# Generalized Identifiability Bounds for Mixture Models with Grouped Samples 

Robert A. Vandermeulen and René Saitenmacher


#### Abstract

Recent work has shown that finite mixture models with $m$ components are identifiable, while making no assumptions on the mixture components, so long as one has access to groups of samples of size $2 m-1$ which are known to come from the same mixture component. In this work we generalize that result and show that, if every subset of $k$ mixture components of a mixture model are linearly independent, then that mixture model is identifiable with only $(2 m-1) /(k-1)$ samples per group. We further show that this value cannot be improved. We prove an analogous result for a stronger form of identifiability known as "determinedness" along with a corresponding lower bound. This independence assumption almost surely holds if mixture components are chosen randomly from a $k$-dimensional space. We describe some implications of our results for multinomial mixture models and topic modeling.


Index Terms-Nonparametric statistics, identifiability, nonparametric mixture models, tensor factorization, topic modeling, multinomial mixture model.

## I. Introduction

FINITE mixture models have seen extensive use in statistics and machine learning. In a finite mixture model one assumes that samples are drawn according to a two-step process. First an unobserved mixture component, $\mu$, is randomly selected according to a probability measure over probability measures $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ ( $\delta$ is the Dirac measure). Next an observed sample $X$ is drawn from $\mu, X \sim \mu$. A central question in mixture modeling theory is that of identifiability [60]: whether $\mathcal{P}$ is uniquely determined from the distribution of $X$. From the law of total probability it follows that $X$ is distributed according to $\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \mu_{i}$. Excepting trivial cases, a mixture model is not identifiable unless one makes additional assumptions about the mixture components. A standard assumption is that the mixture components $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ are elements of some parametric class of densities. A common choice for this class is the set of multivariate Gaussian distributions, which yields the well-known and frequently-used Gaussian mixture model. This model is indeed known to be identifiable [4], [14], [69]. A natural question to ask is whether it is possible for a mixture model to be identifiable without such parametric assumptions.

[^0]In [65] the authors consider an alternative setting for mixture modeling where no assumptions are made on the mixture components $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ and, instead of having access to a collection of samples where each sample is drawn from an unobserved mixture component $\mu \sim \mathcal{P}$, one has access to a collection of groups of $n$ samples, where each group has the form $\mathbf{X}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ with each $X_{i}$ known to be independently sampled from $\mu$, i.e. $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n} \stackrel{i i d}{\sim} \mu$. In [65] the authors develop several fundamental bounds relating the identifiability of $\mathcal{P}$ to the number of samples per group $n$ and the number of mixture components $m$. These bounds consider extremal cases where there are either no assumptions on the mixture components or they are assumed to be linearly independent. If the mixture components are assumed to lie in a finite dimensional space, such as when the sample space is finite (a multinomial mixture model), then it is reasonable to assume that the collection of all mixture components is linearly dependent, however sufficiently small subsets of the mixture components are linearly independent.

In this paper we prove two fundamental bounds relating the identifiability of $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ to the number of mixture components $m$, the number of samples per group $n$, and a value $k$ which describes the degree of linear independence of the mixture components. We show that if every subset of $k$ measures in $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ are linearly independent, then $\mathcal{P}$ is the simplest mixture, in terms of the number of mixture components, yielding the distribution on $\mathbf{X}$ if $2 m-1 \leq(k-1) n$. If $n$ is even-valued and $2 m-2 \leq(k-1)(n-1)$ then $\mathcal{P}$ is the only mixture, with any number of components, yielding the distribution on $\mathbf{X}$. We furthermore show that the first bound is tight and that the second bound is nearly tight. Most of the bounds in [65] are special cases of the bounds presented in this paper. Our bounds also generalize a classical result on the identifiability of mixture models where all mixture components are linearly independent [69]. We also show that this linear independence assumption occurs naturally, similarly to results in [37], and describe some practical implications of our results.

## II. BACKGROUND

We introduce the mathematical setting used in the rest of the paper before reviewing existing results.

## A. Problem Setting

The setting described here is drawn from [65] and is highly general, assuming no regularity conditions on the mixture components. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ be a measurable space, with $\mathcal{F}$ being its $\sigma$-algebra, and let $\mathcal{D}$ be the space of probability measures
on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$. Note that $\mathcal{D}$ is contained in the vector space of finite signed measures on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$, a fact which we will use often. For an element $\gamma$, let $\delta_{\gamma}$ denote the Dirac measure at $\gamma$. We equip $\mathcal{D}$ with the power $\sigma$-algebra, as we will be interested in measures of the form $\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ with $\mu_{i} \in \mathcal{D}$. We call a measure $\mathcal{P}$ on $\mathcal{D}$ a mixture of measures if it is a probability measure on $\mathcal{D}$ of the form $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ with $a_{i}>0$, $\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i}=1$, and $m<\infty$. We will always assume that the representation of a mixture of measures has minimal $m$, i.e. there are no repeated $\mu_{i}$ in the summands. For a full technical treatment of the concept of minimal representation see [65]. We refer to the measures $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ as mixture components. We now introduce the model we wish to investigate in this paper which is termed the grouped sample setting in [65]. If we let $\mu \sim \mathcal{P}$ and $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n} \stackrel{i i d}{\sim} \mu$ then the probability distribution for $\mathbf{X}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ is $\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \mu_{i}^{\times n}$. With this in mind we introduce the following operator ${ }^{1}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{n}(\mathcal{P}) \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \mu_{i}^{\times n} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

To give some concreteness to this setting it can be helpful to consider the application of topic modeling with a finite number of topics. Here $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ are topics, which are simply distributions over words. The measure $\mathcal{P}$ designates a topic $\mu_{i}$ being chosen with probability $a_{i}$. The group of samples $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ represent a document containing $n$ words as a bag of words. A collection of documents $\mathbf{X}_{1}, \mathbf{X}_{2}, \ldots$ are then iid samples of $V_{n}(\mathcal{P})$ where $\mathbf{X}_{i}=\left(X_{i, 1}, \ldots, X_{i, n}\right)$. In this setting we are interested in the number of words necessary per document to recover the true topic model $\mathcal{P}$.

We will be investigating two forms of identifiability, $n$ identifiability where $\mathcal{P}$ is the simplest mixture of measures, in terms of the number of mixture components, yielding the distribution on $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$, and $n$-determinedness where $\mathcal{P}$ is the only mixture of measures yielding the distribution on $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$. We finish this section with the following two definitions which capture these two notions of identifiability.

Definition 2.1: A mixture of measures $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ is $n$-identifiable if there exists no mixture of measures $\mathcal{P}^{\prime} \neq \mathcal{P}$ with $m$ or fewer components such that $V_{n}\left(\mathcal{P}^{\prime}\right)=V_{n}(\mathcal{P})$.

Definition 2.2: A mixture of measures $\mathcal{P}$ is $n$-determined if there exists no mixture of measures $\mathcal{P}^{\prime} \neq \mathcal{P}$ such that $V_{n}\left(\mathcal{P}^{\prime}\right)=V_{n}(\mathcal{P})$.

## B. Previous Results

Here we recall several results from [65]. In that paper the authors prove five bounds relating identifiability or determinedness to the geometry of the mixture components, the number of mixture components $m$, and the number of samples per group $n$. For brevity we have summarized these bounds in Table I. [65] showed that none of these bounds are improvable by proving matching lower bounds. For clarity we include an example of a precise statement of an entry in this table.

[^1]Theorem 2.1 (Table I Row Four or [65] Theorem 4.6): Let $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ be a mixture of measures where $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ are linearly independent. Then $\mathcal{P}$ is 4 -determined.

The last row of Table I contains a property known as joint irreducibility which was introduced in [11]. A collection of probability measures $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ is jointly irreducible when all probability measures in the linear span of $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ lie in the convex hull of $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$, i.e. $\operatorname{span}\left(\left\{\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}\right\}\right) \cap \mathcal{D}=$ conv $\left(\left\{\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}\right\}\right)$. We do not use joint irreducibility anywhere else in this paper, however we note that it is a property that is stronger than linear independence.
For completeness we also include the following lemmas from [65] that demonstrate the unsurprising fact that $k$ identifiability and $k$-determinedness are, in some sense, monotonic. Each lemma encapsulates two statements, one concerning identifiability and one concerning determinedness, which we have combined for brevity.

Lemma 2.1: If a mixture of measures is $n$-identifiable (determined) then it is $q$-identifiable (determined) for all $q>n$.

Lemma 2.2: If a mixture of measures is not $n$-identifiable (determined) then it is not $q$-identifiable (determined) for any $q<n$.
Finally [65] Lemma 7.1 showed that if the sample space $\Omega$ is finite, the grouped sample setting is equivalent to a multinomial mixture model where $n$ is the number of trials and $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ are the categorical distributions for each component. One may consider the grouped sample setting to be a generalized version of multinomial mixture models.

## III. Related Work

The findings of this work reside at the convergence of several distinct subjects. In this section, we explore relevant studies and contributions from these intersecting fields. Further discussion of related works in the field of discrete data clustering is included in Section V.

## A. Grouped Sample Setting

A significant amount of work regarding the grouped sample setting has focused on the setting where $\Omega$ is finite, which is equivalent to a multinomial mixture model. Some of the earliest work on identifiability was done on binomial mixture models with [60] demonstrating that binomial mixture models are identifiable if the number of trials $n$ and the number of mixture components $m$ satisfy $n \geq 2 m-1$. These results were extended to multinomial mixture models in [38] and [23]. [50] and [65] introduced estimators for the multinomial

TABLE I
SUMMARY OF IDENTIFIABILITY RESULTS FROM [65]. $m$ DESIGNATES THE NUMBER OF MIXTURE COMPONENTS AND $n$ THE NUMBER OF SAMPLES PER GROUP.

| Component assumption | $n$ bound | $n$-ident./det. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| none | $n \geq 2 m-1$ | identifiable |
| none | $n \geq 2 m$ | determined |
| linearly independent | $n \geq 3$ | identifiable |
| linearly independent | $n \geq 4$ | determined |
| jointly irreducible | $n \geq 2$ | determined |

components when the $n \geq 2 m-1$ bound is met. Turning to the continuous setting, the paper [53] introduces a method for recovering mixture components in the grouped sample setting when the components are densities on some Euclidean space. That method is furthermore guaranteed to asymptotically recover the components whenever the mixture of measures is identifiable. In [68] the authors consider the grouped sample setting where the mixture components come from some parametric class of densities and provide results for identifiability and rates of convergence.

The grouped sample setting can be considered as a special case of a finite exchangeable sequence [35]. An (infinite) sequence of random variables $\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}, \ldots$ is called exchangeable if

$$
\left(\xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{m}\right) \stackrel{d}{=}\left(\xi_{k_{1}}, \ldots, \xi_{k_{m}}\right)
$$

for every distinct subsequence $\xi_{k_{1}}, \ldots, \xi_{k_{m}}$. For an infinite sequence de Finetti's Theorem tells us that (for Borel spaces) one can always decompose the distribution of the sequence to be independent, conditioned on some other random variable in a way akin to (1), though this random variable is not necessarily discrete as in (1) [34]. This theorem does not extend to finite sequences, but there exist works investigating the grouped sample setting for continuous mixtures. One such work is [67], where the authors present rates for estimating a continuous version of $\mathcal{P}$ in the context of binomial mixture models.

## B. Nonparametric Mixture Modeling

Other works have investigated nonparametric mixture models without assuming the grouped sample setting. Unlike the grouped sample setting, these methods must make assumptions on the mixture components to guarantee identifiability. One approach to nonparametric mixture modeling is to assume a clustering structure where mixture components are assumed to correspond to modes or concentrated regions of the probability density function (pdf) [5], [6], [18], [59], [66]. Some of these methods have identifiability guarantees so long as the true mixture components are sufficiently concentrated and separated.
Unsurprisingly, there has been significant investigation into mixture models using neural networks. The basic approach to this assumes data is generated by sampling an unobserved latent variable from a mixture model, $Z_{i} \stackrel{i i d}{\sim} \sum_{j=1}^{m} a_{j} \mu_{j}$, and the observed data comes from passing the latent variable through a neural network $X_{i}=f_{\theta}\left(Z_{i}\right)$. A common approach to this uses a variational autoencoder with mixture priors [20], [25], [30], [31], [61], usually a Gaussian mixture model. In such a situation one is interested in estimating $\theta$ and the mixture parameters of the latent distribution jointly. Clearly there are some issues with identifiability when fitting $f_{\theta}$ and the mixture components jointly. For example, if $f_{\theta}$ is linear and $Z$ is distributed according to a Gaussian mixture model, then adjusting the mixture parameters to compensate for the linear transform can effectively fit the data. This means that one could simply fix any value of $\theta$, knowing that the same effect could be achieved by choosing corresponding mixture parameters. Remarkably it has recently been shown that, if
$f_{\theta}$ is a leaky ReLU network and the latent distribution is a Gaussian mixture model, one has identifiability of the mixture components up to a certain class of transformations [39].

Another approach to nonparametric mixture modeling, which avoids the need for strong separation and concentration assumptions, factors a pdf into a density with rank-one components [56]. This can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
p\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} \prod_{j=1}^{d} w_{i} p_{i, j}\left(x_{j}\right) . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This method has its origins in analyses of discrete distributions [3], where it can be applied for clustering discrete data.
Notably, it has been observed that the structure in (2) can be used to improve nonparametric density estimation [2], [36], [56], [57], with [62]-[64] theoretically showing that this assumption eliminates the nonparametric curse of dimensionality. These methods are identifiable under specific linear independence assumptions on the collection of component marginal distributions $p_{i, j}$. This guarantee of identifiability follows from previous works concerning the uniqueness of tensor factorizations [1], [40].

## C. Tensor Factorization

Identifiability with linearly independent components given $n \geq 3$ was established in [1] by way of Kruskal's (Factorization) Theorem [40]. A spectral algorithm for the estimation of models with linearly independent components can be found in [3]. An adaptation of this algorithm can be used to recover components like those in (2) [56].
A generalization of Kruskal's Theorem for $d$-way arrays can be found in [55], and it is related to some of the techniques we use in the proof of Theorem 4.1. However, we never employ the results from [55] in any of our proofs. Nonetheless, the theorems we prove are a natural extension of [65] using the independence setting considered in [55].
Nonnegative matrix/tensor factorization is a constrained form of tensor factorization where one enforces positivity on the components, ensuring that all elements in the factorized matrices or tensors are nonnegative [7], [54]. This method has been used for discrete mixed membership models. Identifiability is again an important consideration for nonnegative matrix factorization. A well-known property that guarantees identifiability for nonnegative matrix factorization is the "separability condition" [21], also referred to as the "anchor word" assumption [8]. This condition is the discrete analogue of joint irreducibility.

When the space $\Omega$ is finite, then $V_{n}(\mathcal{P})$ can be represented by a nonnegative symmetric tensor of the form $\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n}$, where $p_{i}$ are the probability vectors associated with $\mu_{i}$. In this context, finding the mixture components of $\mathcal{P}$ is equivalent to finding a nonnegative symmetric factorization of $V_{n}(\mathcal{P})$ [16].

## IV. Main Results

In this section we present the main results of this paper. They are related to a property which we call $k$-independence.

Definition 4.1: A sequence of vectors $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ is called $k$-independent if every subsequence $x_{i_{1}}, \ldots, x_{i_{k}}$ containing $k$ vectors is linearly independent.
The concept of $k$-independence is simply a generalization of Kruskal rank [40] to vector spaces. We define $k$-independence using a sequence rather than a set of vectors so as to relate it to a matrix rank, since a matrix can have repeated columns. When $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ are distinct (as will be the case in our main theorems) we can define $k$-independence simply using sets and subsets. We now present the main results of this paper.

## A. Identifiability and Determinedness Bounds

Below, we present two theorems that establish conditions for the identifiability of a mixture of measures. These conditions relate the $k$-independence of the mixture components, the number of mixture components $m$, and the number of samples per group $n$.

Theorem 4.1: Let $m \geq 2$. If $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ is a mixture of measures where $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ are $k$-independent and it holds that $2 m-1 \leq(k-1) n$ then $\mathcal{P}$ is $n$-identifiable.

Theorem 4.2: Let $m \geq 2$ and $n$ even-valued. If $\mathcal{P}=$ $\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ is a mixture of measures where $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ are $k$-independent and it holds that $2 m-2 \leq(k-1)(n-1)$ then $\mathcal{P}$ is $n$-determined.

In situations where the mixture components are not linearly independent, the results here can guarantee identifiability and determinedness for significantly lower values of $n$ than were demonstrated in [65]. The applications and implications of these findings are discussed in Section V.
For Theorem 4.1 we must omit the case where $m=1$ since this would imply that $k=1$ which results in the inequality " $1 \leq 0$ " in the theorem statement. Note that any mixture containing only one component is trivially 1identifiable, which is accounted for by row one in Table I.

While Theorem 4.1 is very much in the same vein as the factorization result in [55], and indeed one could apply that result to recover a rough version of Theorem 4.1, proving a precise version of this theorem necessitated developing some novel tools. In particular, we needed to precisely characterize how the tensor power affects the $k$-independence of a collection of vectors. This characterization is developed in Lemma 6.2. Going further, in Lemma 6.3 we also developed a tight analysis of how $k$-independence structure changes when tensor power is applied to a collection of vectors where some subsets are $k$-independent and other subsets are $k^{\prime}$-independent with $k \neq k^{\prime}$.

The proof of Theorem 4.2 uses the aforementioned lemmas as well as a new induction argument. Preserving determinedness through an induction argument presents a challenge, as there is very little prior work on this property. We emphasize once more that, unlike identifiability, the determinedness property in this setting is quite new, and as such, there are limited theoretical tools available for its analysis. It is worth noting that the technique used for the base case of our proof could be applied to any even value of $n$, with $n=2$ being the most obvious choice. From this starting point, one can use our induction method for $n+2$. We remark that starting with any
base case other than $n=4$ and then applying our induction method results in a statement that is weaker than Theorem 4.2.

## B. Lower Bounds

Here we present two theorems which characterize the optimality of the previous theorems. Proving both of these statements is a straightforward task, utilizing identifiability and determinedness lower bounds, along with some other tools, all of which are from [65]. For identifiability we have the following theorem.

Theorem 4.3: For all $m \geq k \geq 2$ and $n$ with $2 m-1>(k-1) n$ there exists a mixture of measures $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ where $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ are $k$-independent and $\mathcal{P}$ is not $n$-identifiable.

From this we have that Theorem 4.1 cannot be improved for any values of $m, n$, or $k$, not satisfying $2 m-1 \leq(k-1) n$, and is hence completely tight.

For determinedness we have a similar bound.
Theorem 4.4: For all $m \geq k \geq 2$ and $n$ with $2 m>(k-1) n$ there exists a mixture of measures $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ where $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ are $k$-independent and $\mathcal{P}$ is not $n$-determined.

Unfortunately this bound does not match the result from Theorem 4.2, with the simplest setting not fitting either determinedness bound being $m=6, n=4, k=4$. If $n=2$ then Theorem 4.2 only holds with $m=1$. Interestingly the bounds match for all valid settings, i.e. $m \geq k$, when $k=3$. We truly have no insight into which bound is loose, and it's entirely plausible that both of them are, or that it may depend on the specific values of the parameters $m, n$, and $k$. Its not possible for 4.2 to hold for $n=3$, due to the previous lower bound on determinedness with linearly independent components, but it is possible that it may hold for other odd-valued $n$.

## C. Comparison to Previous Results

The results in Section IV are quite general and contain four of the five bounds from [65] as special cases. Since any pair of distinct probability measures are not collinear, it follows that the components of any mixture of measures with at least two mixture components are 2 -independent. Setting $k=2$ in Theorems 4.1 and 4.2 gives us the first two bounds from Table I (noting that $n$ is always even for the determinedness result).

If a collection of $m$ vectors are linearly independent we have that they are $m$-independent. Setting $k=m$ in Theorem 4.1 we have

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl} 
& & 2 m-1 & \leq(m-1) n \\
& \Longleftrightarrow \quad \frac{2 m-1}{m-1} & \leq n \\
& \Longleftrightarrow \quad \frac{2 m-2+1}{m-1} & \leq n \\
& \Longleftrightarrow \frac{2 m-2}{m-1}+\frac{1}{m-1} & \leq n,
\end{array}
$$

with the minimal $n$ satisfying this being 3 which yields row 3 in Table I. The analogous determinedness bound on row 4 can similarly be derived from Theorem 4.2,

$$
2 m-2 \leq(m-1)(n-1) \Rightarrow 2 \leq n-1 \Longleftrightarrow 3 \leq n,
$$

and the smallest even-valued $n$ satisfying this bound is 4 . As a final point we remark that, in contrast to previous results, Theorems 4.1 and 4.2 imply that, when $n=3$ or $n=4$ respectively, it is possible to have identifiability/determinedness without linearly independent components; for example by setting $n=4, k=7$, and $m=10$ for the determinedness case.

## V. Discussion

Before presenting our proofs we discuss some of the applications and implications of the main results.

## A. Applications: Multinomial Mixture Modeling

The results here are perhaps most pertinent to the application of multinomial mixture models [38], which are equivalent to the grouped sample setting with mixture components on a finite sample space, $|\Omega|=d<\infty$ [65]. These models are applicable to settings where one wants to cluster subjects and has access to repeated categorical samples from each subject. This can be considered as a type of discrete data clustering problem [49]. There exist many real world applications where this model is appropriate. Using the notation from Section II-A we will describe some settings where this model has been applied.
Multinomial mixture models have been used in business analytics to cluster customer types where $\mathbf{X}_{i}$ are the purchases of customer $i$ with $X_{i, j}$ representing one instance of customer $i$ purchasing a particular product [15]. In the cognitive sciences one may be interested in finding clusters of behavior over a collection of subjects. Here, $X_{i, j}$ may represent a response to a questionnaire, an experimental observation or a physiological or psychological reading, with $\mathbf{X}_{i}$ denoting the collection of repeated readings for subject $i$ over a period of time. In such scenarios, one might expect an underlying factor to be revealed through repeated measurements rather than a onetime observation. As an illustrative example, experiencing anxiety from time to time is normal, but frequently reporting anxiety might indicate an underlying condition. Similarly, only repeatedly solving a certain task might be adequate to reliably indicate a subject's understanding or ability. In this context, multinomial mixture models have been used to model the response of children in an experiment to assess their understanding of the physical world [9], [13], [24], [41]. Other instances where multinomial mixture models are used to model repeated tasks include reaction response tasks [17], [70] and experiments that study the reliance of adults on potentially misleading visual cues [28].

Elsewhere multinomial mixture modeling has been used to cluster different types of internet traffic [32]. These methods have also found use in topic modeling or text clustering [42], [46], [52], however a great deal of topic modeling focuses on mixed membership models such as Latent Dirichlet Allocation [12] or a Dirichlet-multinomial model. Multinomial mixture models are desirable when one's focus is clustering.

Dirichlet-multinomial mixtures are an alternative to multinomial mixture models that replaces the multinomial components with Dirichlet-multinomial components. Like the multinomial distribution, the Dirichlet-multinomial distribution is
a distribution defined on count data. For count data with $d$ outcomes and $n$ trials, the Dirichlet-multinomial distribution is parameterized by a positive vector $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ and its pmf on count data $x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{DirMult}(x ; n, \alpha)=\mathbb{E}_{p \sim \operatorname{Dirichlet}(\alpha)}[\operatorname{Mult}(x ; n, p)], \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where Mult is the multinomial distribution. A multinomial mixture model could be employed instead of a Dirichlet-multinomial mixture in applications where Dirichletmultinomial mixtures are used, such as short text clustering [22], [43], [71] and clustering genetic/biological data [27], [29], [47]. The two models each have their own advantages and disadvantages. Specifically, a multinomial mixture model is generally easier to estimate and interpret, while the Dirichlet-multinomial mixture offers more flexibility. Dirichlet-multinomial mixtures also lack the identifiability guarantees that exist for multinomial mixture models, which can help guide data collection and estimation. In the sequel we describe how the identifiability and determiendness guarantees presented in this work can aid in statistical analysis and data collection.

## B. Implications: Multinomial Mixture Modeling

In the aforementioned settings, with the samples $X_{i, j}$ taking one of $d$ different values, it can be very natural to assume that the mixture components are $d$-independent due to the following proposition.

Proposition 5.1: Let $\Psi$ be a measure which is absolutely continuous to the uniform measure on the probability simplex $\Delta^{d-1}$ and let $\Gamma_{1}, \ldots, \Gamma_{d} \stackrel{i i d}{\sim} \Psi$. Then $\Gamma_{1}, \ldots, \Gamma_{d}$ are linearly independent with probability one
This fact is particularly relevant for topic modeling where $d$, the number of words in a vocabulary, can be large and estimation can be difficult. A straightforward way to fix this is to assign words to $d^{\prime}<d$ clusters, perhaps using a vector word embedding [44], thereby coarsening the event space. To recover $m$ topics we should have $d^{\prime} \leq m$ and satisfy $2 m-1 \leq\left(d^{\prime}-1\right) n$ where $n$ is the number of words per document. To test whether a corpus could potentially contain more topics than a proposed topic model with $m$ topics, we would need that $2 m-2 \leq\left(d^{\prime}-1\right)(n-1)$. When $d<m$ and the components cannot be linearly independent, the results here can guarantee identifiability with $n$ being a $d-1$ factor smaller than was shown in [65], thus requiring less data to be collected. Alternatively the results presented here demonstrate how one may increase $d$, perhaps by adjusting the data collection, so that it is possible to recover the desired number of components.
Another consideration is the difficulty of estimating $V_{n}(\mathcal{P})$. For a given $d$ and $n, V_{n}(\mathcal{P})$ has the form of a symmetric tensor in $\mathbb{R}^{d^{\times n}}$ [65]. While symmetry aids in the estimation of $V_{n}(\mathcal{P})$, this space of symmetric tensors has a substantial dimensionality of $\binom{n+d-1}{d}$ [16]. Thus it is desirable to choose $n$ and $d$ as small as possible while still meeting the needs for the analysis at hand. To reduce $d$, for example, one may opt to have a shorter questionnaire for psychometrics or to cluster product types for customer information, e.g., treat "apples," "pears," and "bananas" as "fruit."

Finally, the determinedness property can aid in answering the question "would we find more components if we collect more samples, $n$, for each subject?" Suppose $\hat{V}$ is a highly accurate estimate of $V_{n}(\mathcal{P}), \hat{\mu}_{1}, \ldots, \hat{\mu}_{m}$ is a collection of probability measures, and $\hat{a} \in \Delta^{m-1}$, such that $\hat{V} \approx \sum_{i=1}^{m} \hat{a}_{i} \hat{\mu}_{i}^{\times n}$. Theorem 4.2 gives us an indication that, if $m$ is sufficiently small with respect to $k$ and $n$, then all the components have been recovered. Naturally it is impossible to know to a certainty that one has found all components due to sampling error, but Theorem 4.2 can give some guidance as to whether one should consider using a larger $n$.

## C. Other Points

The intuition from Proposition 5.1 applies to any setting where one assumes that there exists some linearly independent collection of probability measures, $\xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{d}$, with each component being mixture of these components, $\mu_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{d} c_{i, j} \xi_{j}$. For example, one may assume that each component is mixture of a fixed but unknown set of $d$ multivariate Gaussian distributions, with each $\mu_{i}$ having a different mixture weighting of the Gaussian components. Again, the advantage of our results over previous ones is the ability to choose $n$ more conservatively.

The grouped sample setting also occurs naturally in many problem settings including group anomaly detection [45], transfer learning [10], and distribution regression/classification [48], [58]. In these settings one has access to groups of samples $\mathbf{X}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{X}_{N}$ with $\mathbf{X}_{i}=\left(X_{i, 1}, \ldots, X_{i, n}\right)$. Mathematical analysis of techniques in this setting typically assume $n \rightarrow \infty$. The study of such problems for fixed $n$ is less explored and the results here may help research into this setting.

## VI. Proofs

This section contains proofs of the results in Section IV and supporting lemmas. Proofs omitted in this section can be found in Appendix A. The symbol $\otimes$ represents the standard tensor product on a Hilbert space and is also used in the superscript to denote tensor powers. The $\Pi$ symbol represents tensor product when applied to elements of a Hilbert space ${ }^{2}$. For a measure $\mu, \mu^{\times n}$ denotes the power measure, as induced by the standard product measure, and acts on the power $\sigma$ algebra, as induced by the standard product $\sigma$-algebra [34]. For real-valued functions $f$ and $g, f \times g$ represents the outer product of the functions, i.e. $(f \times g)(a, b)=f(a) g(b)$; this notation is also used in the superscript to denote a power of this kind of product. For a natural number $N,[N]$ is defined to be $\{1,2, \ldots, N\}$. To streamline the presentation of our main theorems we first introduce the mathematical tools we will be using.

The following lemma is not particularly novel, but we will be using it quite extensively without reference so we include a statement of it here.

Lemma 6.1: Let $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ nonzero be vectors in an inner product space. Then $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ are linearly independent iff there exist vectors $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{m}$ such that $\left\langle x_{i}, z_{i}\right\rangle \neq 0$ for all $i$ and $\left\langle x_{i}, z_{j}\right\rangle=0$ for all $i \neq j$.

[^2]The next lemma serves as something of a workhorse in our proofs.
Lemma 6.2: Let $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ be vectors in a Hilbert space which are $k$-independent with $k \geq 2$. Then $x_{1}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{m}^{\otimes n}$ are $\min (n(k-1)+1, m)$-independent.

Proof: We will first consider the case where $n(k-1)+1=$ $m$. We can relabel the vectors $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n(k-1)+1}$ as $x$ and $x_{i, j}$ where $(i, j) \in[n] \times[k-1]$. By $k$-independence, for all $i$, there exists a vector $z_{i}$ such that $\left\langle z_{i}, x\right\rangle=1$ and $\left\langle z_{i}, x_{i, j}\right\rangle=0$ for all $j$. From this we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle x^{\otimes n}, \prod_{i=1}^{n} z_{i}\right\rangle=\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left\langle x, z_{i}\right\rangle=1, \text { and } \\
& \left\langle x_{i, j}^{\otimes n}, \prod_{l=1}^{n} z_{l}\right\rangle=\prod_{l=1}^{n}\left\langle x_{i, j}, z_{l}\right\rangle=0, \text { for all } i, j .
\end{aligned}
$$

Because the relabeling is arbitrary it follows that for all $i^{\prime} \in$ $[n(k-1)+1]$ there exists $\mathbf{z}_{i^{\prime}}$ such that $\left\langle x_{i^{\prime}}^{\otimes n}, \mathbf{z}_{i^{\prime}}\right\rangle=1$ and $\mathbf{z}_{i^{\prime}} \perp x_{j^{\prime}}^{\otimes n}$ for all $j^{\prime} \neq i^{\prime}$. Thus we have that $x_{1}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{m}^{\otimes n}$ are $m$-independent. We will now consider two other cases for the value of $m$. For $m<n(k-1)+1$ we can show that $x_{1}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{m}^{\otimes n}$ are linearly independent by the same argument. If $m>n(k-1)+1$ then it follows from the $m=n(k-$ 1) +1 case that every subsequence of length $n(k-1)+1$ of $x_{1}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{m}^{\otimes n}$ is independent, so it follows that $x_{1}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{m}^{\otimes n}$ is $(n(k-1)+1)$-independent.
The following lemma's proof is very similar to the proof of Lemma 6.2, but we defer it to Appendix A due to its length. Note that it recovers Lemma 6.2 by setting $k^{\prime}=k$.
Lemma 6.3: Let $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ be $k$-independent with $k \geq 2$ and $x$ such that $x, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ is $k^{\prime}$-independent with $k \geq k^{\prime}>$ 1. Then $x^{\otimes n}, x_{1}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{m}^{\otimes n}$ is $\min \left(m+1,(n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}\right)-$ independent.
To prove Theorem 4.1 we will use the following slight adaptation of Kruskal's Theorem.
Theorem 6.1 (Hilbert space extension of [40]): Let $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{r}$, and $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{r}$ be elements of three Hilbert spaces $\mathcal{H}_{x}, \mathcal{H}_{y}, \mathcal{H}_{z}$ such that $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}$ are $r_{x^{-}}$ independent with $r_{y}, r_{z}$ defined similarly. Further suppose that $r_{x}+r_{y}+r_{z} \geq 2 r+2$. If $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{l} \in \mathcal{H}_{x}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{l} \in \mathcal{H}_{y}$, and $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{l} \in \mathcal{H}_{z}$ with $r \geq l$ such that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{r} x_{i} \otimes y_{i} \otimes z_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{l} a_{j} \otimes b_{j} \otimes c_{j}
$$

then $l=r$ and there exists a permutation $\sigma:[r] \rightarrow[r]$ and $D_{x}, D_{y}, D_{z} \in \mathbb{R}^{r}$ such that $a_{\sigma(i)}=x_{i} D_{x, i}, b_{\sigma(i)}=y_{i} D_{y, i}$, and $c_{\sigma(i)}=z_{i} D_{z, i}$ with $D_{x, i} D_{y, i} D_{z, i}=1$ for all $i$.
The following three lemmas allow us to embed general measures in Hilbert spaces and will allow us to use tools from Hilbert space theory [33].

Lemma 6.4 (Lemma 6.2 from [65]): Let $\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}$ be finite measures on a measurable space $(\Psi, \mathcal{G})$. There exists a finite measure $\pi$ and nonnegative functions $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n} \in$ $L^{1}(\Psi, \mathcal{G}, \pi) \cap L^{2}(\Psi, \mathcal{G}, \pi)$ such that, for all $i$ and all $B \in \mathcal{G}$

$$
\gamma_{i}(B)=\int_{B} f_{i} d \pi
$$

The last lemma will be used in particular to embed collections of probability measures in a joint measure space as pdfs.

Lemma 6.5 (Lemma 6.3 from [65]): Let $(\Psi, \mathcal{G})$ be a measurable space, $\gamma$ and $\pi$ a pair of finite measures on that space, and $f$ a nonnegative function in $L^{1}(\Psi, \mathcal{G}, \pi)$ such that, for all $A \in \mathcal{G}, \gamma(A)=\int_{A} f d \pi$. Then for all $n$, for all $B \in \mathcal{G}^{\times n}$ we have

$$
\gamma^{\times n}(B)=\int_{B} f^{\times n} d \pi^{\times n}
$$

Lemma 6.6 (Lemma 5.2 from [65]): Let $(\Psi, \mathcal{G}, \gamma)$ be a measure space. There exists a unitary transform $U$ : $L^{2}(\Psi, \mathcal{G}, \gamma)^{\otimes n} \rightarrow L^{2}\left(\Psi^{\times n}, \mathcal{G}^{\times n}, \gamma^{\times n}\right)$ such that, for all $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n} \in L^{2}(\Psi, \mathcal{G}, \gamma)$,

$$
U\left(f_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes f_{n}\right)=f_{1}(\cdot) \cdots f_{n}(\cdot)
$$

Finally we remind the reader of the following standard result from real analysis.

Lemma 6.7 (Proposition 2.23 from [26]): Let $(\Psi, \mathcal{G}, \gamma)$ be a measure space and $f, g \in L^{1}(\Psi, \mathcal{G}, \gamma)$. Then $f=g \gamma$-almost everywhere iff, for all $A \in \mathcal{G}, \int_{A} f d \gamma=\int_{A} g d \gamma$.
For the rest of the paper we will leave the "almost everywhere" qualifier implicit. We can now prove the main theorems in Section IV.

Proof of Theorem 4.1: Let $\mathcal{Q}=\sum_{i=1}^{l} b_{i} \delta_{\nu_{i}}$ be a mixture of measures with $l \leq m$, such that $V_{n}(\mathcal{P})=V_{n}(\mathcal{Q})$. From this we have that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \mu_{i}^{\times n}=\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} \nu_{j}^{\times n} .
$$

From Lemma 6.4 there exists a measure $\xi$ and nonnegative functions $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}, q_{1}, \ldots, q_{l} \in L^{1}(\xi) \cap L^{2}(\xi)$, such that, for all measurable $A$ and $i, \mu_{i}(A)=\int_{A} p_{i} d \xi$ and $\nu_{i}(A)=$ $\int_{A} q_{i} d \xi$. From Lemmas 6.5 and 6.7 we have that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\times n}=\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} q_{j}^{\times n}
$$

and from Lemma 6.6 we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n}=\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} q_{j}^{\otimes n} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

From the theorem hypothesis we know that $m \geq 2$, and trivially $k \leq m$, so we have the following

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rlrl} 
& & & 2 m-1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Because $n \geq 3$ it is always possible to decompose $n=n_{1}+$ $n_{2}+n_{3}$ where $n_{i}$ are all positive integers.

We will now prove the following claim which we will denote " $\dagger$ ": if the sequences $p_{1}^{\otimes n_{i}}, \ldots, p_{m}^{\otimes n_{i}}$ (for all $i \in[3]$ )
are $k_{i}$-independent respectively and $k_{1}+k_{2}+k_{3} \geq 2 m+2$ then the theorem conclusion follows. From (4) we have that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n_{1}} \otimes p_{i}^{\otimes n_{2}} \otimes p_{i}^{\otimes n_{3}}=\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} q_{j}^{\otimes n_{1}} \otimes q_{j}^{\otimes n_{2}} \otimes q_{j}^{\otimes n_{3}}
$$

From Theorem 6.1 we have that $l=m$, there exists $D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$, and a permutation $\sigma:[m] \rightarrow[m]$, such that, for all $i$

$$
\begin{align*}
b_{\sigma(i)} q_{\sigma(i)}^{\otimes n_{1}} & =a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n_{1}} D_{1, i} \\
q_{\sigma(i)}^{\otimes n_{2}} & =p_{i}^{\otimes n_{2}} D_{2, i}  \tag{5}\\
q_{\sigma(i)}^{\otimes n_{3}} & =p_{i}^{\otimes n_{3}} D_{3, i}
\end{align*}
$$

where $D_{1, i} D_{2, i} D_{3, i}=1$ for all $i$. Applying Lemma 6.6 to (5) we have that, for all $i$

$$
\int q_{\sigma(i)}^{\times n_{2}} d \xi^{\times n_{2}}=\int D_{2, i} p_{i}^{\times n_{2}} d \xi^{\times n_{2}} \Rightarrow 1=D_{2, i} .
$$

So $D_{2}$ is a vector of ones and so is $D_{3}$ by the same argument. We have that $D_{1}$ is also a vector of ones since $D_{1, i} D_{2, i} D_{3, i}=$ 1 for all $i$. Thus we have that $p_{i}=q_{\sigma(i)}$ for all $i$. Assuming that $\sigma$ is the identity mapping it follows that $a_{i}=b_{i}$ and we have shown $\dagger$.

Now that $\dagger$ has been demonstrated, to finish the proof we will show that we can decompose $n=n_{1}+n_{2}+n_{3}$ such that $p_{1}^{\otimes n_{i}}, \ldots, p_{m}^{\otimes n_{i}}$ are $k_{i}$-independent for each $i$ with $k_{1}+k_{2}+$ $k_{3} \geq 2 m+2$ which will finish our proof. To continue we will split into the cases where $n \bmod 3$ is 0 , 1 , or 2 .
Case 0: We have that $n=3 n^{\prime}$ for some positive integer $n^{\prime}$ and we can let $n_{1}=n_{2}=n_{3}=n^{\prime}$. Now we can reformulate our Hilbert space embedding:

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n^{\prime}} \otimes p_{i}^{\otimes n^{\prime}} \otimes p_{i}^{\otimes n^{\prime}}
$$

From Lemma 6.2 we know that the tensors $p_{1}^{\otimes n^{\prime}}, \ldots, p_{m}^{\otimes n^{\prime}} \quad$ are $\quad \min \left((k-1) n^{\prime}+1, m\right)$-independent. If $\min \left((k-1) n^{\prime}+1, m\right)$ is $m$ then it follows that $k_{1}+k_{2}+k_{3}=3 m \geq 2 m+2$ since $m \geq 2$. If $\min \left((k-1) n^{\prime}+1, m\right)=(k-1) n^{\prime}+1$ then we have that $k_{1}+k_{2}+k_{3}=3(k-1) n^{\prime}+3=(k-1) n+3 \geq 2 m+2$ by the theorem hypothesis $(k-1) n \geq 2 m-1$.
Case 1: Here we have that $n=3 n^{\prime}+1$ and we let $n_{1}=n_{2}=n^{\prime}$ and $n_{3}=n^{\prime}+1$, so

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n^{\prime}} \otimes p_{i}^{\otimes n^{\prime}} \otimes p_{i}^{\otimes n^{\prime}+1}
$$

From Lemma 6.2 we have that $k_{1}=k_{2}=\min \left(m,(k-1) n^{\prime}+\right.$ 1) and $k_{3}=\min \left(m,(k-1)\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)+1\right)$. If we have that $\min \left(m,(k-1) n^{\prime}+1\right)=m$ then it follows that $\min (m,(k-$ 1) $\left.\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)+1\right)=m$ and $k_{1}+k_{2}+k_{3}=3 m \geq 2 m+2$.

If we have that $\min \left(m,(k-1) n^{\prime}+1\right)=(k-1) n^{\prime}+1$ and $\min \left(m,(k-1)\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)+1\right)=(k-1)\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)+1$ then we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
k_{1}+k_{2}+k_{3} & =2\left((k-1) n^{\prime}+1\right)+(k-1)\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)+1 \\
& =\left(3 n^{\prime}+1\right)(k-1)+3 \\
& =n(k-1)+3 \\
& \geq 2 m+2
\end{aligned}
$$

by the theorem hypothesis.
Lastly, if we have that $\min \left(m,(k-1) n^{\prime}+1\right)=(k-1) n^{\prime}+1$ and $\min \left(m,(k-1)\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)+1\right)=m$ with $m<(k-1)\left(n^{\prime}+\right.$ $1)+1$ (for equality see the above $\min \left(m,(k-1)\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)+1\right)=$ $(k-1)\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)+1$ case) then we have that

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rlrl} 
& & m & <(k-1)\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)+1 \\
& & & m
\end{array}\right)
$$

where the second inequality follows because $n^{\prime} \geq 1$ and the third inequality follows because both sides of the inequality are integers.
Case 2: We have that $n=3 n^{\prime}+2$, so let $n_{1}=n^{\prime}$ and $n_{2}=n_{3}=n^{\prime}+1$. Now we have that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n^{\prime}} \otimes p_{i}^{\otimes n^{\prime}+1} \otimes p_{i}^{\otimes n^{\prime}+1}
$$

If $\min \left(m,(k-1) n^{\prime}+1\right)=\min \left(m,(k-1)\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)+1\right)=m$ and thus $m=k_{1}=k_{2}=k_{3}$, we have that $k_{1}+k_{2}+k_{3} \geq$ $2 m+2$ as in the previous cases. If we have that $k_{2}=k_{3}=$ $\min \left(m,(k-1)\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)+1\right)=(k-1)\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)+1$ then it also follows that $k_{1}=\min \left(m,(k-1) n^{\prime}+1\right)=(k-1) n^{\prime}+1$ and $k_{1}+k_{2}+k_{3}=(k-1)\left(3 n^{\prime}+2\right)+3=n(k-1)+3 \geq 2 m+2$.

Now if we have that $k_{2}=k_{3}=m$ and $k_{1}=(k-1) n^{\prime}+1$ then $k_{1}+k_{2}+k_{3}=2 m+(k-1) n^{\prime}+1$ and since $k \geq 2$ and $n^{\prime} \geq 1$ we have that $k_{1}+k_{2}+k_{3} \geq 2 m+2$ so we are done, and with this final case have finished the proof.

Proof Sketch of Theorems 4.3 and 4.4: Theorem 4.2 in [65] states that, for all $m \geq 2$, there exists a mixture of measures $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ which is not $2 m-2$-identifiable. Therefore there exists a mixture of measures $\mathcal{Q}=\sum_{i=1}^{l} b_{i} \delta_{\nu_{i}}$ with $\mathcal{P} \neq \mathcal{Q}$, and $l \leq m$ such that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \mu_{i}^{\times 2 m-2}=\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} \nu_{j}^{\times 2 m-2}
$$

Since $(k-1) n \leq 2 m-2$ we have that either $(k-1) n=2 m-2$ or, if $(k-1) n<2 m-2$ we can apply Lemma 2.2 , giving us

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \mu_{i}^{\times(k-1) n}=\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} \nu_{j}^{\times(k-1) n}
$$

Since any pair of distinct probability measures are linearly independent, it follows that any collection of probability measures are 2 -independent. Using this fact we can can adapt Lemma 6.2 to show that $\mu_{1}^{\times k-1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}^{\times k-1}$ are $k$-independent. Letting $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}^{\times k-1}}$ and $\mathcal{Q}^{\prime}=$ $\sum_{i=1}^{l} b_{i} \delta_{\nu_{i}^{\times k-1}}$, we have that $V_{n}\left(\mathcal{P}^{\prime}\right)=V_{n}\left(\mathcal{Q}^{\prime}\right)$ and we are done. The proof of Theorem 4.4 is virtually identical and follows from [65] Theorem 4.4.

Proof of Theorem 4.2: If $n=2$ then

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rlrl} 
& & & 2 m-2
\end{array}\right)=(k-1)(n-1)
$$

Since the theorem hypothesis assumes $m \geq 2$ we have that the theorem is vacuously true for the $n=2$ case $^{3}$. To finish the proof we will show that theorem holds for $n=4$ and then proceed by induction.
Base Step: Let $n=4$. We will proceed by contradiction and assume there exists $k \geq 2$ and a collection of $k$-independent probability measures $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ such that there exists a mixture of measures $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ and $\mathcal{Q}=\sum_{i=1}^{l} b_{i} \delta_{\nu_{i}}$ a mixture of measures where $\mathcal{P} \neq \mathcal{Q}$ and $V_{4}(\mathcal{P})=V_{4}(\mathcal{Q})$. From the theorem hypothesis that $m \geq 2$ it follows that $k \geq 2$ and $k-2 \geq 0$. Applying this bound to our theorem hypothesis with $n=4$ we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
2 m-2 & \leq(k-1) 3 \\
\Rightarrow \quad 2 m-1 & \leq 3 k-2 \\
& \leq 3 k-2+(k-2) \\
& =4 k-4 \\
& =(k-1) 4 \\
& =(k-1) n .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since we have that $2 m-1 \leq(k-1) n$ we can apply Theorem 4.1 and thus $l>m$. We will proceed analogously to the proof of Theorem 4.1 and embed the measures in a Hilbert space as before

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes 4}=\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} q_{j}^{\otimes 4} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Because $l>m$ there exists $i$ such that $q_{i} \neq p_{j}$ for all $j$. We will assume without loss of generality that $q_{1}$ satisfies this. Let $k^{\prime}$ be the largest value such that $q_{1}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ are $k^{\prime}$ independent. We will now show that that $k^{\prime}<k$. To see this suppose that $k^{\prime} \geq k$ which would imply that $q_{1}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ are $k$-independent. Observe that $m>2$ (thus $m \geq 3$, we use this at (7)). Were this not the case then the components of $\mathcal{P}, \mu_{1}$ and $\mu_{2}$, would be linearly independent and $\mathcal{P}$ would be 4-determined from Table I row 4, thereby violating the contradiction hypothesis. With the base case $n=4$ in our theorem hypothesis, and the fact that $k$ and $m$ are positive integers, we get

$$
\begin{align*}
2 m-2 \leq 3(k-1) & \Rightarrow 2 m \leq 3 k-1 \\
& \Rightarrow \frac{4}{3} m \leq 2 k-\frac{2}{3} \\
& \Rightarrow m \leq 2 k-\frac{2}{3}-\frac{1}{3} m \\
& \Rightarrow m \leq 2 k-\frac{2}{3}-1 \quad(m \geq 3)  \tag{7}\\
& \Rightarrow m \leq 2 k-2 \quad(m \text { is an integer }) \\
& \Rightarrow m+1 \leq 2(k-1)+1 . \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

From application of Lemma 6.2 it follows that $q_{1}^{\otimes 2}, p_{1}^{\otimes 2}, \ldots, p_{m}^{\otimes 2}$ are $\min (2(k-1)+1, m+1)$-independent and from (8) it follows that they are linearly independent.

[^3]Now we have that there exists $z$ such that $z \perp p_{i}^{\otimes 2}$ for all $i$ but $\left\langle z, q_{1}^{\otimes 2}\right\rangle=1$ and thus

$$
\begin{align*}
0 & =\left\langle z^{\otimes 2}, \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes 4}\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle z^{\otimes 2}, \sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} q_{j}^{\otimes 4}\right\rangle=\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j}\left\langle z, q_{j}^{\otimes 2}\right\rangle^{2}>0 \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

a contradiction. So $k^{\prime}<k$.
Because $k^{\prime}<k$ there must exist a collection of $k^{\prime}$ elements of $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$, which we denote $p_{i_{1}}, \ldots, p_{i_{k^{\prime}}}$, such that $q_{1}, p_{i_{1}}, \ldots, p_{i_{k^{\prime}}}$ are linearly dependent; for convenience we will assume without loss of generality that these elements are $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k^{\prime}}$. Because $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k^{\prime}}$ are linearly independent but $q_{1}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k^{\prime}}$ are linearly dependent we have that $q_{1}=$ $\sum_{i=1}^{k^{\prime}} \alpha_{i} p_{i}$ for some $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k^{\prime}}$.

We will now show that $k^{\prime} \geq 2 k-m+1$. Suppose this were not the case and $k^{\prime} \leq 2 k-m$ or equivalently $m \leq 2 k-k^{\prime}$. By $k$-independence there exists a vector $z$ such that $\left\langle z, p_{k^{\prime}}\right\rangle=1$ with $z \perp p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k^{\prime}-1}, p_{k^{\prime}+1}, \ldots, p_{k}$ and another vector $z^{\prime}$ such that $\left\langle z^{\prime}, p_{1}\right\rangle=1$ and $z^{\prime} \perp p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k^{\prime}}, p_{k+1}, \ldots, p_{m}$. We know $z^{\prime}$ exists since $k^{\prime} \leq 2 k-m$ so the cardinality of $p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k^{\prime}}, p_{k+1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ satisfies the following

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\left\{2, \ldots, k^{\prime}\right\}\right|+|\{k+1, \ldots, m\}| & =k^{\prime}-1+m-k \\
& \leq 2 k-m-1+m-k \\
& =k-1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left\langle z^{\otimes 2} \otimes z^{\otimes \otimes 2}, \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes 4}\right\rangle \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i}\left\langle z, p_{i}\right\rangle^{2}\left\langle z^{\prime}, p_{i}\right\rangle^{2} \\
&= \sum_{i \in\left\{1, \ldots, k^{\prime}-1, k^{\prime}+1, \ldots, k\right\}} a_{i}\left\langle z, p_{i}\right\rangle^{2}\left\langle z^{\prime}, p_{i}\right\rangle^{2} \\
&+\sum_{i \in\left\{k^{\prime}, k+1, \ldots, m\right\}} a_{i}\left\langle z, p_{i}\right\rangle^{2}\left\langle z^{\prime}, p_{i}\right\rangle^{2} \\
&= \sum_{i \in\left\{1, \ldots, k^{\prime}-1, k^{\prime}+1, \ldots, k\right\}} a_{i} 0\left\langle z^{\prime}, p_{i}\right\rangle^{2} \\
&+\sum_{i \in\left\{k^{\prime}, k+1, \ldots, m\right\}} a_{i}\left\langle z, p_{i}\right\rangle^{2} 0 \\
&= 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

On the other hand we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle z^{\otimes 2} \otimes z^{\prime \otimes 2}, \sum_{i=1}^{l} b_{i} q_{i}^{\otimes 4}\right\rangle \\
& \quad=\sum_{i=1}^{l} b_{i}\left\langle z, q_{i}\right\rangle^{2}\left\langle z^{\prime}, q_{i}\right\rangle^{2} \\
& \quad \geq b_{1}\left\langle z, q_{1}\right\rangle^{2}\left\langle z^{\prime}, q_{1}\right\rangle^{2} \\
& \quad=b_{1}\left\langle z, \sum_{i=1}^{k^{\prime}} \alpha_{i} p_{i}\right\rangle^{2}\left\langle z^{\prime}, \sum_{i=1}^{k^{\prime}} \alpha_{i} p_{i}\right\rangle \\
& \quad=b_{1}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k^{\prime}} \alpha_{i}\left\langle z, p_{i}\right\rangle\right)^{2}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k^{\prime}} \alpha_{i}\left\langle z^{\prime}, p_{i}\right\rangle\right)^{2} \\
& \quad=b_{1} \alpha_{k^{\prime}}^{2} \alpha_{1}^{2}>0
\end{aligned}
$$

which contradicts (6). Thus we have that $k^{\prime} \geq 2 k-m+1$.
We are now going to show that $q_{1}^{\otimes 2}, p_{1}^{\otimes 2}, \ldots, p_{m}^{\otimes 2}$ are linearly independent via Lemma 6.3. To do this we will show that $(2-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime} \geq m+1$. Using $k^{\prime} \geq 2 k-m+1$ we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
2 m-2 & \leq(4-1)(k-1) \quad \text { (base case hypothesis, } n=4) \\
\Rightarrow \quad 2 m & \leq 3 k-1 \\
\Rightarrow m+1 & \leq 3 k-m \\
\Rightarrow m+1 & \leq(k-1)+(2 k-m+1) \\
\Rightarrow m+1 & \leq(k-1)+k^{\prime} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $q_{1}^{\otimes 2}, p_{1}^{\otimes 2}, \ldots, p_{m}^{\otimes 2}$ are linearly independent we can finish our contradiction using the same argument as in (9).
Induction Step: We will now proceed by induction along $n$ in an increment of 2 since the theorem statement holds for even-valued $n$. For our inductive hypothesis assume that for even valued $n \geq 4$ and all $k, m$ with $2 m-2 \leq(n-1)(k-1)$ that any mixture of measures with $m$ components which are $k$-independent are $n$-determined. Consider some mixture of measures $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ with $k$-independent components and $2 m^{\prime}-2 \leq(k-1)((n+2)-1)$. If $k=m^{\prime}$ then we have that the components are linearly independent so it is $(n+2)$-determined by Lemma 2.1 and Table I row four. Now suppose that $m^{\prime}>k$. Let $\mathcal{Q}$ be a mixture of measures with $l$ components such that $V_{n+2}(\mathcal{P})=V_{n+2}(\mathcal{Q})$. Embedding $V_{n+2}(\mathcal{P})$ and $V_{n+2}(\mathcal{Q})$ as before we have that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n+2}=\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} q_{j}^{\otimes n+2}
$$

By $k$-independence there exists $z$ such that $\left\langle z, p_{1}\right\rangle \neq 0$ and
$z \perp p_{m^{\prime}-(k-1)+1}, \ldots, p_{m^{\prime}}$. Now we have that

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n+2} & =\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} q_{j}^{\otimes n+2} \\
\Rightarrow \quad \sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n}\left\langle p_{i}^{\otimes 2}, \cdot\right\rangle & =\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} q_{j}^{\otimes n}\left\langle q_{j}^{\otimes 2}, \cdot\right\rangle  \tag{10}\\
\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n}\left\langle p_{i}^{\otimes 2}, z^{\otimes 2}\right\rangle & =\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} q_{j}^{\otimes n}\left\langle q_{j}^{\otimes 2}, z^{\otimes 2}\right\rangle \\
\Rightarrow \sum_{m^{\prime}-(k-1)} a_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes n}\left\langle p_{i}, z\right\rangle^{2} & =\sum_{j=1}^{l} b_{j} q_{j}^{\otimes n}\left\langle q_{j}, z\right\rangle^{2}
\end{align*}
$$

The implication (10) follows from the equivalence between tensor products and Hilbert-Schmidt operators (see [33] Proposition 2.6.9). Let $\lambda=\sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}-(k-1)} a_{i}\left\langle p_{i}, z\right\rangle^{2}, a_{i}^{\prime}=$ $a_{i}\left\langle p_{i}, z\right\rangle^{2} / \lambda$, and $b_{i}^{\prime}=b_{i}\left\langle q_{i}, z\right\rangle^{2} / \lambda$. Without loss of generality we will assume that $\left\langle q_{i}, z\right\rangle \neq 0$ for $i \in\left[l^{\prime}\right]$ and $\left\langle q_{i}, z\right\rangle=0$ for $i>l^{\prime}$, with $l^{\prime}$ potentially equaling $l$. Note that $a_{i}^{\prime} \geq 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}-(k-1)} a_{i}^{\prime}=1$ and likewise for $b_{i}^{\prime}$, since the right hand side of (11) is a convex combination of pdfs that itself must be equal to a pdf. So now we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}-(k-1)} a_{i}^{\prime} p_{i}^{\otimes n}=\sum_{j=1}^{l^{\prime}} b_{j}^{\prime} q_{j}^{\otimes n} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl} 
& & 2 m^{\prime}-2 & \leq(k-1)((n+2)-1) \\
\Rightarrow & 2\left(m^{\prime}-1\right) & \leq 2(k-1)+(k-1)(n-1) \\
\Rightarrow & 2\left(m^{\prime}-(k-1)\right)-2 & \leq(k-1)(n-1)
\end{array}
$$

so by the induction hypothesis we have that the mixture of measures $\sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}-(k-1)} a_{i}^{\prime} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ is $n$-determined ${ }^{4}$. It follows that $\sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}-(k-1)} a_{i}^{\prime} \delta_{\mu_{i}}=\sum_{j=1}^{l^{\prime}} b_{j}^{\prime} \delta_{\nu_{j}}$. Without loss of generality we will assume that $\mu_{1}=\nu_{1}$ and $a_{1}^{\prime}=b_{1}^{\prime}$. It follows that $p_{1}=q_{1}$ and thus $a_{1}=b_{1}$. By the same argument it follows that $\nu_{i}=\mu_{i}$ and $a_{i}=b_{i}$ for all $i$ and, because $\sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}} b_{i}=1$, that $m^{\prime}=l$ and thus $\mathcal{P}=\mathcal{Q}$ and $\mathcal{P}$ is $n+2$-determined, which finishes our proof.

## VII. CONCLUSION

In this paper we have generalized previous bounds on identifiability for nonparametric mixture models with grouped samples. Per Proposition 5.1 these bounds likely better capture the typical behavior of most grouped sample settings, especially when the sample space is finite. These bounds also offer a useful guideline on how to reduce a sample space while still preserving mixture components, for example in topic modeling.

[^4]
## Appendix

## PROOFS

Proof of Lemma 6.1: For the forward direction, since $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ are linearly independent we can find the associated $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{m}$ from the Gram-Schmidt process. We prove the other direction by contradiction: suppose $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ are not linearly independent but there exist $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{m}$ satisfying the property in the lemma statement. From this it follows (without loss of generality) that $x_{1}=\sum_{i=2}^{m} \alpha_{i} x_{i}$. We also know that there exists $z_{1}$ such that $\left\langle x_{1}, z_{1}\right\rangle=1$ but $\left\langle x_{i}, z_{1}\right\rangle=0$ for all $i \geq 2$. Then we have that

$$
1=\left\langle x_{1}, z_{1}\right\rangle=\left\langle\sum_{i=2}^{m} \alpha_{i} x_{i}, z_{1}\right\rangle=\sum_{i=2}^{m} \alpha_{i}\left\langle x_{i}, z_{1}\right\rangle=0
$$

a contradiction.
Proof of Lemma 6.3: We first prove the case where $m+$ $1=(n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}$ or equivalently $m=(n-1)(k-1)+$ ( $k^{\prime}-1$ ). We will use Lemma 6.1 to demonstrate the linear independence of $x, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$. First we will show that there exists a tensor which is perpendicular to $x^{\otimes n}$ and all but one of the vectors in $x_{1}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{m}^{\otimes n}$. To do this we relabel $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ to $x_{i, j}$ for $(i, j) \in[n-1] \times[k-1]$ and $x_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, x_{k^{\prime}-1}^{\prime}$. From $k$ independence we can find $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n-1}$ such that $\left\langle z_{i}, x_{i, j}\right\rangle=0$ for all $i, j$ and $\left\langle z_{i}, x_{1}^{\prime}\right\rangle=1$. Likewise, from $k^{\prime}$-independence there exists $z$ such that $\left\langle z, x_{1}^{\prime}\right\rangle=1,\left\langle z, x_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle=0$ for all $2 \leq$ $i \leq k^{\prime}-1$, and $\langle z, x\rangle=0$. Now we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle x_{1}^{\left.\prime^{\prime \otimes n}, z \otimes \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} z_{i}\right\rangle=\left\langle x_{1}^{\prime}, z\right\rangle \prod_{i=1}^{n-1}\left\langle x_{1}^{\prime}, z_{i}\right\rangle=1}\right. \\
& \left\langle{x^{\prime} \otimes{ }_{i} \otimes n}^{*}, z \otimes \prod_{j=1}^{n-1} z_{j}\right\rangle=\left\langle x_{i}^{\prime}, z\right\rangle \prod_{j=1}^{n-1}\left\langle x_{i}^{\prime}, z_{j}\right\rangle=0 \quad \forall i \geq 2 \\
& \left\langle x_{i, j}^{\otimes n}, z \otimes \prod_{l=1}^{n-1} z_{l}\right\rangle=\left\langle x_{i, j}, z\right\rangle \prod_{i=1}^{n-1}\left\langle x_{i, j}, z_{l}\right\rangle=0 \quad \forall(i, j) \\
& \left\langle x^{\otimes n}, z \otimes \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} z_{i}\right\rangle=\langle x, z\rangle \prod_{i=1}^{n-1}\left\langle x, z_{i}\right\rangle=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Because $x_{1}^{\prime}$ was arbitrary due to relabeling, there exist tensors $\mathbf{z}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{z}_{m}$ such that $\left\langle x_{i}^{\otimes n}, \mathbf{z}_{i}\right\rangle=1$ for all $i,\left\langle x_{j}^{\otimes n}, \mathbf{z}_{i}\right\rangle=0$ for all $j \neq i$, and $\left\langle x^{\otimes n}, \mathbf{z}_{i}\right\rangle=0$ for all $i$.

We will now find a tensor which is perpendicular to all $x_{1}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{m}^{\otimes n}$ but is not perpendicular to $x^{\otimes n}$, which will complete our proof of the $m+1=(n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}$ case. If $x^{\otimes n-1} \notin \operatorname{span}\left(\left\{x_{1}^{\otimes n-1}, \ldots, x_{(n-1)(k-1)+1}^{\otimes n-1}\right\}\right)$ then there exists a vector $\mathbf{z}$ such that $\left\langle x^{\otimes n-1}, \mathbf{z}\right\rangle=1$ and $\left\langle x_{i}^{\otimes n-1}, \mathbf{z}\right\rangle=$ 0 for all $i \in[(n-1)(k-1)+1]$. By $k^{\prime}$-independence there exists a vector $z$ such that $\langle x, z\rangle=1$ and $\left\langle x_{j}, z\right\rangle=0$ for all $j \in\left\{(n-1)(k-1)+1, \ldots,(n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}-1\right\}$. From this it follows that $\left\langle x^{\otimes n}, \mathbf{z} \otimes z\right\rangle=1$ but $\left\langle x_{i}^{\otimes n}, \mathbf{z} \otimes z\right\rangle=$ 0 for all $i$.
Now we will assume that $x^{\otimes n-1}$ is an element of $\operatorname{span}\left(\left\{x_{1}^{\otimes n-1}, \ldots, x_{(n-1)(k-1)+1}^{\otimes n-1}\right\}\right)$. Note that $x_{1}^{\otimes n-1}, \ldots, x_{(n-1)(k-1)+1}^{\otimes n-1}$ are linearly independent by Lemma 6.2. From this it follows that there exists exactly one linear combination of $x_{1}^{\otimes n-1}, \ldots, x_{(n-1)(k-1)+1}^{\otimes n-1}$ which
is equal to $x^{\otimes n-1}$. We assume without loss of generality that $x_{(n-1)(k-1)+1}^{\otimes n-1}$ has a nonzero coefficient in that solution. Now have that $x^{\otimes n-1}, x_{1}^{\otimes n-1}, \ldots, x_{(n-1)(k-1)}^{\otimes n-1}$ are linearly independent. From this there exists $\mathbf{z}$ such that $\left\langle\mathbf{z}, x_{i}^{\otimes n-1}\right\rangle=0$ for all $i \in[(n-1)(k-1)]$ but $\left\langle\mathbf{z}, x^{\otimes n-1}\right\rangle=1$. By $k^{\prime}$-independence there exists $z$ such that $z \perp x_{(n-1)(k-1)+1}, \ldots, x_{(n-1)(k-1)+\left(k^{\prime}-1\right)}$ but $\langle z, x\rangle=1$. We now have that $z \otimes \mathbf{z} \perp x_{i}^{\otimes n}$ for all $i$ and $\left\langle z \otimes \mathbf{z}, x^{\otimes n}\right\rangle=1$ which finishes the $m+1=(n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}$ case.

We will now take care of the other cases for the values of $m$. If $m+1<(n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}$ then $x^{\otimes n}, x_{1}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{m}^{\otimes n}$ are linearly independent by the same argument made in the $m+1=(n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}$ case so $x^{\otimes n}, x_{1}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{m}^{\otimes n}$ are $m+1$-independent.

If $m+1>(n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}$ we would like to show that any subsequence of $x^{\otimes n}, x_{1}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{m}^{\otimes n}$ containing $(n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}$ vectors is linearly independent. We consider two cases, where a subsequence contains $x^{\otimes n}$ or it does not. If it does then $x^{\otimes n}, x_{i_{1}}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{i_{(n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}-1}^{\otimes n}}$ is linearly independent from the $m+1=(n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}$ case and replacing $x^{\otimes n}$ with $x_{i_{(n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}}^{\otimes n}}$ leaves this sequence linearly independent since $k \geq k^{\prime}$ so $x^{\otimes n}, x_{1}^{\otimes n}, \ldots, x_{m}^{\otimes n}$ is $\left((n-1)(k-1)+k^{\prime}\right)$-independent, thus finishing the proof.

Proof of Theorem 6.1: Note that two Hilbert spaces with the same finite dimension are isometric to one another. Suppose that $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{l}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{l}$ and $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{l}$ with $m \leq l$ such that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{r} x_{i} \otimes y_{i} \otimes z_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{l} a_{j} \otimes b_{j} \otimes c_{j}
$$

Let $\overline{\mathcal{H}}_{x}=\operatorname{span}\left(\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}, a_{1}, \ldots a_{l}\right\}\right)$ with $\overline{\mathcal{H}}_{y}$ and $\overline{\mathcal{H}}_{z}$ defined similarly. Because these spaces are finite dimensional the theorem follows from direct application of Kruskal's Theorem, see the following.

Definition A.1: A matrix $M$ has Kruskal rank $k$ if every collection of $k$ columns of $M$ are linearly independent.
The following theorem is a statement Kruskal's Theorem [40] adapted from [51].

Theorem A.l (Kruskal's Theorem): For a matrix $M$ let $M_{i}$ be its $i$ th column vector. Let $A, B, C$ be matrices of dimensions $d_{A} \times r, d_{B} \times r$, and $d_{C} \times r$ respectively with Kruskal rank $k_{A}, k_{B}, k_{C}$ respectively and let $k_{A}+k_{B}+k_{C} \geq 2 r+2$. Let $F, G, H$ be matrices with dimensions $d_{A} \times s, d_{B} \times s, d_{C} \times s$ with $s \leq r$ and

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{r} A_{i} \otimes B_{i} \otimes C_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{s} F_{j} \otimes G_{j} \otimes H_{j}
$$

Then there exists a permutation matrix $P$ and invertible diagonal matrices $D_{A}, D_{B}, D_{C}$ such that $D_{A} D_{B} D_{C}=I_{r}$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
F & =A D_{A} P \\
G & =B D_{B} P \\
H & =C D_{C} P
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof of Proposition 5.1: Let $\Gamma_{1}, \ldots, \Gamma_{d} \stackrel{i i d}{\sim} \Psi$. We will proceed by contradiction and assume that $\Gamma_{1}, \ldots, \Gamma_{d}$ are
linearly dependent with nonzero probability. It follows that that $\Gamma_{1}=\sum_{i=2}^{d} \alpha_{i} \Gamma_{i}$ for some $\alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{d}$ with nonzero probability. Let $1_{d}$ be the $d$-dimensional vector containing all ones. Because $\Gamma_{1}, \ldots, \Gamma_{d}$ are all probability vectors it follows that

$$
1_{d}^{T} \Gamma_{1}=1_{d}^{T} \sum_{i=2}^{d} \alpha_{i} \Gamma_{i} \Rightarrow 1=\sum_{i=2}^{d} \alpha_{i} .
$$

The probabilistic simplex lies in an affine subspace of dimension $d-1$ which we will call $S$. Because of this there exists an affine operator $f$ which is a bijection between $S$ and a closed subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d-1}$ with $f(x)=M x+b$ for some matrix $M$ and vector $b$. Let $\widetilde{\Gamma}_{i}=f\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)$. We have that $\widetilde{\Gamma}_{i} \sim \Psi\left(f^{-1}(\cdot)\right)$ is a measure on $\mathbb{R}^{d-1}$ which is absolutely continuous wrt the Lebesgue measure on $\mathbb{R}^{d-1}$ and thus $\widetilde{\Gamma}_{1}, \ldots, \widetilde{\Gamma}_{d}$ lie in general position with probability one (see [19] Section 4.5). Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widetilde{\Gamma}_{1}=M \Gamma_{1}+b & =M\left(\sum_{i=2}^{d} \alpha_{i} \Gamma_{i}\right)+\left(\sum_{j=2}^{d} \alpha_{j}\right) b \\
& =\sum_{i=2}^{d} \alpha_{i} M \Gamma_{i}+\alpha_{i} b \\
& =\sum_{i=2}^{d} \alpha_{i}\left(M \Gamma_{i}+b\right)=\sum_{i=2}^{d} \alpha_{i} \widetilde{\Gamma}_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\widetilde{\Gamma}_{2}, \ldots, \widetilde{\Gamma}_{d}$ trivially lie in a $(d-2)$-dimensional affine subspace there exists a vector $v \neq 0_{d-1}$ and $r$ such that $v^{T} \widetilde{\Gamma}_{i}=r$ for $i \geq 2$. Now we have that

$$
v^{T} \sum_{i=2}^{d} \alpha_{i} \widetilde{\Gamma}_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{d} \alpha_{i} r \Rightarrow v^{T} \widetilde{\Gamma}_{1}=r
$$

and thus, with nonzero probability, $\widetilde{\Gamma}_{1}, \ldots, \widetilde{\Gamma}_{d}$ do not lie in general position, a contradiction.

Proof of Theorem 4.3: From [65] Theorem 4.2, for all $m \geq 2$ there exists a mixture of measures $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ which is not $2 m-2$-identifiable, thus there exists a mixture of measures $\mathcal{Q}=\sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}} b_{i} \delta_{\nu_{i}} \neq \mathcal{P}$ with $m^{\prime} \leq m$ and

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \mu_{i}^{\times 2 m-2}=\sum_{j=1}^{m^{\prime}} b_{j} \nu_{j}^{\times 2 m-2}
$$

Since $(k-1) n \leq 2 m-2$ we have that either $(k-1) n=2 m-2$ and it directly follows that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \mu_{i}^{\times(k-1) n}=\sum_{j=1}^{m^{\prime}} b_{j} \nu_{j}^{\times(k-1) n}
$$

or that $(k-1) n<2 m-2$ and we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \mu_{i}^{\times 2 m-2}=\sum_{j=1}^{m^{\prime}} b_{j} \nu_{j}^{\times 2 m-2} \\
\Rightarrow & \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \mu_{i}^{\times(k-1) n} \times \mu_{i}^{\times 2 m-2-(k-1) n} \\
& =\sum_{j=1}^{m^{\prime}} b_{j} \nu_{j}^{\times(k-1) n} \times \nu_{j}^{\times 2 m-2-(k-1) n} \\
\Rightarrow & \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \mu_{i}^{\times(k-1) n} \times \mu_{i}^{\times 2 m-2-(k-1) n}\left(\Omega^{\times 2 m-2-(k-1) n}\right) \\
& =\sum_{j=1}^{m^{\prime}} b_{j} \nu_{j}^{\times(k-1) n} \times \nu_{j}^{\times 2 m-2-(k-1) n}\left(\Omega^{\times 2 m-2-(k-1) n}\right) \\
\Rightarrow & \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \mu_{i}^{\times(k-1) n}=\sum_{j=1}^{m^{\prime}} b_{j} \nu_{j}^{\times(k-1) n}
\end{aligned}
$$

If we let $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}^{\times k-1}}$ and $\mathcal{Q}^{\prime}=\sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}} b_{i} \delta_{\nu_{i}^{\times k-1}}$ then we have that $V_{n}\left(\mathcal{P}^{\prime}\right)=V_{n}\left(\mathcal{Q}^{\prime}\right)$. To finish the proof we will show that $\mu_{1}^{\times k-1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}^{\times k-1}$ are $k$-independent and we are done. To do this we will proceed by contradiction, suppose that they are not $k$-independent and there exists a nontrivial linear combination of $k$ elements in $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m}$ which is equal to zero. We will assume $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{k}$ without loss of generality satisfy this, so

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i} \mu_{i}^{\times k-1}=0
$$

and there exists $i$ such that $\alpha_{i} \neq 0$. Embedding these measures as was done in the proof of Theorem 4.1 we have that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i} p_{i}^{\otimes k-1}=0
$$

but since any pair of distinct $p_{i}, p_{j}$ are 2 -independent, applying Lemma 6.2 gives us that $p_{1}^{\otimes k-1}, \ldots, p_{k}^{\otimes k-1}$ are linearly independent, a contradiction.

Proof of Theorem 4.4: From [65] Theorem 4.4, for all $m \geq 1$ there exists a mixture of measures $\mathcal{P}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ which is not $2 m$-1-determined. From here this proof proceeds exactly as the proof of Theorem 4.3.

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Robert A. Vandermeulen received his PhD in EECS from the University of Michigan and is currently a researcher at the Berlin Institute for the Foundations of Learning and Data. His research interests include deep learning and nonparametric estimation.

René Saitenmacher received his B.Sc. in mathematics from Freie Universität Berlin and his M.Sc. in computer science from Technische Universität Berlin. He is currently a doctoral student at the Weierstrass Institute for Applied Analysis and Stochastics in Berlin, Germany. His research interests include optimization, nonparametric estimation and topics in theoretical machine learning.


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    Robert A. Vandermeulen is with the Berlin Institute for the Foundations of Learning and Data and Machine Learning Group at Technische Universität Berlin.

    René Saitenmacher is with the Weierstrass Institute for Applied Analysis and Stochastics, Berlin, Germany. This work was done while RS was with Machine Learning Group at Technische Universität Berlin.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ All power operators utilize the standard product corresponding to the space they operate in, such as the power measure or the power $\sigma$-algebra [34].

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ Some works use $\otimes_{i=1}^{n}$ instead of this notation.

[^3]:    ${ }^{3}$ It's worth noting that one does indeed have determinedness for $n=2$ and $m=1$ from Table I row 2 .

[^4]:    ${ }^{4}$ There is a somewhat suble point here that two measures are equal if they admit the same measure. So even though some components in the mixture of measures $\sum_{i=1}^{m^{\prime}-(k-1)} a_{i}^{\prime} \delta_{\mu_{i}}$ may have a zero coefficient, it is still a mixture of measures in the sense that was described in Section II-A, although it may have fewer than $m^{\prime}-(k-1)$ mixture components.

