circ \tilde{\Delta}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} \subseteq M_r(\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet])$ for all $r_\bullet \in R$ and $P \in \mathcal{P}$. Let $f \in \overline{\Delta}$ be a deep computation.
 598 Write $f = \mathcal{U} \lim_i \gamma_i$ as an ultralimit of computations in Δ . Define $\tilde{f} := \mathcal{U} \lim_i \tilde{\gamma}_i$.
 599 Then, for all $r_\bullet \in R$ and $P \in \mathcal{P}$ $\pi_P \circ \tilde{\gamma}_i|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} \in M_r(\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet])$ for all i so $\pi_P \circ f|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} \in$
 600 $\pi_P \circ \tilde{\Delta}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} \subseteq M_r(\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet])$. \square

601 **Question 4.12.** Under the same assumptions of the previous Theorem, suppose
 602 that every deep computation of Δ is universally measurable shard-definable. Must
 603 $\pi_P \circ \Delta|_{L[r_\bullet]}$ have the NIP for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$ and all $r_\bullet \in R$?

604 **4.3. Talagrand stability and definability by universally measurable functions.** There is another notion closely related to NIP, introduced by Talagrand
 605 in [Tal84] while studying Pettis integration. Suppose that X is a compact Haus-
 606 dorff space and $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^X$. Let μ be a Radon probability measure on X . Given a
 607 μ -measurable set $E \subseteq X$, a positive integer k and real numbers $a < b$. we write:

$$D_k(A, E, a, b) = \bigcup_{f \in A} \{x \in E^{2k} : f(x_{2i}) \leq a, f(x_{2i+1}) \geq b \text{ for all } i < k\}$$

609 We say that A is *Talagrand μ -stable* if and only if for every μ -measurable
 610 set $E \subseteq X$ of positive measure and for every $a < b$ there is $k \geq 1$ such that
 611 $(\mu^{2k})^*(D_k(A, E, a, b)) < (\mu(E))^{2k}$. Notice that we work with the outer measure
 612 because it is not necessarily true that the sets $D_k(A, E, a, b)$ are μ -measurable.
 613 This is certainly the case when A is a countable set of continuous (or μ -measurable)
 614 functions.

615 The following lemma establishes that Talagrand stability is a way to ensure that
 616 deep computations are definable by measurable functions. We include the proof for
 617 the reader's convenience.

618 **Lemma 4.13.** *If A is Talagrand μ -stable, then \bar{A} is also Talagrand μ -stable and
 619 $\bar{A} \subseteq \mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$.*

620 *Proof.* First, observe that a subset of a μ -stable set is μ -stable. To show that \bar{A}
 621 is μ -stable, observe that $D_k(\bar{A}, E, a, b) \subseteq D_k(A, E, a', b')$ where $a < a' < b' <$
 622 b and E is a μ -measurable set with positive measure. It suffices to show that
 623 $\bar{A} \subseteq \mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$. Suppose that there exists $f \in \bar{A}$ such that $f \notin \mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$. By a
 624 characterization of measurable functions (see 413G in [Fre03]), there exists a μ -
 625 measurable set E of positive measure and $a < b$ such that $\mu^*(P) = \mu^*(Q) = \mu(E)$
 626 where $P = \{x \in E : f(x) \leq a\}$ and $Q = \{x \in E : f(x) \geq b\}$. Then, for any $k \geq 1$:
 627 $(P \times Q)^k \subseteq D_k(\{f\}, E, a, b)$ so $(\mu^{2k})^*(D_k(\{f\}, E, a, b)) = (\mu^*(P)\mu^*(Q))^k = (\mu(E))^{2k}$.
 628 Thus, $\{f\}$ is not μ -stable, but we argued before that a subset of a μ -stable set must
 629 be μ -stable. \square

630 We say that A is *universally Talagrand stable* if A is Talagrand μ -stable for
 631 every Radon probability measure μ on X . A similar argument as before, yields the
 632 following:

633 **Theorem 4.14.** *Let (L, \mathcal{P}, Γ) be a CCS satisfying the Extendibility Axiom. If
 634 $\pi_P \circ \Delta|_{L[r_\bullet]}$ is universally Talagrand stable for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$ and all sizers r_\bullet , then
 635 every deep computation is universally measurable sh-definable.*

636 It is then natural to ask: what is the relationship between Talagrand stability
 637 and the NIP? The following dichotomy will be useful.

638 **Lemma 4.15** (Fremlin's Dichotomy, 463K in [Fre03]). *If (X, Σ, μ) is a perfect σ -
 639 finite measure space (in particular, for X compact and μ a Radon probability measure
 640 on X) and $\{f_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be a sequence of real-valued measurable functions on X , then
 641 either:*

- 642 (i) $\{f_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ has a subsequence that converges μ -almost everywhere, or
- 643 (ii) $\{f_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ has a subsequence with no μ -measurable accumulation point in
 644 \mathbb{R}^X .

645 The preceding lemma can be considered as the measure theoretic version of
 646 Rosenthal's Dichotomy. Combining this dichotomy with the Theorem 4.10 we get
 647 the following result:

648 **Theorem 4.16.** *Let X be a Hausdorff space and $A \subseteq C(X)$ be pointwise bounded.
 649 The following are equivalent:*

- 650 (i) $\overline{A} \subseteq M_r(X)$.
- 651 (ii) For every compact $K \subseteq X$, $A|_K$ has the NIP.
- 652 (iii) For every Radon measure μ on X , A is relatively countably compact in
 653 $L^0(X, \mu)$, i.e., every countable subset of A has an accumulation point in
 654 $L^0(X, \mu)$.
- 655 (iv) For every Radon measure μ on X and every sequence $\{f_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \subseteq A$,
 656 there is a subsequence that converges μ -almost everywhere.

657 *Proof.* Notice that the equivalence (i)-(iii) is Theorem 4.10. Notice that the equivalence of (iii) and (iv) is Fremlin's Dichotomy Theorem. \square

659 **Lemma 4.17.** *Let X be a compact Hausdorff space and $A \subseteq C(X)$ be pointwise bounded. If A is universally Talagrand stable, then A has the NIP.*

661 *Proof.* By Theorem 4.10, it suffices to show that A is relatively countably compact
 662 in $L^0(X, \mu)$ for all Radon probability measure μ on X . Since A is Talagrand μ -stable
 663 for any such μ , then $\overline{A} \subseteq L^0(X, \mu)$. In particular, A is relatively countably compact
 664 in $L^0(X, \mu)$. \square

665 **Question 4.18.** Is the converse true?

666 There is a delicate point in this question, as it may be sensitive to set-theoretic
 667 axioms (even assuming countability of A).

668 **Theorem 4.19** (Talagrand, Theorem 9-3-1(a) in [Tal84]). *Let X be a compact
 669 Hausdorff space and $A \subseteq M_r(X)$ be countable and pointwise bounded. Assume that
 670 $[0, 1]$ is not the union of $< c$ closed measure zero sets. If A has the NIP, then A is
 671 universally Talagrand stable.*

672 **Theorem 4.20** (Fremlin, Shelah, [FS93]). *It is consistent that there exists a countable
 673 pointwise bounded set of Lebesgue measurable functions with the NIP which is
 674 not Talagrand stable with respect to Lebesgue measure.*

675 APPENDIX: MEASURE THEORY

676 Given a set X , a collection Σ of subsets of X is called a σ -algebra if Σ contains
 677 X and is closed under complements and countable unions. Hence, for example, a
 678 σ -algebra is also closed under countable intersections. Intuitively, a σ -algebra is
 679 a collection of sets in which we can define a σ -additive measure. We call sets in
 680 a σ -algebra Σ measurable sets and the pair (X, Σ) a measurable space. If X is a
 681 topological space, there is a natural σ -algebra of subsets of X , namely the Borel
 682 σ -algebra $\mathcal{B}(X)$, i.e., the smallest σ -algebra containing all open subsets of X . Given
 683 two measurable spaces (X, Σ_X) and (Y, Σ_Y) , we say that a function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is
 684 measurable if and only if $f^{-1}(E) \in \Sigma_X$ for every $E \in \Sigma_Y$. In particular, we say that
 685 $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is measurable if $f^{-1}(E) \in \Sigma_X$ for all $E \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ (equivalently, E open in
 686 \mathbb{R}).

Given a measurable space (X, Σ) , a σ -additive measure is a non-negative function $\mu : \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with the property that $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$ and $\mu(\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mu(A_n)$ whenever $\{A_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \subseteq \Sigma$ is pairwise disjoint. We call (X, Σ, μ) a *measure space*. A σ -additive measure is called a *probability measure* if $\mu(X) = 1$. A measure μ is *complete* if for every $A \subseteq B \in \Sigma$, $\mu(B) = 0$ implies $A \in \Sigma$. In words, subsets of measure-zero sets are always measurable (and hence, by the monotonicity of μ , have measure zero as well). A measure μ is σ -finite if $X = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n$ where $\mu(X_n) < \infty$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (i.e., X can be decomposed into countably many finite measure sets). A measure μ is *perfect* if for every measurable $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and every measurable set E with $\mu(E) > 0$, there exists a compact $K \subseteq f(E)$ such that $\mu(f^{-1}(K)) > 0$. We say that a property $\phi(x)$ about $x \in X$ holds μ -almost everywhere if $\mu(\{x \in X : \phi(x) \text{ does not hold}\}) = 0$.

A special example of the preceding concepts is that of a *Radon measure*. If X is a Hausdorff topological space, then a measure μ on the Borel sets of X is called a *Radon measure* if

- for every open set U , $\mu(U)$ is the supremum of $\mu(K)$ over all compact $K \subseteq U$, that is, the measure of open sets may be approximated via compact sets; and
- every point of X has a neighborhood $U \ni x$ for which $\mu(U)$ is finite.

Perhaps the most famous example of a Radon measure on \mathbb{R} is the Lebesgue measure of Borel sets. If X is finite, $\mu(A) := |A|$ (the cardinality of A) defines a Radon measure on X . Every Radon measure is perfect (see 451A, 451B and 451C in [Fre03]).

While not immediately obvious, sets can be measurable according to one measure, but non-measurable according to another. Given a measure space (X, Σ, μ) we say that a set $E \subseteq X$ is μ -measurable if there are $A, B \in \Sigma$ such that $A \subseteq E \subseteq B$ and $\mu(B \setminus A) = 0$. The set of all μ -measurable sets is a σ -algebra containing Σ and it is denoted by Σ_{μ} . A set $E \subseteq X$ is *universally measurable* if it is μ -measurable for every Radon probability measure on X . It follows that Borel sets are universally measurable. We say that $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is μ -measurable if $f^{-1}(E) \in \Sigma_{\mu}$ for all $E \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ (equivalently, E open in \mathbb{R}). The set of all μ -measurable functions is denoted by $\mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$.

Recall that if $\{X_i : i \in I\}$ is a collection of topological spaces indexed by some set I , then the product space $X := \prod_{i \in I} X_i$ is endowed with the topology generated by *cylinders*, that is, sets of the form $\prod_{i \in I} U_i$ where each U_i is open in X_i , and $U_i = X_i$ except for finitely many indices $i \in I$. If each space is measurable, say we pair X_i with a σ -algebra Σ_i , then there are multiple ways to interpret the product space X as a measurable space, but the interpretation we care about in this paper is the so called *cylinder σ -algebra*, as used in Lemma 4.8. Namely, let Σ be the σ -algebra generated by sets of the form

$$\prod_{i \in I} C_i, \quad C_i \in \Sigma_i, \quad C_i = X_i \text{ for all but finitely many } i \in I.$$

We remark that when I is uncountable and $\Sigma_i = \mathcal{B}(X_i)$ for all $i \in I$, then Σ is, in general, strictly **smaller** than $\mathcal{B}(X)$.

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