

COMPLEXITY OF DEEP COMPUTATIONS VIA TOPOLOGY OF FUNCTION SPACES

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ABSTRACT. We study complexity of deep computations. We use topology of function spaces, specifically, the classification Rosenthal compacta, to identify new complexity classes. We use the language of model theory, specifically, the concept of the independence from Shelah's classification theory, to translate between topology and computation.

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

³⁶ In a previous paper [ADIW24], we introduced the concept of limits of computations, which we called *ultracomputations* (given they arise as ultrafilter limits of

³⁸ standard computations) and *deep computations* (following usage in machine learning [BKK]). There is a technical difference between both designations, but in this
³⁹ paper, to simplify the nomenclature, we will ignore the difference and use only the
⁴⁰ term “deep computation”.

⁴¹ In [ADIW24], we proved a new “tame vs wild” (i.e., polynomial vs exponential)
⁴² dichotomy for complexity of deep computations by invoking a classical result of
⁴³ Grothendieck from late 50s [Gro52]. Under our model-theoretic Rosetta stone,
⁴⁴ polynomial approximability in the sense of computation becomes identified with the
⁴⁵ notion of continuous extendability in the sense of topology, and with the notions of
⁴⁶ *stability* and *type definability* in the sense of model theory.
⁴⁷

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 that they behave
⁶⁶ in 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 2.

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. GENERAL TOPOLOGICAL PRELIMINARIES

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

97 Recall that a subset of a topological space is F_σ if it is a countable union of
 98 closed sets, and G_δ if it is a countable intersection of closed sets. Note that in a
 99 metrizable space, every open set is F_σ ; equivalently, every closed set is G_δ .

100 A *Polish space* is a separable and completely metrizable topological space. The
 101 most important examples are the reals \mathbb{R} , the Cantor space $2^\mathbb{N}$ (the set of all infinite
 102 binary sequences, endowed with the product topology), and the Baire space $\mathbb{N}^\mathbb{N}$ (the
 103 set of all infinite sequences of naturals, also with the product topology). Countable
 104 products of Polish spaces are Polish; this includes spaces like $\mathbb{R}^\mathbb{N}$, the space of
 105 sequences of real numbers.

106 In this paper, we shall discuss subspaces, and so there is a pertinent subtlety of
 107 the definitions worth mentioning: *completely metrizable space* is not the same as
 108 *complete metric space*; for an illustrative example, the interval $(0, 1)$ with the metric
 109 inherited from the reals is not complete, but it is Polish since that is homeomorphic
 110 to the real line. Being Polish is a topological property.

111 The following result is a cornerstone of descriptive set theory, closely tied to the
 112 work of Wacław Sierpiński and Kazimierz Kuratowski, with proofs often built upon
 113 their foundations and formalized later, notably, involving Stefan Mazurkiewicz's
 114 work on complete metric spaces.

115 **Fact 2.1.** *A subset A of a Polish space X is itself Polish in the subspace topology
 116 if and only if it is a G_δ set. In particular, closed subsets and open subsets of Polish
 117 spaces are also Polish spaces.*

118 Given two topological spaces X and Y we denote by $C_p(X, Y)$ the set of all
 119 continuous functions $f : X \rightarrow Y$ endowed with the topology of pointwise convergence.
 120 When $Y = \mathbb{R}$, we denote this collection simply as $C_p(X)$. A natural question is, how
 121 do topological properties of X translate to $C_p(X)$ and vice versa? These questions,
 122 and in general the study of these spaces, are the concern of C_p -theory, an active
 123 field of research in general topology which was pioneered by A. V. Arhangel'skiĭ
 124 and his students in the 1970's and 1980's. This field has found many applications in
 125 model theory and functional analysis. Recent surveys on the topics include [HT23]
 126 and [Tka11].

127 A *Baire class 1* function between topological spaces is a function that can be
 128 expressed as the pointwise limit of a sequence of continuous functions. If X and Y
 129 are topological spaces, the Baire class 1 functions $f : X \rightarrow Y$ endowed with the
 130 topology of pointwise convergence is denoted $B_1(X, Y)$. As above, in the special
 131 case $Y = \mathbb{R}$ we denote $B_1(X, Y)$ as $B_1(X)$. Clearly, $C_p(X, Y) \subseteq B_1(X, Y)$. The Baire

132 hierarchy of functions was introduced by French mathematician René-Louis Baire
 133 in his 1899 doctoral thesis, *Sur les fonctions de variables réelles*. His work moved
 134 away from the 19th-century preoccupation with "pathological" functions toward a
 135 constructive classification based on pointwise limits.

136 A topological space X is *perfectly normal* if it is normal and every closed subset of
 137 X is a G_δ (equivalently, every open subset of X is a G_δ). Note that every metrizable
 138 space is perfectly normal.

139 The following fact was established by Baire in thesis. A proof can be found in
 140 Section 10 of [Tod97].

141 **Fact 2.2** (Baire). *If X is perfectly normal, then the following conditions are equiv-*
 142 *alent for a function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$:*

- 143 • f is a Baire class 1 function, that is, $f \in B_1(X)$.
- 144 • $f^{-1}[U]$ is an F_σ subset of X whenever $U \subseteq Y$ is open.
- 145 • f is a pointwise limit of continuous functions.
- 146 • For every closed $F \subseteq X$, the restriction $f|_F$ has a point of continuity.

147 Moreover, if X is Polish and $f \notin B_1(X)$, then there exists countable $D_0, D_1 \subseteq X$ and
 148 reals $a < b$ such that

$$D_0 \subseteq f^{-1}(-\infty, a], \quad D_1 \subseteq f^{-1}[b, \infty), \quad \overline{D_0} = \overline{D_1}.$$

149 A subset L of a topological space X is *relatively compact* in X if the closure of
 150 L in X is compact. Relatively compact subsets of $B_1(X)$ (for X Polish space) have
 151 been objects of interest for researchers in Analysis and Topological Dynamics. We
 152 begin with the following well-known result. Recall that a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^X$ of real-
 153 valued functions is *pointwise bounded* if for every $x \in X$ there is $M_x > 0$ such that
 154 $|f(x)| < M_x$ for all $f \in A$. We include a proof for the reader's convenience:

155 **Lemma 2.3.** *Let X be a Polish space and $A \subseteq B_1(X)$ be pointwise bounded. The*
 156 *following are equivalent:*

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

161 *Proof.* Since A is pointwise bounded, for each $x \in X$, fix $M_x > 0$ such that $|f(x)| \leq$
 162 M_x for every $f \in A$.

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

164 (ii) \Rightarrow (iii) Assume that A is relatively countably compact in $B_1(X)$ and that
 165 $f \in \overline{A} \setminus B_1(X)$. By Fact 2.2, there are countable $D_0, D_1 \subseteq X$ with $\overline{D_0} = \overline{D_1}$, and
 166 $a < b$ such that $D_0 \subseteq f^{-1}(-\infty, a]$ and $D_1 \subseteq f^{-1}[b, \infty)$. We claim that there is a
 167 sequence $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq A$ such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in D_0 \cup D_1$. Indeed,
 168 use the countability to enumerate $D_0 \cup D_1$ as $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$. Then for each positive n
 169 find $f_n \in A$ with $|f_n(x_i) - f(x_i)| < \frac{1}{n}$ for all $i \leq n$. The claim follows.

170 By relative countable compactness of A , there is an accumulation point $g \in$
 171 $B_1(X)$ of $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$. It is straightforward to show that since f and g agree on $D_0 \cup D_1$,
 172 g does not have a point of continuity on the closed set $\overline{D_0} = \overline{D_1}$, which contradicts
 173 Fact 2.2.

174 (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
 175 $\prod_{x \in X} [-M_x, M_x]$; Tychonoff's theorem states that the product of compact spaces

176 is always compact, and since closed subsets of compact spaces are compact, \overline{A} must
 177 be compact, as desired. \square

178 **2.1. From Rosenthal's dichotomy to Shelah's NIP.** The fundamental idea
 179 that connects the rich theory here presented to real-valued computations is the
 180 concept of an *approximation*. In the reals, points of closure from some subset
 181 can always be approximated by points inside the set, via a convergent sequence.
 182 For more complicated spaces, such as $C_p(X)$, this fails in remarkable ways. To
 183 see an example, consider the Cantor space $X = 2^{\mathbb{N}}$, and for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ define
 184 $p_n : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ by $p_n(x) = x(n)$ for each $x \in X$. Then p_n is continuous for each n ,
 185 but one can show (see Chapter 1.1 of [Tod97] for details) that the only continuous
 186 functions in the closure of $\{p_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are the functions p_n themselves; moreover, none
 187 of the subsequences of $\{p_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converge. In some sense, this example is the worst
 188 possible scenario for convergence. The topological space obtained from this closure
 189 is well-known: it is the *Stone-Čech compactification* of the discrete space of natural
 190 numbers, or $\beta\mathbb{N}$ for short, and it is an important object of study in general topology.

191 The following theorem, established by Haskell Rosenthal in 1974, is fundamental
 192 in functional analysis, and describes a sharp division in the behavior of sequences
 193 within a Banach space:

194 **Theorem 2.4** (Rosenthal's Dichotomy, [Ros74]). *If X is Polish and $\{f_n\} \subseteq C_p(X)$
 195 is pointwise bounded, then either $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ contains a convergent subsequence or a
 196 subsequence whose closure (in \mathbb{R}^X) is homeomorphic to $\beta\mathbb{N}$.*

197 In other words, a pointwise bounded set of continuous functions either contains
 198 a convergent subsequence, or a subsequence whose closure is essentially the same as
 199 the example mentioned in the previous paragraphs (the “wildest” possible scenario).
 200 Note that in the preceding example, the functions are trivially pointwise bounded
 201 in \mathbb{R}^X as the functions can only take values 0 and 1.

202 The genesis of Theorem 2.4 was Rosenthal’s ℓ_1 theorem, which states that the
 203 only reason why Banach space can fail to have an isomorphic copy of ℓ_1 (the space
 204 of absolutely summable sequences) is the presence of a bounded sequence with no
 205 weakly Cauchy subsequence. The theorem is famous for connecting diverse areas
 206 of mathematics: Banach space geometry, Ramsey theory, set theory, and topology
 207 of function spaces.

208 As we transition from $C_p(X)$ to the larger space $B_1(X)$, we find a similar di-
 209 chotomy. Either every point of closure of the set of functions will be a Baire class
 210 1 function, or there is a sequence inside the set that behaves in the wildest pos-
 211 sible way. The theorem is usually not phrased as a dichotomy but rather as an
 212 equivalence:

213 **Theorem 2.5** (The BFT Dichotomy. Bourgain-Fremlin-Talagrand, [BFT78, The-
 214 orem 4G]). *Let X be a Polish space and $A \subseteq C_p(X)$ be pointwise bounded. The
 215 following are equivalent:*

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

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

217 **Definition 2.6.** We shall say that a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^X$ has the *Independence Property*, or
 218 IP for short, if it satisfies the following condition: There exists every $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq A$

219 and $a < b$ such that for every pair of disjoint sets $E, F \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, we have

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

220 If A satisfies the negation of this condition, we will say that A *satisfies NIP*, or
221 that has the NIP.

Remark 2.7. 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

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

222 To summarize, the particular case of Theorem 2.8 when for X compact can be
223 stated in the following way:

224 **Theorem 2.8.** *Let X be a compact Polish space. Then, for every pointwise bounded
225 $A \subseteq C_p(X)$, one and exactly one of the following two conditions must hold:*

- 226 (i) $\overline{A} \subseteq B_1(X)$.
- 227 (ii) A has NIP.

228 The Independence Property was first isolated by Saharon Shelah in model theory
229 as a dividing line between theories whose models are “tame” (corresponding to
230 NIP) theories of models are “wild” (corresponding to IP). See [She71, Definition
231 4.1],[She90].

232 **2.2. NIP as universal polynomial vs exponential dividing line.** The par-
233 ticular case of the BSF Dichotomy (Theorem 2.8) when A consists of $\{0, 1\}$ -valued
234 (i.e., {Yes, No}-valued) strings was discovered independently, around 1971-1972 in
235 many foundational contexts related to polynomial (“tame”) vs exponential (“wild”)
236 complexity: In model theory, by Saharon Shelah [She71],[She90], in combinatorics,
237 by Norbert Sauer [Sau72], and Shelah [She72, She90], and in statistical learning,
238 by Vladimir Vapnik and Alexey Chervonenkis [VC71, VC74].

239 **In model theory:** Shelah’s classification theory is a foundational program
240 in mathematical logic devised to categorize first-order theories based on
241 the complexity and structure of their models. A theory T is considered
242 classifiable in Shelah’s sense if the number of non-isomorphic models of T
243 of a given cardinality can be described by a bounded number of numerical
244 invariants. In contrast, a theory T is unclassifiable if the number of models
245 of T of a given cardinality is the maximum possible number. This number
246 is directly impacted by the number of “types” over of parameters in models
247 of T ; a controlled number of types is a characteristic of a classifiable theory.

248 In Shelah’s classification program [She90], theories without the indepen-
249 dence property (called NIP theories, or dependent theories) have a well-
250 behaved, “tame” structure; the number of types over a set of parameters
251 of size κ of such a theory is of polynomially or similar “slow” growth on κ .
252 Theories with the Independence Property (called IP theories), in contrast,
253 are considered “intractable” or “wild”. A theory with the independence
254 property produces the maximum possible number of types over a set of
255 parameters; for a set of parameters of cardinality κ , the theory will have
256 2^{2^κ} -many distinct types.

257 **In combinatorics:** Sauer [Sau72] and Shelah [She72] proved the following:
 258 If $\mathcal{F} = \{S_0, S_1, \dots\}$ is a family of subsets of some infinite set S , then either
 259 for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there is a set $A \subseteq S$ with $|A| = n$ such that $|(S_i \cap A) : i \in \mathbb{N}| = 2^n$ (yielding exponential complexity), or there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such
 260 that $A \subseteq S$ with $|A| \geq N$, one has
 261

$$|\{S_i \cap A) : i \in \mathbb{N}\}| \leq \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \binom{|A|}{i} \approx O(|A|^N)$$

262 for every $A \subseteq S$ such that $|A| \geq N$ (yielding polynomial complexity). This
 263 answered a question of Erdős.

264 **In machine learning:** Readers familiar with statistical learning may rec-
 265 ognize the Sauer-Shelah lemma as the dichotomy discovered and proved
 266 slightly earlier (1971) by Vapknis and Chervonenkis [VC71, VC74] to ad-
 267 dress the problem of uniform convergence in statistics. The least integer
 268 N given by the preceding paragraph, when it exists, is called the *VC-*
 269 *dimension* of \mathcal{F} . This is a core concept in machine learning. If such an
 270 integer N does not exist, we say that the VC-dimension of \mathcal{F} is infinite. The
 271 lemma provides upper bounds on the number of data points (sample size m)
 272 needed to learn a concept class with VC dimension $d \in \mathbb{N}$ by showing this
 273 number grows polynomially with m and d (namely, $\sum_{i=0}^d \binom{m}{i} \approx O(m^d)$),
 274 not exponentially. The Fundamental Theorem of Statistical Learning states
 275 that a hypothesis class is PAC-learnable (PAC stands for “Probably Ap-
 276 proximately Correct”) if and only if its VC dimension is finite.

277 **2.3. Rosenthal compacta.** The comprehensiveness of Theorem 2.8, attested by
 278 the examples outlined in the preceding section, led to the following definition (in-
 279 troduced by Godefroy [God80]):

280 **Definition 2.9.** A Rosenthal compactum is a compact Hausdorff topological space
 281 K that can be topologically embedded as a compact subset into the space of all
 282 functions of the first Baire class on some Polish space X , equipped with the topology
 283 of pointwise convergence.

284 Rosenthal compacta are characterized by significant topological and dynamical
 285 tameness properties. They play a significant role in functional analysis, measure
 286 theory, dynamical systems, descriptive set theory, and model theory. In this
 287 paper, we introduce their applicability in deep computation. For this, we shall first
 288 focus on countable languages, which is the theme of the next section.

289 **2.4. The special case $B_1(X, \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})$ with \mathcal{P} countable.** Our goal now is to charac-
 290 terize relatively compact subsets of $B_1(X, Y)$ for the particular case when $Y = \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$
 291 with \mathcal{P} countable. Given $P \in \mathcal{P}$ we denote the projection map onto the P -coordinate
 292 by $\pi_P : \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. From a high-level topological interpretation, the subsequent
 293 lemma states that, in this context, the spaces \mathbb{R} and $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$ are really not that differ-
 294 ent, and that if we understand the Baire class 1 functions of one space, then we
 295 also understand the functions of both.

296 **Lemma 2.10.** Let X be a Polish space and \mathcal{P} be a countable set. Then, $f \in$
 297 $B_1(X, \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})$ 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} . Then,

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

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

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

Lemma 2.11. *Let X be a Polish space and \mathcal{P} be countable. Then, $f \in B_1(X, \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})$ if and only if $\hat{f} \in B_1(\mathcal{P} \times X)$.*

Proof. (\Rightarrow) By Lemma 2.10, given an open set of reals U , we have $f^{-1}[\pi_P^{-1}[U]]$ is F_σ for every $P \in \mathcal{P}$. 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 an F_σ as well.

(\Leftarrow) By lemma 2.10 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,

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

which is F_σ . \square

Given $A \subseteq Y^X$ and $K \subseteq X$ we write $A|_K := \{f|_K : f \in A\}$, i.e., the set of all restrictions of functions in A to K . The following Theorem is a slightly more general version of Theorem 2.8.

Theorem 2.12. *Assume that \mathcal{P} is countable, X is a Polish space, and $A \subseteq C_p(X, \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})$ is such that $\pi_P \circ A$ is pointwise bounded for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$. The following are equivalent for every compact $K \subseteq X$:*

- 315 (1) $\overline{A|_K} \subseteq B_1(K, \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})$.
- 316 (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 $\overline{A|_K} \subseteq B_1(K, \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}})$. Applying the homeomorphism $f \mapsto \hat{f}$ and using lemma 2.11 we get $\overline{\hat{A}|_{\mathcal{P} \times K}} \subseteq B_1(\mathcal{P} \times K)$. By Theorem 2.8, there is $I \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that

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

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

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

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

318 (2) \Rightarrow (1) Fix $f \in \overline{A|_K}$. By lemma 2.10 it suffices to show that $\pi_P \circ f \in B_1(K)$
319 for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$. By (2), $\pi_P \circ A|_K$ has the NIP. Hence, by Theorem 2.8 we have
320 $\pi_P \circ A|_K \subseteq B_1(K)$. But then $\pi_P \circ f \in \pi_P \circ \overline{A|_K} \subseteq B_1(K)$. \square

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

325 **Lemma 2.13.** *Assume that X is Hausdorff and that $A \subseteq C_p(X)$. The following
326 are equivalent for every $L \subseteq X$:*

- 327 (i) A_L has the NIP.
- 328 (ii) $A|_{\overline{L}}$ 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 $E, F \subseteq \mathbb{N}$:

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

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

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

By definition of closure:

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

329 This contradicts (i). \square

3. COMPOSITIONAL COMPUTATION STRUCTURES.

331 In this section, we connect function spaces with computation. We start by
332 summarizing some basic concepts from [ADIW24].

333 In [ADIW24], the authors introduced the following definition. A *computation*
334 *states structure* is a pair (L, \mathcal{P}) , where L is a set whose elements we call *states* and
335 \mathcal{P} is a collection of real-valued functions on L that we call *predicates*. Intuitively, L
336 is the set of states of a computation, and each state $v \in L$ is uniquely characterized
337 by the indexed family $(P(v))_{P \in \mathcal{P}}$. We call this indexed family the *type* of v . For
338 each $P \in \mathcal{P}$, we call real value $P(v)$ the P -th *feature* of v . A typical case will be
339 when $L = \mathbb{R}^\omega$ or $L = \mathbb{R}^n$ for some $n < \omega$ and there is a predicate $P_i(v) = v_i$ for
340 each of the coordinates v_i of v . We shall identify each state with its type.

341 **Definition 3.1.** A *Compositional Computation Structure* (CCS) is a triple (L, \mathcal{P}, Γ) ,
342 where

- 343 • if $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^\mathcal{P}$ is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^\mathcal{P}$, with the pointwise convergence topology,
344 and
- 345 • $\Gamma \subseteq L^L$ forms a semigroup under composition.

In the discrete model theory framework, one views the space of complete-types as a sort of compactification of the structure L . In this context, we don't want to consider only points in L (realized types) but in its closure \bar{L} (possibly unrealized types). The problem is that the closure \bar{L} is not necessarily compact, and in model theory, compactness of spaces of types is a powerful assumption of model-theoretic frameworks.. To bypass this obstacle, we follow the idea introduced in [ADIW24] of covering \bar{L} by “thin” compact subspaces that we call *shards*. We give the formal definition next.

Definition 3.2. A *sizer* is a tuple $r_\bullet = (r_p)_{p \in \mathcal{P}}$ of positive real numbers indexed by \mathcal{P} . Given a sizer r_\bullet , we define the r_\bullet -*shard* as:

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

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

For a sizer r_\bullet , 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-shards. Notice that \mathcal{L}_{sh} is not necessarily equal to $\mathcal{L} = \bar{L}$, unless \mathcal{P} is countable (see [ADIW24]). A *transition* is a map $f : L \rightarrow L$. In particular, every element in the semigroup Γ is a transition (these are called *realized computations*).

In practice, one would like to work with “definable” computations, i.e., ones that can be executed by a computer. In this topological framework, being continuous is an expected requirement. However, as in the case of complete-types in model theory, we will work with “unrealized computations”, i.e., maps $f : \mathcal{L}_{sh} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{sh}$. Note that continuity of a computation does not imply that it can be continuously extended to \mathcal{L}_{sh} .

Suppose that a transition map $f : L \rightarrow \mathcal{L}$ can be extended continuously to a map $\mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}$. Then, the Stone-Weierstrass theorem implies that the feature $\pi_P \circ f$ (here P is a fixed predicate, and the feature is hence continuous) can be uniformly approximated by polynomials on the compact set $\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]$. Theorem 2.2 in [ADIW24] formalizes the converse of this fact, in the sense that transitions maps that are not continuously extendable in this fashion cannot be obtained from simple constructions involving predicates. Under this framework, the features $\pi_P \circ f$ of such

391 transitions f are not approximable by polynomials, and so they are understood
 392 as “non-computable” since, again, we expect the operations computers carry out
 393 to be determined by elementary algebra corresponding to polynomials (namely
 394 addition and multiplication). Therefore it is crucial we assume some extendability
 395 conditions.

396 **Definition 3.3.** We say that a CCS (L, \mathcal{P}, Γ) satisfies the *Extendability Axiom* if
 397 for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$, there is $\tilde{\gamma} : \mathcal{L}_{sh} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{sh}$ such that for every sizer r_\bullet there is an s_\bullet such
 398 that $\tilde{\gamma}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} : \mathcal{L}[r_\bullet] \rightarrow \mathcal{L}[s_\bullet]$ is continuous.

399 For a deeper discussion about this axiom, we refer the reader to [ADIW24].

400 A collection R of sizers is called *exhaustive* if $\mathcal{L}_{sh} = \bigcup_{r_\bullet \in R} \mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]$. We say that
 401 $\Delta \subseteq \Gamma$ 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
 402 Δ are called *real-valued computations* (in this article we will refer to them simply as
 403 *computations*) and elements in $\tilde{\Delta} \subseteq \mathcal{L}_{sh}^L$ are called (real-valued) *deep computations*
 404 or *ultracomputations*. By $\tilde{\Delta}$ we denote the set of all extensions $\tilde{\gamma}$ for $\gamma \in \Delta$. For a
 405 more complete description of this framework, we refer the reader to [ADIW24].

406 4. CLASSIFYING DEEP COMPUTATIONS

407 **4.1. NIP and Baire-1 definability of deep computations.** Under what conditions
 408 are deep computations Baire class 1, and thus well-behaved according to our
 409 framework, on type-shards? The following Theorem says that, under the assumption
 410 that \mathcal{P} is countable, the space of deep computations is a Rosenthal compactum
 411 (when restricted to shards) if and only if the set of computations has the NIP,
 412 feature by feature. Hence, we can import the theory of Rosenthal compacta into
 413 this framework of deep computations.

414 **Theorem 4.1.** Let (L, \mathcal{P}, Γ) be a compositional computational structure (Definition 3.1)
 415 satisfying the Extendability Axiom (Definition ??) with \mathcal{P} countable. Let
 416 R be an exhaustive collection of sizers. Let $\Delta \subseteq \Gamma$ be R -confined. The following are
 417 equivalent.

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

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

419 Moreover, if any (hence all) of the preceding conditions hold, then every deep
 420 computation $f \in \overline{\tilde{\Delta}}$ can be extended to a Baire-1 function on shards, i.e., there is
 421 $\tilde{f} : \mathcal{L}_{sh} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{sh}$ 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
 422 each shard every deep computation is the pointwise limit of a countable sequence of
 423 computations.

424 *Proof.* Since \mathcal{P} is countable, $\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^\mathcal{P}$ is Polish. Also, the Extendability Axiom
 425 implies that $\pi_P \circ \tilde{\Delta}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]}$ is a pointwise bounded set of continuous functions for all
 426 $P \in \mathcal{P}$. Hence, Theorem 2.12 and Lemma 2.13 prove the equivalence of (1) and (2).
 427 If (1) holds and $f \in \overline{\tilde{\Delta}}$, then write $f = \text{Ulim}_i \gamma_i$ as an ultralimit. Define $\tilde{f} := \text{Ulim}_i \tilde{\gamma}_i$.
 428 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
 429 deep computation is a pointwise limit of a countable sequence of computations
 430 follows from the fact that for a Polish space X every compact subset of $B_1(X)$ is

431 Fréchet-Urysohn (that is, a space where topological closures coincide with sequential
 432 closures, see Theorem 3F in [BFT78] or Theorem 4.1 in [Deb13]). \square

433 **4.2. The Todorčević trichotomy and levels of PAC learnability.** Given a
 434 countable set Δ of computations satisfying the NIP on features and shards (con-
 435 dition (2) of Theorem 4.1) we have that $\tilde{\Delta}_{\mathcal{L}[\mathbf{r}_\bullet]}$ (for a fixed sizer \mathbf{r}_\bullet) is a separable
 436 Rosenthal compactum (compact subset of $B_1(P \times \mathcal{L}[\mathbf{r}_\bullet])$). The work of Todorčević
 437 ([Tod99]) and Argyros, Dodos, Kanellopoulos ([ADK08]) culminates in a trichotomy
 438 theorem for separable Rosenthal Compacta. In this section, inspired by the work
 439 of Glasner and Megrelishvili ([GM22]), we study ways in which this classification
 440 allows us obtain different levels of PAC-learnability (NIP).

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

446 **Definition 4.2.** Let (L, \mathcal{P}, Γ) be a CCS satisfying the Extendability Axiom and R
 447 be an exhaustive collection of sizers. Let $\Delta \subseteq \Gamma$ be an R -confined countable set of
 448 computations satisfying the NIP on shards and features (condition (2) in Theorem
 449 4.1). We say that Δ is:

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

453 Observe that $NIP_3 \Rightarrow NIP_2 \Rightarrow NIP_1 \Rightarrow NIP$. A natural question that would
 454 continue this work is to find examples of CCS that separate these levels of NIP. In
 455 [Tod99], Todorčević isolates three canonical examples of Rosenthal compacta that
 456 witness the failure of the converse implications above.

457 We now present some separable and non-separable examples of Rosenthal com-
 458 pacta:

459 **Examples 4.3.**

- 460 (1) *Alexandroff compactification of a discrete space of size continuum.* For each
 461 $a \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ consider the map $\delta_a : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $\delta_a(x) = 1$ if $x = a$ and
 462 $\delta_a(x) = 0$ otherwise. Let $A(2^{\mathbb{N}}) = \{\delta_a : a \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}\} \cup \{0\}$, where 0 is the zero
 463 map. Notice that $A(2^{\mathbb{N}})$ is a compact subset of $B_1(2^{\mathbb{N}})$, in fact $\{\delta_a : a \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}\}$
 464 is a discrete subspace of $B_1(2^{\mathbb{N}})$ and its pointwise closure is precisely $A(2^{\mathbb{N}})$.
 465 Hence, this is a Rosenthal compactum which is not first countable. Notice
 466 that this space is also not separable.
- 467 (2) *Extended Alexandroff compactification.* For each finite binary sequence $s \in$
 468 $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$, let $v_s : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by $v_s(x) = 1$ if x extends s and $v_s(x) =$
 469 0 otherwise. Let $\hat{A}(2^{\mathbb{N}})$ be the pointwise closure of $\{v_s : s \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$, i.e.,
 470 $\hat{A}(2^{\mathbb{N}}) = A(2^{\mathbb{N}}) \cup \{v_s : s \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. Note that this space is a separable
 471 Rosenthal compactum which is not first countable.
- 472 (3) *Split Cantor.* Let $<$ be the lexicographic order in the space of infinite
 473 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
 474 $f_a^-(x) = 1$ if $x < a$ and $f_a^-(x) = 0$ otherwise. Let $f_a^+ : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given
 475 by $f_a^+(x) = 1$ if $x \leq a$ and $f_a^+(x) = 0$ otherwise. The split Cantor is the

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 compactum. One example of a countable dense subset is the set of all f_a^+ and f_a^- where a is an infinite binary sequence that is eventually constant. 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:

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

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

Let $D(K) = \{g_a^0 : a \in K\} \cup \{g_a^1 : a \in K\}$. Notice that $D(K)$ is a first countable Rosenthal compactum. It is not separable if K is uncountable. 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

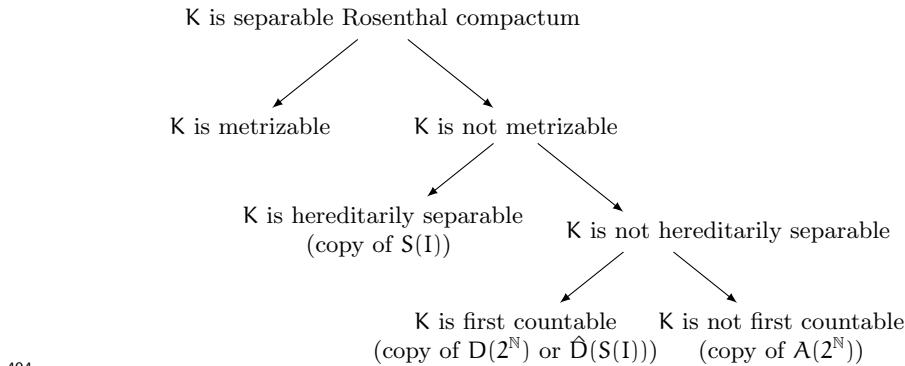
$$h_t(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < a_t \\ 1/2, & a_t \leq x \leq b_t \\ 1, & b_t < x \end{cases}$$

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

Theorem 4.4 (Todorčević's Trichotomy, [Tod99], Theorem 3 in [ADK08]). *Let K be a separable Rosenthal Compactum.*

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

We thus have the following classification:



495 The definitions provided here for NIP_i ($i = 1, 2, 3$) are topological. This raises
 496 the following question:

497 **Question 4.5.** Is there a non-topological characterization for NIP_i , $i = 1, 2, 3$?

498 **4.3. The Argyros-Dodos-Kanellopoulos heptachotomy, and approxima-
 499 bility of deep computation by minimal classes.** In the three separable three
 500 cases given in 4.3, namely, $(\hat{\mathcal{A}}(2^{\mathbb{N}}), S(2^{\mathbb{N}})$ and $\hat{D}(S(2^{\mathbb{N}}))$), the countable dense sub-
 501 sets are indexed by the binary tree $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$. This choice of index is useful for two
 502 reasons:

- 503 (1) Our emphasis is computational. Elements of $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$ represent finite bitstrings,
 504 i.e., standard computations, while Rosenthal compacta represent deep computa-
 505 tions, i.e., limits of finite computations. Mathematically, deep computa-
 506 tions are pointwise limits of standard computations; however, computa-
 507 tionally, we are interested in the manner (and the efficiency) in which the
 508 approximations can occur.
- 509 (2) The Ramsey theory of perfect subsets of the Cantor space $2^{\mathbb{N}}$ can be im-
 510 ported to analyze the behavior of the accumulation points. Since $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$ is
 511 countable, we can always choose this index for the countable dense subsets.
 512 This is done in [ADK08].

513 **Definition 4.6.** Let X be a Polish space.

- 514 (1) If I is a countable and $\{f_i : i \in I\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^X$, $\{g_i : i \in I\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^X$ are two pointwise
 515 families by I . We say that $\{f_i : i \in I\}$ and $\{g_i : i \in I\}$ are *equivalent* if and
 516 only if the map $f_i \mapsto g_i$ is extended to a homeomorphism from $\overline{\{f_i : i \in I\}}$
 517 to $\overline{\{g_i : i \in I\}}$.
- 518 (2) If $\{f_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$ is a pointwise bounded family, we say that $\{f_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$
 519 is *minimal* if and only if for every dyadic subtree $\{s_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$ of $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$,
 520 $\{f_{s_t} : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$ is equivalent to $\{f_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$.

521 One of the main results in [ADK08] is that, up to equivalence, there are seven
 522 minimal families of Rosenthal compacta and that for every relatively compact $\{f_t :
 523 t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\} \subseteq B_1(X)$ there is a dyadic subtree $\{s_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$ such that $\{f_{s_t} : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$
 524 is equivalent to one of the minimal families. We shall describe the minimal families
 525 next. We follow the same notation as in [ADK08]. For any node $t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}$, let us
 526 denote by $t^\frown 0^\infty$ ($t^\frown 1^\infty$) the infinite binary sequence starting with t and continuing
 527 with all 0's (respectively, all 1's). Fix a regular dyadic subtree $R = \{s_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$
 528 of $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$ (i.e., a dyadic subtree such that every level of R is contained in a level of
 529 $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$) with the property that for all $s, s' \in R$, $s^\frown 0^\infty \neq s'^\frown 0^\infty$ and $s^\frown 1^\infty \neq s'^\frown 1^\infty$.
 530 Given $t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}$, let v_t be the characteristic function of the set $\{x \in 2^{\mathbb{N}} : x \text{ extends } t\}$.
 531 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
 532 the characteristic function of $\{x \in 2^{\mathbb{N}} : a \leq x\}$ and let $f_a^- : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be the
 533 characteristic function of $\{x \in 2^{\mathbb{N}} : a < x\}$. Given two maps $f, g : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ we denote
 534 by $(f, g) : 2^{\mathbb{N}} \sqcup 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ the function which is f on the first copy of $2^{\mathbb{N}}$ and g on the
 535 second copy of $2^{\mathbb{N}}$.

- 536 (1) $D_1 = \{\frac{1}{|t|+1}v_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is discrete in $\overline{D_1} = \mathcal{A}(2^{\mathbb{N}})$.
- 537 (2) $D_2 = \{s_t^\frown 0^\infty : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is discrete in $\overline{D_2} = 2^{\leq\mathbb{N}}$.
- 538 (3) $D_3 = \{f_{s_t^\frown 0^\infty}^+ : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is a discrete in $\overline{D_3} = S(2^{\mathbb{N}})$.
- 539 (4) $D_4 = \{f_{s_t^\frown 1^\infty}^- : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is discrete in $\overline{D_4} = S(2^{\mathbb{N}})$.

- 540 (5) $D_5 = \{v_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is discrete in $\overline{D_5} = \hat{\mathcal{A}}(2^{\mathbb{N}})$.
 541 (6) $D_6 = \{(v_{s_t}, s_t^\frown 0^\infty) : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is discrete in $\overline{D_6} = \hat{\mathcal{D}}(2^{\mathbb{N}})$.
 542 (7) $D_7 = \{(v_{s_t}, x_{s_t^\frown 0^\infty}^+) : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$. This is discrete in $\overline{D_7} = \hat{\mathcal{D}}(\mathcal{S}(2^{\mathbb{N}}))$

543 **Theorem 4.7** (Heptacotomy of minimal families, Theorem 2 in [ADK08]). *Let*
 544 *X be Polish. For every relatively compact $\{f_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\} \subseteq B_1(X)$, there exists $i =$*
 545 *1, 2, ..., 7 and a regular dyadic subtree $\{s_t : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$ of $2^{<\mathbb{N}}$ such that $\{f_{s_t} : t \in 2^{<\mathbb{N}}\}$*
 546 *is equivalent to D_i . Moreover, all D_i are minimal and mutually non-equivalent.*

547 **4.4. NIP and Borel definability of deep computations.** We now turn to
 548 the question: what happens when \mathcal{P} is uncountable? Notice that the countability
 549 assumption is crucial in the proof of Theorem 2.12 essentially because it makes $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$
 550 a Polish space. For the uncountable case, we may lose Baire-1 definability so we
 551 shall replace $B_1(X)$ by a larger class. Recall that the *raison d'être* of the class of
 552 Baire-1 functions is to have a class that contains the continuous functions but is
 553 closed under pointwise limits. Recall from Fact 2.2 that for perfectly normal X , a
 554 function f is in $B_1(X, Y)$ if and only if $f^{-1}[U]$ is an F_σ subset of X for every open
 555 $U \subseteq Y$. This motivates the following definition:

556 **Definition 4.8.** Given a Hausdorff space X and a measurable space (Y, Σ) , we say
 557 that $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is *universally measurable* (with respect to Σ) if $f^{-1}(E)$ is universally
 558 measurable for every $E \in \Sigma$, i.e., $f^{-1}(E)$ is μ -measurable for every Radon probability
 559 measure μ on X . hen $Y = \mathbb{R}$ we will always take $\Sigma = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, the Borel σ -algebra of
 560 \mathbb{R} . In this case, a function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is universally measurable if and only if $f^{-1}(U)$
 561 is μ -measurable for every Radon probability measure μ on X and every open set
 562 $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

563 Intuitively, a function is universally measurable if it is “measurable no matter which reasonable way you try to measure things on its domain”. This concept
 564 emerged from work of Kallianpur and Sazonov in the late 1950's and 1960s, building
 565 on earlier ideas of Gnedenko and Kolmogorov from the 1950s, with later developments by Blackwell, Darst, and others. See [Pap02, Chapters 1 and 2].

566 Following [BFT78], the collection of all universally measurable real-valued functions will be denoted by $M_r(X)$. In the context of deep computations, we will be interested in transition maps from a state space $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$ to itself. There are two natural σ -algebras one can consider in the product space $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$: the Borel σ -algebra, i.e., the σ -algebra generated by open sets in $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$, and the cylinder σ -algebra, i.e., the σ -algebra generated by the sub-basic open sets in $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$. Note that when \mathcal{P} is countable, both σ -algebras coincide but in general the cylinder σ -algebra is strictly smaller. We will use the cylinder σ -algebra to define universally measurable maps $f : \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$. The reason for this choice is the following characterization:

577 **Lemma 4.9.** *Let X be a Hausdorff space and $Y = \prod_{i \in I} Y_i$ be any product of
 578 measurable spaces (Y_i, Σ_i) for $i \in I$. Let Σ_Y be the cylinder σ -algebra generated by
 579 the measurable spaces (Y_i, Σ_i) . Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$. The following are equivalent:*

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

582 *Proof.* (i) \Rightarrow (ii) is clear since the projection maps π_i are measurable and the composition of measurable functions is measurable. To prove (ii) \Rightarrow (i), suppose that
 583 $C = \prod_{i \in I} C_i$ is a measurable cylinder and let J be the finite set of $i \in I$ such that

585 $C_i \neq Y_i$. 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
586 measurable set by assumption. \square

587 The previous lemma says that a transition map is universally measurable if and
588 only if it is universally measurable on all its features. In other words, we can check
589 measurability of a transition just by checking measurability feature by feature. We
590 will denote by $M_r(X, \mathbb{R}^P)$ the collection of all universally measurable functions
591 $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^P$ (with respect to the cylinder σ -algebra), endowed with the topology of
592 pointwise convergence.

593 **Definition 4.10.** Let (L, P, Γ) be a CCS. We say that a transition $f : L \rightarrow L$ is
594 *universally measurable shard-definable* if and only if there exists $\tilde{f} : \mathcal{L}_{sh} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{sh}$
595 extending f such that for every sizer r_\bullet there is a sizer s_\bullet such that the restriction
596 $\tilde{f}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} : \mathcal{L}[r_\bullet] \rightarrow \mathcal{L}[s_\bullet]$ is universally measurable, i.e., $\pi_P \circ \tilde{f}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} : \mathcal{L}[r_\bullet] \rightarrow [-s_P, s_P]$
597 is μ -measurable for every Radon probability measure μ on $\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]$.

598 We will need the following result about NIP and universally measurable functions:
599

600 **Theorem 4.11** (Bourgain-Fremlin-Talagrand, Theorem 2F in [BFT78]). *Let X be a
601 Hausdorff space and $A \subseteq C(X)$ be pointwise bounded. The following are equivalent:*

- 602 (i) $\overline{A} \subseteq M_r(X)$.
- 603 (ii) *For every compact $K \subseteq X$, $A|_K$ has the NIP.*
- 604 (iii) *For every Radon measure μ on X , A is relatively countably compact in
605 $\mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$, i.e., every countable subset of A has an accumulation point in
606 $\mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$.*

607 Theorem 2.8 immediately yields the following.

608 **Theorem 4.12.** *Let (L, P, Γ) be a CCS satisfying the Extendability Axiom. Let R
609 be an exhaustive collection of sizers. Let $\Delta \subseteq \Gamma$ be R -confined. If $\pi_P \circ \Delta|_{L[r_\bullet]}$ has
610 the NIP for all $P \in P$ and all $r_\bullet \in R$, then every deep computation is universally
611 measurable shard-definable.*

612 *Proof.* By the Extendability Axiom, Theorem 2.8 and lemma 2.13 we have that
613 $\pi_P \circ \tilde{\Delta}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} \subseteq M_r(\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet])$ for all $r_\bullet \in R$ and $P \in P$. Let $f \in \overline{\Delta}$ be a deep computation.
614 Write $f = \mathcal{U} \lim_i \gamma_i$ as an ultralimit of computations in Δ . Define $\tilde{f} := \mathcal{U} \lim_i \tilde{\gamma}_i$.
615 Then, for all $r_\bullet \in R$ and $P \in P$ $\pi_P \circ \tilde{\gamma}_i|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} \in M_r(\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet])$ for all i , so $\pi_P \circ f|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} \in$
616 $\pi_P \circ \tilde{\Delta}|_{\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet]} \subseteq M_r(\mathcal{L}[r_\bullet])$. \square

617 **Question 4.13.** Under the same assumptions of the previous Theorem, suppose
618 that every deep computation of Δ is universally measurable shard-definable. Must
619 $\pi_P \circ \Delta|_{L[r_\bullet]}$ have the NIP for all $P \in P$ and all $r_\bullet \in R$?

620 **4.5. Talagrand stability, NIP, and definability of deep computations.** There
621 is another notion closely related to NIP, introduced by Talagrand in [Tal84] while
622 studying Pettis integration. Suppose that X is a compact Hausdorff space and
623 $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^X$. Let μ be a Radon probability measure on X . Given a μ -measurable set
624 $E \subseteq X$, a positive integer k and real numbers $a < b$. we write:

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

625 We say that A is *Talagrand μ -stable* if and only if for every μ -measurable
 626 set $E \subseteq X$ of positive measure and for every $a < b$ there is $k \geq 1$ such that
 627 $(\mu^{2k})^*(D_k(A, E, a, b)) < (\mu(E))^{2k}$. Notice that we work with the outer measure
 628 μ^* because it is not necessarily true that the sets $D_k(A, E, a, b)$ are μ -measurable.
 629 This is certainly the case when A is a countable set of continuous (or μ -measurable)
 630 functions.

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

634 **Lemma 4.14.** *If A is Talagrand μ -stable, then \bar{A} is also Talagrand μ -stable and
 635 $\bar{A} \subseteq \mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$.*

636 *Proof.* First, observe that a subset of a μ -stable set is μ -stable. To show that \bar{A}
 637 is μ -stable, observe that $D_k(\bar{A}, E, a, b) \subseteq D_k(A, E, a', b')$ where $a < a' < b' <$
 638 b and E is a μ -measurable set with positive measure. It suffices to show that
 639 $\bar{A} \subseteq \mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$. Suppose that there exists $f \in \bar{A}$ such that $f \notin \mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$. By a
 640 characterization of measurable functions (see 413G in [Fre03]), there exists a μ -
 641 measurable set E of positive measure and $a < b$ such that $\mu^*(P) = \mu^*(Q) = \mu(E)$
 642 where $P = \{x \in E : f(x) \leq a\}$ and $Q = \{x \in E : f(x) \geq b\}$. Then, for any $k \geq 1$:
 643 $(P \times Q)^k \subseteq D_k(\{f\}, E, a, b)$ so $(\mu^{2k})^*(D_k(\{f\}, E, a, b)) = (\mu^*(P)\mu^*(Q))^k = (\mu(E))^{2k}$.
 644 Thus, $\{f\}$ is not μ -stable, but we argued before that a subset of a μ -stable set must
 645 be μ -stable. \square

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

649 **Theorem 4.15.** *Let (L, \mathcal{P}, Γ) be a CCS satisfying the Extendability Axiom. If
 650 $\pi_P \circ \Delta|_{L[r_\bullet]}$ is universally Talagrand stable for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$ and all sizers r_\bullet , then
 651 every deep computation is universally measurable sh-definable.*

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

654 **Lemma 4.16** (Fremlin's Dichotomy, 463K in [Fre03]). *If (X, Σ, μ) is a perfect σ -
 655 finite measure space (in particular, for X compact and μ a Radon probability measure
 656 on X) and $\{f_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be a sequence of real-valued measurable functions on X , then
 657 either:*

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

661 The preceding lemma can be considered as the measure theoretic version of
 662 Rosenthal's Dichotomy. Combining this dichotomy with the Theorem 4.11 we get
 663 the following result:

664 **Theorem 4.17.** *Let X be a Hausdorff space and $A \subseteq C(X)$ be pointwise bounded.
 665 The following are equivalent:*

- 666 (i) $\bar{A} \subseteq M_r(X)$.
- 667 (ii) *For every compact $K \subseteq X$, $A|_K$ has the NIP.*

- 668 (iii) *For every Radon measure μ on X , A is relatively countably compact in*
 669 *$\mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$, i.e., every countable subset of A has an accumulation point in*
 670 *$\mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$.*
- 671 (iv) *For every Radon measure μ on X and every sequence $\{f_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \subseteq A$,*
 672 *there is a subsequence that converges μ -almost everywhere.*

673 *Proof.* Notice that the equivalence (i)-(iii) is Theorem 4.11. Notice that the equivalence of (iii) and (iv) is Fremlin's Dichotomy Theorem. \square

675 **Lemma 4.18.** *Let X be a compact Hausdorff space and $A \subseteq C(X)$ be pointwise*
 676 *bounded. If A is universally Talagrand stable, then A has the NIP.*

677 *Proof.* By Theorem 4.11, it suffices to show that A is relatively countably compact
 678 in $\mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$ for all Radon probability measure μ on X . Since A is Talagrand μ -stable
 679 for any such μ , then $\bar{A} \subseteq \mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$. In particular, A is relatively countably compact
 680 in $\mathcal{L}^0(X, \mu)$. \square

681 **Question 4.19.** Is the converse true?

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

684 **Theorem 4.20** (Talagrand, Theorem 9-3-1(a) in [Tal84]). *Let X be a compact*
 685 *Hausdorff space and $A \subseteq M_r(X)$ be countable and pointwise bounded. Assume that*
 686 *$[0, 1]$ is not the union of $< \mathfrak{c}$ closed measure zero sets. If A has the NIP, then A is*
 687 *universally Talagrand stable.*

688 **Theorem 4.21** (Fremlin, Shelah, [FS93]). *It is consistent that there exists a countable*
 689 *pointwise bounded set of Lebesgue measurable functions with the NIP which is*
 690 *not Talagrand stable with respect to Lebesgue measure.*

691 APPENDIX: MEASURE THEORY

692 Given a set X , a collection Σ of subsets of X is called a σ -*algebra* if Σ contains
 693 X and is closed under complements and countable unions. Hence, for example, a
 694 σ -algebra is also closed under countable intersections. Intuitively, a σ -algebra is
 695 a collection of sets in which we can define a σ -additive measure. We call sets in
 696 a σ -algebra Σ *measurable sets* and the pair (X, Σ) a measurable space. If X is a
 697 topological space, there is a natural σ -algebra of subsets of X , namely the *Borel*
 698 σ -*algebra* $\mathcal{B}(X)$, i.e., the smallest σ -algebra containing all open subsets of X . Given
 699 two measurable spaces (X, Σ_X) and (Y, Σ_Y) , we say that a function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is
 700 *measurable* if and only if $f^{-1}(E) \in \Sigma_X$ for every $E \in \Sigma_Y$. In particular, we say that
 701 $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is measurable if $f^{-1}(E) \in \Sigma_X$ for all $E \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ (equivalently, E open in
 702 \mathbb{R}).

703 Given a measurable space (X, Σ) , a σ -*additive measure* is a non-negative function
 704 $\mu : \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with the property that $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$ and $\mu(\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mu(A_n)$
 705 whenever $\{A_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \subseteq \Sigma$ is pairwise disjoint. We call (X, Σ, μ) a *measure space*.
 706 A σ -additive measure is called a *probability measure* if $\mu(X) = 1$. A measure μ
 707 is *complete* if for every $A \subseteq B \in \Sigma$, $\mu(B) = 0$ implies $A \in \Sigma$. In words, subsets
 708 of measure-zero sets are always measurable (and hence, by the monotonicity of
 709 μ , have measure zero as well). A measure μ is σ -*finite* if $X = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n$ where
 710 $\mu(X_n) < \infty$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (i.e., X can be decomposed into countably many finite
 711 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.

The most famous nontrivial 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 4.9. 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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