

# Learning mixtures of product distributions over discrete domains

Jon Feldman\*  
Dept. of IEOR  
Columbia University  
jonfeld@ieor.columbia.edu

Ryan O’Donnell†  
Microsoft Research  
Redmond, WA  
odonnell@microsoft.com

Rocco A. Servedio‡  
Dept. of Computer Science  
Columbia University  
rocco@cs.columbia.edu

## Abstract

We consider the problem of learning mixtures of product distributions over discrete domains in the distribution learning framework introduced by Kearns et al. [19]. We give a  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon)$  time algorithm for learning a mixture of  $k$  arbitrary product distributions over the  $n$ -dimensional Boolean cube  $\{0, 1\}^n$  to accuracy  $\epsilon$ , for any constant  $k$ . Previous  $\text{poly}(n)$ -time algorithms could only achieve this for  $k = 2$  product distributions; our result answers an open question stated independently in [8] and [15]. We further give evidence that no polynomial time algorithm can succeed when  $k$  is superconstant, by reduction from a notorious open problem in PAC learning. Finally, we generalize our  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon)$  time algorithm to learn any mixture of  $k = O(1)$  product distributions over  $\{0, 1, \dots, b\}^n$ , for any  $b = O(1)$ .

## 1. Introduction

Given distributions  $\mathbf{X}^1, \dots, \mathbf{X}^k$  over  $\mathbf{R}^n$  and mixing weights  $\pi^1, \dots, \pi^k$  that sum to 1, a draw from the mixture distribution  $\mathbf{Z}$  is obtained by first selecting  $i$  with probability  $\pi^i$  and then making a draw from  $\mathbf{X}^i$ . Mixture distributions arise in many practical scientific situations as diverse as medicine, geology, and artificial intelligence; indeed, there are several textbooks devoted to the subject [25, 20].

Assuming that data arises as a mixture of some distributions from a class of distributions  $\mathcal{C}$ , it is natural to try to learn the parameters of the mixture components. Our work addresses the learning problem in the PAC-style model introduced by Kearns et al. [19]. In this framework we are given a class  $\mathcal{C}$  of probability distributions over  $\mathbf{R}^n$  and access to random data sampled from an unknown mixture  $\mathbf{Z}$  of  $k$  unknown distributions from  $\mathcal{C}$ . The goal is to output

a hypothesis mixture  $\mathbf{Z}'$  of  $k$  distributions from  $\mathcal{C}$  which (with high confidence), is  $\epsilon$ -close to the unknown mixture. The learning algorithm should run in time  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon)$ . The standard notion of “closeness” between distributions  $\mathbf{Z}$  and  $\mathbf{Z}'$ , proposed by Kearns et al. and used in this work, is the Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence (or relative entropy), defined as  $\text{KL}(\mathbf{Z}||\mathbf{Z}') := \int_x \mathbf{Z}(x) \ln(\mathbf{Z}(x)/\mathbf{Z}'(x))$ . (We remind the reader (see e.g. [7]) that  $\|\mathbf{Z} - \mathbf{Z}'\|_1 \leq (2 \ln 2) \sqrt{\text{KL}(\mathbf{Z}||\mathbf{Z}')}$  where  $\|\cdot\|_1$  denotes total variation distance; hence if the KL divergence is small, then the total variation distance is also small.)

In this paper we learn mixtures of product distributions over the Boolean cube  $\{0, 1\}^n$ , and more generally over the  $b$ -ary cube  $\{0, \dots, b-1\}^n$ ; i.e., the classes  $\mathcal{C}$  will consist of distributions  $\mathbf{X}^i$  whose  $n$  coordinates are mutually independent distributions over  $\{0, 1\}$  and  $\{0, \dots, b-1\}$ , respectively. (Of course, the algorithm works for product distributions over  $\Sigma^n$  for any alphabet  $\Sigma$  with  $|\Sigma| = b$ .) Such learning problems have been well studied in the past, as we now describe.

**Related Work.** In [19] Kearns et al. gave efficient algorithms for learning mixtures of Hamming balls; these are product distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^n$  in which all the coordinate means  $\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_j^i]$  must be either  $p$  or  $1-p$  for some unknown  $p$  which is fixed over all mixture components. Although these algorithms can handle mixtures with  $k = O(1)$  many components, the fact that the components are Hamming balls rather than general product distributions is a very strong restriction. (The algorithms also have some additional restrictions:  $p$  has to be bounded away from  $1/2$ , and a more generous learning scenario is assumed in which the learner is also given oracle access to the target distribution  $\mathbf{Z}$  — i.e. she can submit an input  $x$  and get back the probability mass  $\mathbf{Z}$  assigns to  $x$ .)

More recently, Freund and Mansour [15] gave an efficient algorithm for learning a mixture of two general product distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ . Around the same time Cryan et al. [9, 8] gave an efficient algorithm for learning phylogenetic trees in the two-state general Markov model; for the special case in which the tree topology is a star, this gives an

\*Supported by an NSF Mathematical Sciences Postdoctoral Research Fellowship.

†Some of this work was done while at the Institute for Advanced Study, supported in part by the NSF under agreement No. CCR-0324906.

‡Supported in part by NSF CAREER award CCF-0347282.

algorithm for learning an arbitrary mixture of two product distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ . Both [15] and [8] stated as an open question the problem of obtaining a polynomial-time algorithm for learning a mixture of  $k > 2$  product distributions. Indeed, recent work of Mossel and Roch [21] on learning phylogenetic trees argues that the rank-deficiency of transition matrices is a major source of difficulty, and this may indicate why  $k = 2$  has historically been a barrier — a two-row matrix can be rank-deficient only if one row is a multiple of the other, whereas the general case of  $k > 2$  is much more complex.

In other related work, there is a vast literature in statistics on the general problem of analyzing mixture data — see [20, 23, 25] for surveys. To a large degree this work centers on trying to find the exact best mixture model (in terms of likelihood) which explains a given data sample; this is computationally intractable in general. In contrast, our main goal (and the goal of [19, 15, 9, 8, 21]) is to obtain *efficient* algorithms that produce  $\epsilon$ -close hypotheses.

We also note that there has also been recent interest in learning mixtures of  $n$ -dimensional Gaussians from the point of view of *clustering* [10, 11, 2, 26]. In this framework one is given samples from a mixture of “well-separated” Gaussians, and the goal is to classify each point in the sample according to which Gaussian it came from. We discuss the relationship between our scenario and this recent literature on Gaussians in Section 6; here we emphasize that throughout this paper we make no “separation” assumptions (indeed, no assumptions at all) on the component product distributions in the mixture.

Finally, the problem of learning discrete mixture distributions may have applications to other areas of theoretical computer science, such as database privacy [24, 6] and quantum complexity [1].

## 1.1. Our results

In this paper we give an efficient algorithm for learning a mixture of  $k = O(1)$  many product distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ . Our main theorem is the following:

**Theorem 1** *Fix any  $k = O(1)$ , and let  $\mathbf{Z}$  be any unknown mixture of  $k$  product distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ . Then there is an algorithm that, given samples from  $\mathbf{Z}$  and any  $\epsilon, \delta > 0$  as inputs, runs in time  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon) \cdot \log(1/\delta)$  and with probability  $1 - \delta$  outputs a mixture  $\mathbf{Z}'$  of  $k$  product distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^n$  satisfying  $\text{KL}(\mathbf{Z}||\mathbf{Z}') \leq \epsilon$ .*

We emphasize that our algorithm requires none of the additional assumptions — such as minimum mixing weights or coordinate means bounded away from 0, 1/2, or 1 — that appear in some work on learning mixture distributions.

Our algorithm runs in time  $(n/\epsilon)^{k^3}$ , which is polynomial only if  $k$  is constant; however, this dependence may be un-

avoidable. In Theorem 7 we give a reduction from a notorious open question in computational learning theory (the problem of learning decision trees of superconstant size) to the problem of learning a mixture of any superconstant number of product distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ . This implies that solving the mixture learning problem for any  $k = \omega(1)$  would require a breakthrough in learning theory, and suggests that Theorem 1 may be essentially the best possible.

We also generalize our result to learn a mixture of product distributions over  $\{0, \dots, b - 1\}^n$  for any constant  $b$ :

**Theorem 2** *Fix any  $k = O(1)$  and  $b = O(1)$ , and let  $\mathbf{Z}$  be any unknown mixture of  $k$  product distributions over  $\{0, \dots, b - 1\}^n$ . Then there is an algorithm that, given samples from  $\mathbf{Z}$  and any  $\epsilon, \delta > 0$  as inputs, runs in time  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon) \cdot \log(1/\delta)$  and with probability  $1 - \delta$  outputs a mixture  $\mathbf{Z}'$  of  $k$  product distributions over  $\{0, \dots, b - 1\}^n$  satisfying  $\text{KL}(\mathbf{Z}||\mathbf{Z}') \leq \epsilon$ .*

Taking  $b = k$ , this gives a polynomial time algorithm for learning  $k$ -state Markov Evolutionary Trees with a star topology. (Note that the main result of Cryan et al. [9, 8] is an algorithm for learning two-state METs with an arbitrary topology; hence our result is incomparable to theirs.)

## 2. Overview of our approach

### 2.1. The WAM algorithm

The cornerstone of our overall learning algorithms is an algorithm we call WAM (for WEIGHTS AND MEANS). WAM is a general algorithm taking as input a parameter  $\epsilon > 0$  and having access to samples from an unknown mixture  $\mathbf{Z}$  of  $k$  product distributions  $\mathbf{X}^1, \dots, \mathbf{X}^k$ . Here each  $\mathbf{X}^i = (\mathbf{X}_1^i, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n^i)$  is an  $\mathbf{R}^n$ -valued random vector with independent coordinates. The goal of WAM is to output accurate estimates for all of the *mixing weights*  $\pi^i$  and *coordinate means*  $\mu_j^i := \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_j^i]$ . Note that a product distribution over  $\{0, 1\}^n$  is completely specified by its coordinate means.

More precisely, WAM outputs a *list* of  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon)$  many *candidates*  $(\langle \hat{\pi}^1, \dots, \hat{\pi}^k \rangle, \langle \hat{\mu}_1^1, \hat{\mu}_2^1, \dots, \hat{\mu}_n^k \rangle)$ ; each candidate may be viewed as a possible estimate for the correct mixing weights and coordinate means. We will show that with high probability at least one of the candidates output by WAM is *parametrically accurate*; roughly speaking this means that the candidate is a good estimate in the sense that in the sense that  $|\hat{\pi}^i - \pi^i| \leq \epsilon$  for each  $i$  and that  $|\hat{\mu}_j^i - \mu_j^i| \leq \epsilon$  for each  $i$  and  $j$ . However there is a slight twist: if a mixing weight  $\pi^i$  is very low then WAM may not receive any samples from  $\mathbf{X}^i$ , and thus it is not reasonable to require WAM to get an accurate estimate for  $\mu_1^i, \dots, \mu_n^i$ . On the other hand, if  $\pi^i$  is so low then it is not very important to get an accurate estimate for  $\mu_1^i, \dots, \mu_n^i$  because  $\mathbf{X}^i$

has only a tiny effect on  $\mathbf{Z}$ . We thus make the following formal definition:

**Definition 1** A candidate  $(\langle \hat{\pi}^1, \dots, \hat{\pi}^k \rangle, \langle \hat{\mu}_1^1, \hat{\mu}_2^1, \dots, \hat{\mu}_n^k \rangle)$  is said to be parametrically  $\epsilon$ -accurate if:

1.  $|\hat{\pi}^i - \pi^i| \leq \epsilon$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$ ;
2.  $|\hat{\mu}_j^i - \mu_j^i| \leq \epsilon$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$  and  $1 \leq j \leq n$  such that  $\pi^i \geq \epsilon$ .

The main technical theorem in this paper, Theorem 4, shows that so long as the  $\mathbf{X}^i$ 's take values in a bounded range, WAM will with high probability output at least one candidate that is parametrically accurate. The proof of this theorem uses tools from linear algebra (singular value theory) along with a very careful error analysis.

**Remark 3** As will be clear from the proof of Theorem 4, WAM will succeed even if the mixture distributions  $\mathbf{X}^i$  are only pairwise independent, not fully independent. This may be of independent interest.

## 2.2. From WAM to PAC learning (binary case)

As we noted already, in the binary case a product distribution on  $\{0, 1\}^n$  is completely specified by its  $n$  coordinate means; thus a candidate can essentially be viewed as a hypothesis mixture of product distributions. (This is not precisely correct, as the candidate mixing weights may not precisely sum to 1 and the candidate means might be outside the range  $[0, 1]$  by as much as  $\epsilon$ .) To complete the learning algorithm described in Theorem 1 we must give an efficient procedure that takes the list output by WAM and identifies a candidate distribution that is close to  $\mathbf{Z}$  in KL divergence, as required by Theorem 1. We do this in two steps:

1. We first give an efficient procedure that converts a parametrically accurate candidate into a proper hypothesis distribution that is close to  $\mathbf{Z}$  in KL divergence. We apply this procedure to each candidate in the list output by WAM, and thus obtain a list of mixtures (hypotheses), at least one of which is close to  $\mathbf{Z}$  in KL divergence.
2. We then show that a maximum-likelihood procedure can take a list of hypotheses, at least one of which is good (close to  $\mathbf{Z}$  in KL divergence), and identify a single hypothesis which is good.

## 2.3. Larger alphabets

In the larger alphabet setting,  $\mathbf{Z}$  is a mixture of  $k$  product distributions  $\mathbf{X}^1, \dots, \mathbf{X}^k$  over  $\{0, \dots, b-1\}^n$ . Now each mixture component  $\mathbf{X}^i$  is defined by  $bn$  parameters

$p_{j,\ell}^i$  (with  $j = 1, \dots, n$  and  $\ell = 0, \dots, b-1$ ) where  $p_{j,\ell}^i$  is the probability that a draw from  $\mathbf{X}_j^i$  yields  $\ell$ . The simple but useful observation that underlies our extension to  $\{0, \dots, b-1\}^n$  is the following: just as any distribution over  $\{0, 1\}$  is completely specified by its mean, any distribution  $\mathbf{X}_j^i$  over  $\{0, \dots, b-1\}$  is completely specified by its first  $b-1$  moments  $\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_j^i], \mathbf{E}[(\mathbf{X}_j^i)^2], \dots, \mathbf{E}[(\mathbf{X}_j^i)^{b-1}]$ . Our approach is thus to run WAM  $b-1$  times; for  $\ell = 1, \dots, b-1$  the  $\ell$ th run will sample from the mixture distribution given by converting each sample  $(z_1, \dots, z_n)$  to the sample  $(z_1^\ell, \dots, z_n^\ell)$ . We then carefully combine the lists output by the runs of WAM, and follow similar steps to (1) and (2) above to find a good hypothesis in the combined list.

## 2.4. Outline

Most of the main body of this paper, Section 3, is dedicated to explaining the ideas behind the WAM algorithm and its proof of correctness. (The detailed algorithm and proof appear in Appendices A through C.) We discuss the application of WAM to the  $b$ -ary case in Section 4, and in Section 5 we detail our reduction from a notorious open question in computational learning theory. We conclude in Section 6 with a discussion of applications and future work.

The two steps outlined in Section 2.2 are conceptually straightforward, but the details are quite technical, and can be found in the full version of this paper [14].

## 3. The WAM Algorithm

In this section we describe our main algorithm, WAM. We assume a general mixture setting: WAM has access to samples from  $\mathbf{Z}$ , a mixture of  $k$  product distributions  $\mathbf{X}^1, \dots, \mathbf{X}^k$  with mixing weights  $\pi^1, \dots, \pi^k$ . Each  $\mathbf{X}^i = (\mathbf{X}_1^i, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n^i)$  is an  $n$ -dimensional vector-valued random variable. We will further assume that all components' coordinates are bounded in the range  $[-1, 1]$ ; i.e.,  $\mathbf{X}^i \in [-1, 1]^n$  with probability 1. We have chosen  $[-1, 1]$  for convenience; by scaling and translating samples we can get a theorem about any interval such as  $[0, 1]$  or  $[0, (b-1)^{b-1}]$ , with an appropriate scaling of  $\epsilon$ . We write  $\mu_j^i := \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_j^i] \in [-1, 1]$  for the mean of the  $j$ th coordinate of  $\mathbf{X}^i$ .

Our main theorem is the following:

**Theorem 4** *There is an algorithm WAM with the following property: for any  $k = O(1)$  and any  $\epsilon, \delta > 0$ , WAM runs in time  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon) \cdot \log(1/\delta)$  and outputs a list of  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon)$  many candidates, at least one which (with probability at least  $1 - \delta$ ) is parametrically  $\epsilon$ -accurate.*

We give the full proof of correctness in Appendix C. The remainder of this section is devoted to explaining the main ideas behind the algorithm and its analysis.

### 3.1. Overview of WAM

There is of course a brute-force way to come up with a list of candidates ( $\langle \hat{\pi}^1, \dots, \hat{\pi}^k \rangle, \langle \hat{\mu}_1^1, \hat{\mu}_2^1, \dots, \hat{\mu}_n^1 \rangle$ ), at least one of which is parametrically  $\epsilon$ -accurate: simply “try all possible values” for the parameters up to additive accuracy  $\epsilon$ . In other words, try all values  $0, \epsilon, 2\epsilon, 3\epsilon, \dots, 1$  for the mixing weights and all values  $-1, -1 + \epsilon, \dots, 1 - \epsilon, 1$  for the means. We call this approach “gridding”. Unfortunately there are  $\Theta(n)$  parameters in a candidate so this naive gridding strategy requires time (and produces a list of length)  $(1/\epsilon)^{\Theta(n)}$ , which is clearly unacceptable.

The basic idea behind WAM is as follows: given all pairwise correlations between the coordinates of  $\mathbf{Z}$ , it can be shown that there are a *constant* number of “key” parameters that suffice to determine all others. Hence in polynomial time we can empirically estimate all the correlations, try all possibilities for the constantly many key parameters, and then determine the remaining  $\Theta(n)$  parameters.

The main challenge in implementing this idea is that it is not *a priori* clear that the error incurred from gridding the key parameters does not “blow up” when these are used to obtain the remaining parameters. The heart of our analysis involves showing that it suffices to grid the key parameters to granularity  $\text{poly}(\epsilon/n)$  in order to get final error  $\epsilon$ .

### 3.2. The algorithm, and intuition for the analysis

We will now go over the steps of the algorithm WAM and at the same time provide an “intuitive” discussion of the analysis. A concise description of the steps of WAM is given in Appendix A for the reader’s convenience. Throughout this section we will assume for the sake of discussion that the steps we take incur no error; a sketch of the actual error analysis appears in Section 3.3.

The first step of WAM is to “grid” the values of the mixing weights  $\{\pi^i\}$  to granularity  $\epsilon_{\text{wts}} := \epsilon^3$ . Since there are only constantly many mixing weights, this costs just a multiplicative factor of  $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$  in the running time. The remainder of the algorithm “assumes” that the values currently being gridded for the mixing weights are the nearly-correct values of the mixing weights. In fact, for the purposes of this intuitive description of WAM, we will simply assume we have exactly correct values.

The next step is simple: Suppose some  $s$  of the  $k$  mixing weights we have are smaller than  $\epsilon$ . By the definition of being “ $\epsilon$ -parametrically accurate”, we are not obliged to worry about coordinates with such small mixing weights; we will simply forget about these mixture components completely and treat  $k$  as  $k-s$  in what follows. (We assign arbitrary values for the candidate means of the forgotten components.) We may henceforth assume that  $\pi^i \geq \epsilon > 0$  for all  $i$ .

The next step of algorithm WAM is to use samples from

$\mathbf{Z}$  to estimate the pairwise correlations between the coordinates of  $\mathbf{Z}$ . Specifically, for all pairs of coordinates  $1 \leq j < j' \leq n$ , the algorithm WAM empirically estimates

$$\text{corr}(j, j') = \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{Z}_j \mathbf{Z}_{j'}].$$

The estimation will be done to within additive accuracy  $\epsilon_{\text{matrix}} = \text{poly}(\epsilon/n)$ ; specifically,  $\epsilon_{\text{matrix}} := \tau^{k+1}$ , where  $\tau := \epsilon^2/n^2$ . With high (i.e.  $1 - \delta$ ) confidence we will get good such estimates in time  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon)$ . Again, for the purposes of this intuitive description of WAM we will henceforth assume we have exactly correct values for each value  $\text{corr}(j, j')$ . (As an aside, this is the only part of the algorithm that uses samples from  $\mathbf{Z}$ ; as we will shortly see, this justifies Remark 3.)

Observe that since  $\mathbf{X}_j^i$  and  $\mathbf{X}_{j'}^i$  are (pairwise) independent we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{corr}(j, j') &= \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{Z}_j \mathbf{Z}_{j'}] = \sum_{i=1}^k \pi^i \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_j^i \mathbf{X}_{j'}^i] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k \pi^i \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_j^i] \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_{j'}^i] = \sum_{i=1}^k \pi^i \mu_j^i \mu_{j'}^i. \end{aligned}$$

Let us define  $\tilde{\mu}_j^i = \sqrt{\pi^i} \mu_j^i$  and write  $\tilde{\mu}_j = (\tilde{\mu}_j^1, \tilde{\mu}_j^2, \dots, \tilde{\mu}_j^k) \in [-1, 1]^k$  for  $1 \leq j \leq n$ . We thus have

$$\text{corr}(j, j') = \tilde{\mu}_j \cdot \tilde{\mu}_{j'},$$

where  $\cdot$  denotes the dot product in  $\mathbf{R}^k$ . The remaining task for WAM is to determine all the values  $\mu_j^i$ . Since WAM already has values for each  $\pi^i$  and each  $\pi^i \geq \epsilon > 0$ , it suffices for WAM to determine all the values  $\tilde{\mu}_j^i$  and then divide by  $\sqrt{\pi^i}$ .

At this point WAM has empirically estimated values for all the pairwise dot products  $\tilde{\mu}_j \cdot \tilde{\mu}_{j'}$ ,  $j \neq j'$ , and as mentioned, for intuitive purposes we are assuming all of these estimates are exactly correct. Let  $M$  denote the  $k \times n$  matrix whose  $(i, j)$  entry is the unknown  $\tilde{\mu}_j^i$ ; i.e., the  $j$ th column of  $M$  is  $\tilde{\mu}_j$ . The statement that WAM has all the dot products  $\tilde{\mu}_j \cdot \tilde{\mu}_{j'}$  for  $j \neq j'$  is equivalent to saying that WAM has all the *off-diagonal* entries of the Gram matrix  $M^\top M$ . We are thus led to the central problem WAM solves:

**Central Task:** *Given (estimates for) the off-diagonal entries of the Gram matrix  $M^\top M$ , obtain (estimates of) all possible candidates for the entries of the  $k \times n$  matrix  $M$ .*

(A remark: The diagonal entries of  $M^\top M$  are the quantities  $\tilde{\mu}_j \cdot \tilde{\mu}_j = \sum_{i=1}^k \pi^i (\mu_j^i)^2$  and there is no obvious way to estimate these quantities using samples from  $\mathbf{Z}$ . Also there are  $n$  such quantities, which is too many to “grid over”. Nevertheless, the fact that we are missing the diagonal entries of  $M^\top M$  will not play an important role for WAM.)

In general, a complete  $n \times n$  Gram matrix determines the original  $k \times n$  matrix up to isometries on  $\mathbf{R}^k$ . Such

isometries can be described by  $k \times k$  orthonormal matrices, and these  $k^2$  “degrees of freedom” roughly correspond to the constantly many key parameters that we grid over in the end. A geometric intuition for the Central Task is the following: there are  $n$  unknown vectors in  $\mathbf{R}^k$  and we have all the “angles” between them (more precisely, the dot products) between them. Thus fixing  $k$  of the vectors (hence  $k^2$  unknown coordinates) is enough to completely determine the remainder of the vectors.

**The full rank case.** We proceed with our intuitive description of WAM and show how to solve the Central Task *when  $M$  has full rank*. Having done this, we will give the actual steps of the algorithm that show how the full rank assumption can be removed.

So suppose for now that  $M$  has full rank. Then there exists some set of  $k$  columns of  $M$  that are linearly independent, say  $J = \{j_1, \dots, j_k\} \subset [n]$ . Algorithm WAM tries all  $\binom{n}{k} = \text{poly}(n)$  possibilities for the set  $J$  and then grids over the vectors  $\tilde{\mu}_{j_1}, \dots, \tilde{\mu}_{j_k}$  with granularity  $\epsilon_{\text{matrix}} = \text{poly}(\epsilon/n)$  in each coordinate. As usual for the purposes of intuition, we assume that we now have  $\tilde{\mu}_{j_1}, \dots, \tilde{\mu}_{j_k}$  exactly correct.

Let  $M_J$  be the  $k \times k$  matrix given by the  $J$ -columns of  $M$ , and let  $M_{\bar{J}}$  be the  $k \times (n - k)$  matrix given by deleting the  $J$ -columns of  $M$ . WAM now has the entries of  $M_J$  and must compute the remaining unknowns,  $M_{\bar{J}}$ . Since WAM has all of the off-diagonal entries of  $M^\top M$ , it has all of the values of  $B = M_{\bar{J}}^\top M_J$ . (See Figure 1.) But the columns of  $M_J$  are linearly independent, so  $M_J$  is invertible and hence WAM can compute  $M_{\bar{J}}^\top = B M_J^{-1}$  in  $\text{poly}(n)$  time. Having done this, WAM has all the entries of  $M$  and so the Central Task is complete, as is the algorithm.

**The general case.** Of course in general,  $M$  does not have full rank. This represents the main conceptual problem we faced in rigorously solving the Central Task. Indeed, we believe that handling rank-deficiency is the chief conceptual problem for the whole learning mixtures question, and that our linear algebraic methods for overcoming it (the description of which occupies the remainder of Section 3) are the main technical contribution of this paper.

Suppose  $\text{rank}(M) = r < k$ . By trying all possible values (only constantly many), algorithm WAM can be assumed to know  $r$ . Now by definition of  $\text{rank}(M) = r$  there must exist  $k - r$  orthonormal vectors  $u_{r+1}, \dots, u_k \in [-1, 1]^k$  which are orthogonal to all columns of  $M$ . WAM grids over these vectors with granularity  $\epsilon_{\text{matrix}}$ , incurring another multiplicative  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon)$  time factor. As usual, assume for the intuitive discussion that we now have the  $u_j$ ’s exactly. Let these vectors be adjoined as columns to  $M$ , forming  $M'$ . But now the matrix  $M'$  has full rank; furthermore, WAM knows all the off-diagonal elements of  $(M')^\top M'$ , i.e. all the pairwise dot products of  $M'$ ’s columns, since all of the new dot products which involve

the  $u_j$ ’s are simply 0! Thus we now have an instance of the Central Task with a full-rank matrix, a case we already solved. (Technically,  $n$  may now be as large as  $n + (k - 1)$ , but this is still  $O(n)$  and hence no time bounds are affected.) Given all entries of  $M'$  we certainly have all entries of  $M$ , and so we have solved the Central Task and completed the algorithm WAM in the rank-deficient case.

### 3.3. Sketch of the actual analysis of WAM

The preceding intuitive discussion of algorithm WAM neglected all error analysis. Correctly handling the error analysis is the somewhat subtle issue we discuss in this section. As mentioned, the full proof is given in Appendix C.

The main issue in the error analysis comes in understanding the right notion of the rank of  $M$  — since of all our gridding inevitably yields only approximations of the entries of  $M$ , the actual notion of rank is far too fragile to be of use. Recall the outline of the algorithm in our idealized intuition (rank-deficient case):

$r$  = dimension of subspace in which  $\tilde{\mu}_j$ ’s lie

- ⇒ augment  $M$  by  $k - r$  orthogonal  $u_i$ ’s, forming  $M'$
- ⇒  $M'$  now full rank
- ⇒ find nonsingular  $k \times k$  submatrix  $M'_{\bar{J}}$
- ⇒ solve linear system  $M'_{\bar{J}}^\top M'_{\bar{J}} = B$

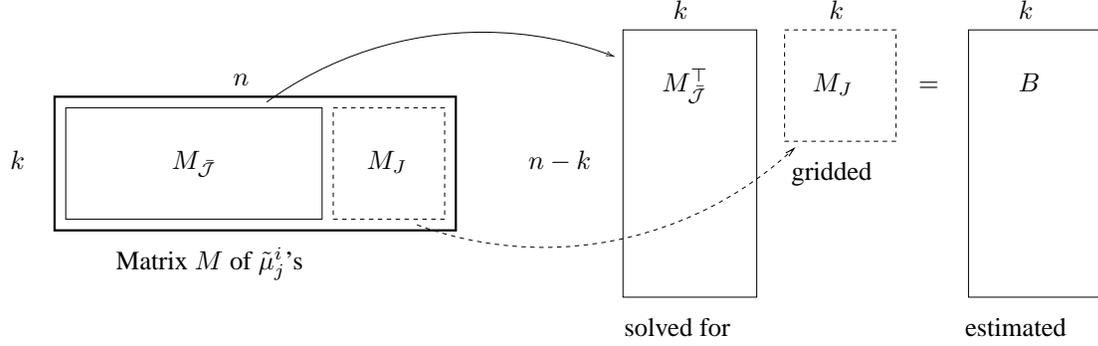
For the purposes of the error analysis, we reinterpret the operation of WAM as follows:

$r^*$  = dimension of subspace in which the  $\tilde{\mu}_j$ ’s “essentially” lie

- ⇒ augment  $M$  by  $k - r^*$  “essentially” orthogonal  $u_i$ ’s, forming  $M' \Rightarrow M'$  now “strongly” full rank
- ⇒ find “strongly” nonsingular  $k \times k$  submatrix  $M'_{\bar{J}}$
- ⇒ solve linear system  $M'_{\bar{J}}^\top M'_{\bar{J}} = B$  (1)

The real difficulty of the error analysis comes in the last step: controlling the error incurred from the solution of the linear system. Since we will only have approximately correct values for the entries of  $M'_{\bar{J}}$  and  $B$ , we need to analyze the additive error arising from solving a perturbed linear system. Standard results from numerical analysis (see Corollary 5 in Appendix B) let us bound this error by a function of: (i) the error in  $M'_{\bar{J}}$  and  $B$ , and (ii) the smallest *singular value* of  $M'_{\bar{J}}$ , denoted by  $\sigma_k(M')$ .

Let us briefly recall some notions related to singular values: Given any  $k \times n$  matrix  $M$ , the first (largest) singular value of  $M$  is  $\sigma_1(M) = \max_{\|u_1\|_2=1} \|u_1^\top M\|_2$ , and a  $u_1$  achieving this maximum is taken as the first (*left*) *singular vector* of  $M$ . The second singular value of  $M$  is  $\sigma_2(M) = \max_{\|u_2\|_2=1, u_2 \perp u_1} \|u_2^\top M\|_2$ , and  $u_2$  is the second left singular vector of  $M$ . In general, the  $i$ th singular value and



**Figure 1. The full rank case. We solve for the unknown  $\tilde{\mu}_j^i$ 's in  $M_{\mathcal{J}}$ .**

vector are given by maximizing over all  $\|u_i\|_2 = 1$  orthogonal to all  $u_1, \dots, u_{i-1}$ . In a well-defined sense (the Frobenius norm), the smallest singular value  $\sigma_k(M)$  measures the distance of  $M$  from being singular.

WAM's final error bounds arise from dividing the error in its estimates for  $M'_{\mathcal{J}}$  and  $B$  by the smallest singular value of  $M'_{\mathcal{J}}$ . The error in the estimates for the entries of  $M'_{\mathcal{J}}$  come from gridding, and thus can essentially be made as small as desired; WAM makes them smaller than  $\epsilon_{\text{matrix}}$ . The errors in  $B$  come from two sources: some of the entries of  $B$  are estimates of quantities  $\tilde{\mu}_j \cdot \tilde{\mu}_{j'} = \text{corr}(j, j')$ , and again these errors can be made essentially as small as desired, smaller than  $\epsilon_{\text{matrix}}$ . However the other errors in  $B$  come from approximating the quantities  $\tilde{\mu}_j \cdot u_i$  by 0; i.e., assuming the augmenting vectors are orthogonal to the columns of  $M$ .

As the reader may by now have guessed, the vectors with which WAM attempts to augment  $M$  will be the last  $k - r^*$  singular vectors of  $M$ ,  $u_{r^*+1}, \dots, u_k$ . The hope is that for an appropriate choice of  $r^*$ , these singular vectors will be “essentially” orthogonal to the columns of  $M$ , and that the resulting  $M'$  will be “strongly” full rank, in the sense that  $\sigma_k(M')$  will be somewhat large (cf. (1)). One can show (see Proposition 8 of Appendix B) that the extent to which the  $u_i$ 's are orthogonal to the columns of  $M$  is controlled by the  $(r^* + 1)$ th singular value of  $M$ ; i.e.,  $|\tilde{\mu}_j \cdot u_i| \leq \sigma_{r^*+1}(M)$  for all  $i \geq r^* + 1$ ; this is precisely the error we incur for the zero entries in  $B$ . On the other hand, one can also show that the augmented  $M'$  has smallest singular value at least  $\sigma_{r^*}(M)$ . Thus we are motivated to choose  $r^*$  so as to get a large multiplicative gap between  $\sigma_{r^*}(M)$  and  $\sigma_{r^*+1}(M)$ :

**Definition 2** Given  $\tau > 0$ , the  $\tau$ -essential rank of  $M$  is

$$r^*(M) = r_{\tau}^*(M) = \min_{0 \leq r \leq k} \{\sigma_{r+1}(M)/\sigma_r(M) \leq \tau\},$$

where we take  $\sigma_0(M) = 1$  and  $\sigma_{k+1}(M) = 0$ .

One might think that if the additive error incurred from solving the linear system were to be roughly

$\sigma_{r^*}(M)/\sigma_{r^*+1}(M)$  then it should suffice to select  $\tau$  on the order of  $\text{poly}(\epsilon)$ . However, there is still a missing piece of the analysis: Although the smallest singular value of  $M'$  becomes at least  $\sigma_{r^*}(M)$  after adjoining the  $u_j$ 's, we only use a  $k \times k$  submatrix  $M'_{\mathcal{J}}$  to solve the linear system. Is it the case that if  $M'$  has a large smallest singular value then its “best”  $k \times k$  submatrix also has a somewhat large smallest singular value? We need a quantitative version of the fact that a nonsingular  $k \times n$  matrix has a  $k \times k$  nonsingular submatrix (again, cf. (1)).

This does not seem to be a well-studied problem, and indeed there are some open questions in linear algebra surrounding the issue. It is possible to derive an extremely weak quantitative result of the required nature using the Cauchy-Binet formula. We instead give the following quantitatively strong version:

**Corollary 5** Let  $A$  be a  $k \times n$  real matrix with  $\sigma_k(A) \geq \epsilon$ . Then there exists a subset of columns  $J \subseteq [n]$  with  $|J| = k$  such that  $\sigma_k(A_J) \geq \epsilon/\sqrt{k(n-k)+1}$ .

(We call the result a corollary because our proof in Appendix B is derived from a 1997 linear algebraic result of Goreinov, Tyrtyshnikov, and Zamarashkin [16]. Incidentally, it is conjectured in their paper, and we also conjecture, that  $\sqrt{k(n-k)+1}$  can be replaced by  $\sqrt{n}$ .)

With this result in hand it becomes sufficient to take  $\tau = \epsilon^2/n^2$ , as described in the previous section. Now the error analysis can be completed:

- If  $M$  has a singular value gap of  $\tau$  and so has essential rank  $r^* < k$ , then when WAM tries out the appropriate  $r^*$  and singular vectors, the error it incurs from solving the linear system is roughly at most  $O(\sqrt{n}\tau) = O(\epsilon^2/n^{3/2})$ ; and as we show at the end of Appendix C, having this level of control over errors in solving the linear system for the unknown  $\tilde{\mu}_j^i$ 's lets us obtain the final  $\mu_j^i$  values to the required  $\epsilon$ -accuracy.
- If  $M$  has no singular value gap smaller than  $\tau$  then

its smallest singular value is at least  $\tau^k$  to begin with; thus it suffices to take  $\epsilon_{\text{matrix}} = \tau^{k+1} = \text{poly}(\epsilon/n)$  to control the errors in the full-rank case.

See Appendix C for the detailed proof of correctness.

## 4. Estimating Higher Moments

In this section we explain our remarks from Section 2.3 more thoroughly; specifically, how to use WAM to learn a mixture  $\mathbf{Z}$  of  $k$  product distributions  $\mathbf{X}^1, \dots, \mathbf{X}^k$  over  $\{0, \dots, b-1\}^n$ . Such a distribution can be “parametrically” described by mixing weights  $\{\pi^i\}_{i \in [k]}$  and probabilities  $\{p_{j,\ell}^i\}$ , where  $p_{j,\ell}^i = \Pr[\mathbf{X}_j^i = \ell]$ .

Running WAM on samples from  $\mathbf{Z}$  gives a list of estimates of mixing weights and coordinate means  $\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_j^i]$ , but these coordinate means are insufficient to completely describe the distributions  $\mathbf{X}_j^i$ . However, suppose that we run WAM on samples from  $\mathbf{Z}^\ell$  (i.e. each time we obtain a draw  $(z_1, \dots, z_n)$  from  $\mathbf{Z}$ , we actually give  $(z_1^\ell, \dots, z_n^\ell)$  to WAM). It is easy to see that by doing this, we are running WAM on the  $\pi$ -weighted mixture of distributions  $(\mathbf{X}^1)^\ell, \dots, (\mathbf{X}^k)^\ell$ ; we will thus get as output a list of candidates for the mixing weights and the *coordinate  $\ell$ th moments*  $\mathbf{E}[(\mathbf{X}_j^i)^\ell]$  for  $\mathbf{Z}$ .

Our algorithm for distributions over  $\{0, \dots, b-1\}^n$  uses this approach to obtain a list of candidate descriptions of each of the first  $b-1$  coordinate moments of  $\mathbf{Z}$ . The algorithm then essentially takes the cross-product of these  $b-1$  lists to obtain a list of overall candidates, each of which is an estimate of the mixing weights and all  $b-1$  moments. Since WAM guarantees that each list contains an accurate estimate, the overall list will also contain an accurate estimate of the mixing weights and of all moments. For each candidate the estimate of the moments is then easily converted to “parametric form”  $\{p_{j,\ell}^i\}$ , and as we show, any candidate with accurate estimates of the moments yields an accurate estimate of the probabilities  $p_{j,\ell}^i$ .

We now give the main theorem of the section, the proof of which (given in [14]) contains the details of the algorithm:

**Theorem 6** Fix  $k = O(1), b = O(1)$ . Let  $\mathbf{Z}$  be a mixture of  $k$  product distributions  $\mathbf{X}^1, \dots, \mathbf{X}^k$  over  $\{0, \dots, b-1\}^n$ , so  $\mathbf{Z}$  is described by mixing weights  $\pi^1, \dots, \pi^k$  and probabilities  $\{p_{j,\ell}^i\}_{i \in [k], j \in [n], \ell \in \{0, \dots, b-1\}}$ .

There is an algorithm with the following property: for any  $\epsilon, \delta > 0$ , the algorithm runs in  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon) \cdot \log \frac{1}{\delta}$  time and with probability  $1 - \delta$  outputs a list of candidates  $\langle \{\hat{\pi}^i\}, \{\hat{p}_{j,\ell}^i\} \rangle$  such that for at least one candidate in the list, the following holds:

1.  $|\hat{\pi}^i - \pi^i| \leq \epsilon$  for all  $i \in [k]$ ; and
2.  $|\hat{p}_{j,\ell}^i - p_{j,\ell}^i| \leq \epsilon$  for all  $i, j, \ell$  such that  $\pi^i \geq \epsilon$ .

## 5. A Hardness Result

The following theorem gives evidence that the class of mixtures of  $k(n)$  product distributions over the Boolean cube may be hard to learn in polynomial time for any  $k(n) = \omega(1)$ :

**Theorem 7** For any function  $k(n)$ , if there is a  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon)$  time algorithm which learns a mixture of  $k(n)$  many product distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ , then there is a  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon)$  time uniform distribution PAC learning algorithm which learns the class of all  $k(n)$ -leaf decision trees.

The basic idea behind this theorem is quite simple. Given any  $k(n)$ -leaf decision tree  $T$ , the set of all positive examples for  $T$  is a union of at most  $k(n)$  many disjoint subcubes of  $\{0, 1\}^n$ , and thus the uniform distribution over the positive examples is a mixture of at most  $k(n)$  product distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ . If we can obtain a high-accuracy hypothesis mixture  $\mathcal{D}$  for this mixture of product distributions, then roughly speaking  $\mathcal{D}$  must put “large” weight on the positive examples and “small” weight on the negative examples. We can thus use  $\mathcal{D}$  to make accurate predictions of  $T$ ’s value on new examples very simply as follows: given a new example  $x$  to classify, we simply compute the probability weight that the hypothesis mixture  $\mathcal{D}$  puts on  $x$ , and output 1 or 0 depending on whether this weight is large or small. We give the formal proof of Theorem 7 in [14].

We note that after years of intensive research, no  $\text{poly}(n)$  time uniform distribution PAC learning algorithm is known which can learn  $k(n)$ -leaf decision trees for any  $k(n) = \omega(1)$ ; indeed, such an algorithm would be a major breakthrough in computational learning theory. (Avrim Blum has offered a \$1000 prize for solving a subproblem of the  $k(n) = n$  case and a \$500 prize for a subproblem of the  $k(n) = \log n$  case; see [4].) The fastest algorithms to date [12, 3] can learn  $k(n)$ -leaf decision trees under the uniform distribution in time  $n^{\log k(n)}$ . This suggests that it may be impossible to learn mixtures of a superconstant number of product distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^n$  in polynomial time.

## 6. Conclusions and Future Work

We have shown how to learn mixtures of any constant number of product distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ , and more generally over  $\{0, \dots, b-1\}^n$ , in polynomial time.

The methods we use are quite general and can be adapted to learn mixtures of other types of multivariate product distributions which are definable in terms of their moments. Along these lines, we have used the approach in this paper to give a PAC-style algorithm for learning mixtures of  $k = O(1)$  axis-aligned Gaussians in polynomial time [13]. (We note that while some previous work on learning mixtures of Gaussians from a clustering perspective can handle

$k = \omega(1)$  many component Gaussians, all such work assumes that there is some minimum separation between the centers of the component Gaussians, since otherwise clustering is clearly impossible. In contrast, our result in [13] — in which we do not attempt to do clustering but instead find a hypothesis distribution with small KL-divergence from the target mixture — does not require us to assume that the component Gaussians are separated.) We expect that our techniques can also be adapted to learn mixtures of other distributions such as products of exponential distributions or beta distributions.

It is natural to ask if our approach can be extended to learn mixtures of distributions which are not necessarily product distributions; this is an interesting direction for future work. Note that our main algorithmic ingredient, algorithm WAM, only requires that the coordinate distributions be pairwise independent.

Finally, one may also ask if it is possible to improve the efficiency of our learning algorithms — can the running times be reduced to  $n^{O(k^2)}$ , to  $n^{O(k)}$ , or even  $n^{O(\log k)}$ ?

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## A. Algorithm WAM

Algorithm WAM has access to samples from the mixture  $\mathbf{Z}$  and takes as input parameters  $\epsilon, \delta > 0$ .

Algorithm WAM:

1. Let  $\epsilon_{\text{wts}} = \epsilon^3$ ,  $\tau = \epsilon^2/n^2$ , and  $\epsilon_{\text{matrix}} = \tau^{k+1}$ .
2. Grid over the mixing weights, producing values  $\hat{\pi}^1, \dots, \hat{\pi}^k \in [0, 1]$  accurate to within  $\pm \epsilon_{\text{wts}}$ . If  $s$  of these weights are smaller than  $\epsilon - \epsilon_{\text{wts}}$ , eliminate them and treat  $k$  as  $k - s$  in what follows.
3. Make empirical estimates  $\widehat{\text{corr}}(j, j')$  for all correlations  $\text{corr}(j, j') = \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{Z}_j \mathbf{Z}_{j'}] = \tilde{\mu}_j \cdot \tilde{\mu}_{j'}$  for  $j \neq j'$  to within  $\pm \epsilon_{\text{matrix}}$ , with confidence  $1 - \delta$ .
4. Let  $M$  be the  $k \times n$  matrix of unknowns  $(M_{ij}) = (\tilde{\mu}_j^i)$ , and try all possible integers  $0 \leq r^* \leq k$  for the essential rank of  $M$ .
5. Grid over  $k - r^*$  vectors  $\hat{u}_{r^*+1}, \dots, \hat{u}_k \in [-1, 1]^k$  to within  $\pm \epsilon_{\text{matrix}}$  in each coordinate and augment  $M$  with these as columns, forming  $\widehat{M}'$ .



In Step 2 of WAM the algorithm will grid over estimates  $\hat{\pi}^i$  that satisfy  $|\hat{\pi}^i - \pi^i|$  for all  $i$ . In this case, any mixing component  $\mathbf{X}^i$  whose mixing weight  $\pi^i$  is at least  $\epsilon$  will not be eliminated. Since we need not be concerned with accuracy for the means of the other mixing components, we can ignore them and assume for the rest of the proof that  $\pi^i \geq \epsilon$  for all  $i$ .

Now we come to the main work in the proof of correctness of Theorem 4: namely, showing that in Steps 3–7 of algorithm WAM, accurate estimates for the  $\tilde{\mu}_j^i$ 's are produced. Our goal for most of the rest of the proof will be to show we obtain estimates  $\hat{\mu}_j^i$  satisfying  $|\hat{\mu}_j^i - \tilde{\mu}_j^i| \leq \tilde{\epsilon} := \epsilon^2$  for all  $i$ . To that end, let  $r^* = r_\tau^*(M)$ , the  $\tau$ -essential rank of  $M$ . We will quickly dismiss the two easy cases,  $r^* = 0$  and  $r^* = k$ ; we then treat the general case  $0 < r^* < k$ .

**$r^* = 0$  case.** By definition, in this case  $\sigma_1(M) \leq \tau \leq \tilde{\epsilon}$ . Since  $\sigma_1(M)$  is at least as large as the magnitude of  $M$ 's largest entry we must therefore have  $|\tilde{\mu}_j^i| \leq \tilde{\epsilon}$  for all  $i, j$ . Now when WAM tries  $r^* = 0$  in Step 4, tries the  $k$  standard basis vectors for  $\hat{u}_1, \dots, \hat{u}_k$  in Step 5, and chooses all of these vectors for  $\mathcal{J}$  in Step 6, it will set  $\hat{B} = 0$  in Step 7 and get  $\hat{\mu}_j^i = 0$  for all  $i, j$  when it solves the linear system. This is within an additive  $\tau \leq \tilde{\epsilon}$  of the true values, as desired.

**$r^* = k$  case.** By definition, it's not hard to see that in this case we must have  $\sigma_k(M) \geq \tau^k$ . Now consider when WAM tries  $r^* = k$  in Step 4. Step 5 becomes vacuous. By Corollary 5 there is some set of  $k$  columns  $\mathcal{J} = J$  such that  $\sigma_k(M_{\mathcal{J}}) \geq \sigma_k(M)/\sqrt{k(n-k)+1} \geq \tau^k/n$ . In Step 6 WAM will try out this  $\mathcal{J}$  and grid the associated entries to within  $\pm\epsilon_{\text{matrix}}$ . In Step 7 the algorithm will use only  $\widehat{\text{corr}}$ 's in forming  $\hat{B}$  and these will also be correct to within an additive  $\pm\epsilon_{\text{matrix}}$ . We can now use Corollary 9 — note that  $\epsilon_{\text{matrix}} = \tau^{k+1} \leq (\tau^k/n)/2k \leq \sigma_k(M_{\mathcal{J}})/2k$ , as necessary. This gives estimates in Step 7 satisfying  $|\hat{\mu}_j^i - \tilde{\mu}_j^i| \leq O(k) \frac{2\epsilon_{\text{matrix}}}{\tau^k/n} = O(kn\tau) \leq \tilde{\epsilon}$ , as desired.

**$0 < r^* < k$  case.** In this case, by definition of the essential rank, we have

$$\tau\sigma_{r^*}(M) \geq \sigma_{r^*+1}(M) \geq \tau^k. \quad (2)$$

In Step 4 WAM will try out the correct value for  $r^*$  and in Step 5 WAM will grid over vectors  $\hat{u}_{r^*+1}, \dots, \hat{u}_k$  that are within  $\pm\epsilon_{\text{matrix}}$  in each coordinate of the actual last left singular vectors of  $M$ ,  $u_{r^*+1}, \dots, u_k$ . Let  $M'$  denote the matrix  $M$  with these true singular vectors adjoined. By Proposition 8 we have  $\sigma_k(M') \geq \min\{1, \sigma_{r^*}(M)\}$ . From the crude upper bound  $\sigma_{r^*}(M) \leq \|M\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i,j} (\tilde{\mu}_j^i)^2} \leq \sqrt{kn}$ , we can restate this as simply  $\sigma_k(M') \geq \sigma_{r^*}(M)/\sqrt{kn}$ . Now applying Corollary 5 we conclude there is a subset  $\mathcal{J}$  of  $M'$ 's columns

with  $|\mathcal{J}| = k$  such that

$$\sigma_k(M'_{\mathcal{J}}) \geq \sigma_k(M')/\sqrt{k(n-k)+1} \geq \sigma_{r^*}(M)/kn. \quad (3)$$

In Step 6, WAM will try this set of columns  $\mathcal{J} = J \cup J'$ ; it will also grid estimates for the entries in this column that are correct up to an additive  $\pm\epsilon_{\text{matrix}}$ . Note that WAM now has an  $\widehat{M'_{\mathcal{J}}}$  that has all entries correct up to an additive  $\pm\epsilon_{\text{matrix}}$ . Now consider the matrix  $\hat{B}$  WAM forms in Step 7. For the columns corresponding to  $J$  the entries are given by  $\widehat{\text{corr}}$ 's, which are correct to within  $\pm\epsilon_{\text{matrix}}$ . For the columns corresponding to  $J'$  the entries are 0's; by the second part of Proposition 8 these are correct up to an additive  $\sigma_{r^*+1}(M)$ . We now use Corollary 5 to bound the error resulting from solving the system  $M'_{\mathcal{J}} \widehat{M'_{\mathcal{J}}} = \hat{B}$  in Step 7. To check that the necessary hypothesis is satisfied we combine (2) and (3) to obtain  $\sigma_k(M'_{\mathcal{J}})/2k \geq \sigma_{r^*}(M)/2k^2n \geq \tau^{k-1}/2k^2n \geq \tau^{k+1} = \epsilon_{\text{matrix}}$ . Now Corollary 9 tells us that the  $\tilde{\mu}_j^i$  produced satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} |\hat{\mu}_j^i - \tilde{\mu}_j^i| &\leq O(k) \frac{\epsilon_{\text{matrix}} + \max\{\epsilon_{\text{matrix}}, \sigma_{r^*+1}(M)\}}{\sigma_k(M'_{\mathcal{J}})} \\ &\leq O(k^2n) \frac{\epsilon_{\text{matrix}} + \sigma_{r^*+1}(M)}{\sigma_{r^*}(M)}, \end{aligned}$$

where in the last step we used (3). But by (2) we have  $\epsilon_{\text{matrix}}/\sigma_{r^*}(M) \leq \epsilon_{\text{matrix}}/\tau^{k-1} = \tau^2$  and also  $\sigma_{r^*+1}(M)/\sigma_{r^*}(M) \leq \tau$ . Thus we have  $|\hat{\mu}_j^i - \tilde{\mu}_j^i| \leq O(k^2n)\tau \leq \tilde{\epsilon}$ , as desired.

It remains to bound the error blowup in Step 8. By this point we have values for the  $\pi^i$ 's that are accurate to within  $\pm\epsilon_{\text{wts}}$ , and further, all  $\pi^i$ 's are at least  $\epsilon$ . We also have values for all  $\tilde{\mu}_j^i$ 's that are accurate to within  $\pm\tilde{\epsilon}$ . Since the function  $g(x, y) = y/\sqrt{x}$  satisfies

$$\sup_{\substack{x \in [\epsilon, 1] \\ |y| \leq 1}} \left| \frac{\partial}{\partial x} g(x, y) \right| = 2\epsilon^{-3/2}, \quad \sup_{\substack{x \in [\epsilon, 1] \\ |y| \leq 1}} \left| \frac{\partial}{\partial y} g(x, y) \right| < \epsilon^{-1/2},$$

the Mean Value Theorem implies that in Step 8 our resulting estimates  $\hat{\mu}_j^i$  are accurate to within additive error  $\epsilon_{\text{wts}} \cdot 2\epsilon^{-3/2} + \tilde{\epsilon} \cdot \epsilon^{-1/2} \leq \epsilon$ , as necessary.

This completes the proof of WAM's correctness. As for the running time, it is easy to see that the dominating factor comes from gridding over the entries of  $M_J$  and  $u_{r^*+1}, \dots, u_k$ . Since there are  $k^2$  entries and we grid to granularity  $\epsilon_{\text{matrix}} = \tau^{k+1} = \text{poly}(n/\epsilon)^k$ , the overall running time is  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon)^{k^3}$ ; i.e.,  $\text{poly}(n/\epsilon)$  for constant  $k$ . ■