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### Authors

Yang, Li  
Xiang, Sijia  
Yao, Weixin

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# Robust Fitting of Mixtures of Factor Analyzers Using the Trimmed Likelihood Estimator

Li Yang<sup>\*</sup>, Sijia Xiang<sup>†</sup> and Weixin Yao<sup>‡</sup>

## Abstract

Mixtures of factor analyzers have been popularly used to cluster the high dimensional data. However, the traditional estimation method is based on the normality assumptions of random terms and thus is sensitive to outliers. In this article, we introduce a robust estimation procedure of mixtures of factor analyzers using the trimmed likelihood estimator (TLE). We use a simulation study and a real data application to demonstrate the robustness of the trimmed estimation procedure and compare it with the traditional normality based maximum likelihood estimate.

**Key words:** EM algorithm, Factor analysis, Mixture models, Robustness, Trimmed likelihood estimator.

## 1 Introduction

Factor analysis is a statistical dimension reduction technique for modeling the covariance structure of high dimensional data using a small number of latent variables (Ghahramani

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<sup>\*</sup>Department of Statistics, Kansas State University. E-mail: liy@k-state.edu.

<sup>†</sup>Corresponding Author, School of Mathematics and Statistics Zhejiang University of Finance and Economics. E-mail: fxbxsj@gmail.com.

<sup>‡</sup>Department of Statistics, University of California, Riverside. E-mail: weixin.yao@ucr.edu.

18 and Hinton, 1997). It can be extended by allowing different local factor models in  
19 different regions of the input space. This results in a model which performs clustering  
20 and dimension reduction at the same time, and can be thought of as a reduced dimension  
21 mixture of Gaussians. Ghahramani and Hinton (1997) and Hinton et al. (1997) originally  
22 proposed mixtures of factor analyzers (MFA) model. They used this model to visualize  
23 high dimensional data in a lower dimensional space to explore the grouping structure.  
24 Tipping and Bishop (1997, 1999) and Bishop (1998) considered the related model of  
25 mixtures of principal component analysers for the same purpose. MFA model is in  
26 fact a nonlinear model which can be considered as a combination of traditional [factor](#)  
27 [analysis](#) (FA) model and the finite mixture models. Therefore, MFA model offers a way to  
28 overcome the linear limitation of the traditional FA model. In recent years, MFA model  
29 has received considerable interest. See, for example, Fokoué and Titterington (2003),  
30 Yung (1997), Dolan and VanderMaas (1998), and Arminger et al. (1999). McLachlan et  
31 al. (2003) discussed the application of mixtures of factor analyzers to density estimation  
32 and the clustering of high-dimensional data.

33 MFA has been traditionally fitted using the maximum likelihood estimator (MLE)  
34 based on the normality assumptions of the random terms. Ghahramani and Hinton  
35 (1997) introduced an exact Expectation-Maximization (EM) algorithm to compute the  
36 MLE of MFA. However, it is well known that the normal based MLE can be very sensitive  
37 to outliers. In fact, even a single outlier can make an enormous impact on the MLE,  
38 which in mixture models means that at least one of the component parameter estimates  
39 might be arbitrarily large.

40 In this article, a robust fitting of mixtures of factor analyzers is introduced based  
41 on the idea of trimmed likelihood estimator (TLE) (Neykov et al., 2007). The TLE is  
42 designed to fit the majority of the data, whereas the remaining data will be considered  
43 as outliers and thus will not be used for parameter estimation. We use a simulation

44 study and a real data application to demonstrate the robustness of the new estimation  
45 procedure and compare it with the traditional normality based maximum likelihood  
46 estimate.

47 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we briefly introduce  
48 the EM algorithm for a [factor analysis](#) (FA) and the mixture of factor analyzers (MFA).  
49 Section 3 presents the robust fitting of the mixture of factor analyzers using the trimmed  
50 likelihood estimator (TLE). Simulation results and a real data application are presented  
51 in Section 4. A discussion section ends the article.

## 52 2 Mixtures of Factor Analyzers

### 53 2.1 Factor analysis

54 Let  $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n$  be a random sample of size  $n$  on a  $p$ -dimensional random vector. A typical  
55 [factor analysis](#) model is given by:

$$\mathbf{y}_i = \boldsymbol{\mu} + \Lambda \mathbf{z}_i + \mathbf{e}_i, i = 1, \dots, n, \quad (2.1)$$

56 where  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  is the mean of  $\mathbf{y}_i$ ,  $\mathbf{z}_i$  is a  $q$ -dimensional ( $q < p$ ) vector of latent or unobservable  
57 variables called factors, and  $\Lambda$  ( $p \times q$ ) is a factor loading matrix. The factors  $\mathbf{z}_i$  are  
58 assumed to be i.i.d.  $\mathcal{N}_q(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_q)$ , independent of the errors  $\mathbf{e}_i$ , which are assumed to be  
59 i.i.d.  $\mathcal{N}_p(\mathbf{0}, \Psi)$  with  $\Psi$  a diagonal matrix  $\Psi = \text{diag}(\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_p^2)$ . The marginal density  
60 of  $\mathbf{y}_i$  is then  $\mathcal{N}_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Lambda \Lambda^T + \Psi)$ . For the purpose of classifying and reducing data, the  
61 traditional [factor analysis](#) is a useful tool for reducing a mass of information to an  
62 efficient description and grouping interdependent variables into descriptive categories.  
63 In statistics, it is a method used for explaining data, in particular, correlations between  
64 variables in multivariate observations.

The **factor analysis** model (2.1) can be fitted by maximizing the log-likelihood:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log\{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\Lambda\Lambda^T + \Psi|^{-1/2} \exp[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T(\Lambda\Lambda^T + \Psi)^{-1}(\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})]\},$$

with  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T, \Lambda^T, \Psi^T)^T$ , which can be computed iteratively via the EM algorithm if  $\mathbf{z}_i$  is considered the missing data.

**E-step:** Given the current estimator  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k)}$ , calculate the following conditional expectation given the observed data  $\mathbf{y}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a}_i^{(k)} &= E(\mathbf{z}_i | \mathbf{y}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k)}) = \Lambda^{(k)T} (\Psi^{(k)} + \Lambda^{(k)} \Lambda^{(k)T})^{-1} \mathbf{y}_i, \\ \mathbf{b}_i^{(k)} &= E(\mathbf{z}_i \mathbf{z}_i^T | \mathbf{y}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k)}) = \mathbf{I} - \Lambda^{(k)T} (\Psi^{(k)} + \Lambda^{(k)} \Lambda^{(k)T})^{-1} \Lambda^{(k)} \\ &\quad + \{\Lambda^{(k)T} (\Psi^{(k)} + \Lambda^{(k)} \Lambda^{(k)T})^{-1} \mathbf{y}_i\} \{\Lambda^{(k)T} (\Psi^{(k)} + \Lambda^{(k)} \Lambda^{(k)T})^{-1} \mathbf{y}_i\}^T. \end{aligned}$$

**M-step:** Calculate

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(k+1)} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{y}_i - \Lambda^{(k)} \mathbf{a}_i^{(k)}), \\ \Lambda^{(k+1)} &= \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{a}_i^{(k)T} \right\} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{b}_i^{(k)} \right\}^{-1}, \\ \Psi^{(k+1)} &= \frac{1}{n} \text{diag} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{y}_i^T - \Lambda^{(k+1)} \mathbf{a}_i^{(k)} \mathbf{y}_i^T) \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

## 65 2.2 Mixtures of factor analyzers

66 Although the **factor analysis** model (2.1) provides a global linear model for the presen-  
67 tation of the data in a lower-dimensional subspace, its application is limited when the  
68 data is not homogenous. The mixture of factor analyzers model (MFA), which allows  
69 different local factor models in different regions of the input space, is a natural exten-  
70 sion of the **factor analysis**. Assume we have a mixture of  $m$  factor analyzers with mixing

71 proportion  $\pi_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, m$ . The marginal density of  $\mathbf{y}$  is given by:

$$f(\mathbf{y}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{j=1}^m \pi_j \mathcal{N}_p(\mathbf{y}; \boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \Lambda_j \Lambda_j^T + \Psi), \quad (2.2)$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{\pi}^T, \boldsymbol{\mu}^T, \Lambda^T, \Psi^T)^T$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\pi} = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_{m-1})^T$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\boldsymbol{\mu}_1^T, \dots, \boldsymbol{\mu}_m^T)^T$ ,  $\Lambda = (\Lambda_1^T, \dots, \Lambda_m^T)^T$ . Here,  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_j$  is the mean of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  component,  $\Lambda_j$  is the factor loading matrix of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  component, and  $\Psi$  is the diagonal matrix of the error terms. It will be useful in the estimation equations to have a definition of the mixture factor analyzers in terms of conditional densities. For the  $j^{\text{th}}$  component, the conditional density function is:

$$f_j(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{z}) = \mathcal{N}_p(\mathbf{y}; \boldsymbol{\mu}_j + \Lambda_j \mathbf{z}, \Psi).$$

Within each component of the mixture, we have the following joint density of  $\mathbf{y}$  and  $\mathbf{z}$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{z} \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}_{p+q} \left( \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_j \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda_j \Lambda_j^T + \Psi & \Lambda_j \\ \Lambda_j^T & \mathbf{I}_q \end{bmatrix} \right).$$

Similar to the factor analysis, the mixture of factor analyzers can be estimated by maximizing the following likelihood:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log \sum_{j=1}^m \pi_j \left[ (2\pi)^{p/2} |\Lambda_j \Lambda_j^T + \Psi|^{-1/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j)^T (\Lambda_j \Lambda_j^T + \Psi)^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j) \right\} \right]. \quad (2.3)$$

72 However, there is no explicit solution for the above maximizer. Ghahramani and Hinton  
73 (1997) introduced an EM algorithm to maximize (2.3). More specifically, let  $\omega_{ij}$  be an

74 indicator variable indicating which component  $\mathbf{y}_i$  comes from. That is,

$$\omega_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \mathbf{y}_i \text{ is from } j^{\text{th}} \text{ component,} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (2.4)$$

Then the complete log-likelihood for  $\{(\mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{z}_i, \omega_{ij}), i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, \dots, m\}$  is

$$\ell_c(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log \prod_{j=1}^m \pi_j^{\omega_{ij}} \left[ (2\pi)^{p/2} |\Psi|^{-1/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j - \Lambda_j \mathbf{z}_i)^T \Psi^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j - \Lambda_j \mathbf{z}_i)\right\} \right]^{\omega_{ij}}.$$

The EM algorithm iterates between E-step, which computes the expected complete log-likelihood given current parameter estimates, and M-step, which maximizes the expected completed log-likelihood calculated in the E-step. We summarize the EM algorithm to maximize (2.3) as follows:

**E-step:** Given the current estimator  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k)}$ , calculate the following conditional expectation given the observed data  $\mathbf{y}$ :

$$E(\omega_{ij} | \mathbf{y}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k)}) = \frac{\pi_j^{(k)} \mathcal{N}_p(\mathbf{y}_i; \boldsymbol{\mu}_j^{(k)}, \Lambda_j^{(k)} \Lambda_j^{(k)T} + \Psi^{(k)})}{\sum_{j=1}^m \pi_j^{(k)} \mathcal{N}_p(\mathbf{y}_i; \boldsymbol{\mu}_j^{(k)}, \Lambda_j^{(k)} \Lambda_j^{(k)T} + \Psi^{(k)})} = p_{ij}^{(k)},$$

$$\mathbf{a}_{ij}^{(k)} = E(\mathbf{z}_i | \mathbf{y}_i, \omega_{ij} = 1, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k)}) = \Gamma_j^{(k)} (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j^{(k)}),$$

$$\mathbf{b}_{ij}^{(k)} = E(\mathbf{z}_i \mathbf{z}_i^T | \mathbf{y}_i, \omega_{ij} = 1, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k)}) = I - \Gamma_j^{(k)} \Lambda_j^{(k)} + \Gamma_j^{(k)} (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j^{(k)}) \{\Gamma_j^{(k)} (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j^{(k)})\}^T,$$

75 where  $\Gamma_j = \Lambda_j^T (\Psi + \Lambda_j \Lambda_j^T)^{-1}$ .

76

**M-step:** Calculate

$$\pi_j^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n p_{ij}^{(k)},$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_j^{(k+1)} = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n p_{ij}^{(k)} (\mathbf{y}_i - \Lambda_j^{(k)} \mathbf{a}_{ij}^{(k)}) \right\} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n p_{ij}^{(k)} \right\}^{-1},$$

$$\Lambda_j^{(k+1)} = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n p_{ij}^{(k)} (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j^{(k+1)}) \mathbf{a}_{ij}^{(k)T} \right\} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n p_{ij}^{(k)} \mathbf{b}_{ij}^{(k)} \right\}^{-1},$$

$$\Psi^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{n} \text{diag} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m p_{ij}^{(k)} (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j^{(k+1)} - \Lambda_j^{(k+1)} \mathbf{a}_{ij}^{(k)}) (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j^{(k+1)})^T \right\}.$$

### 3 Robust Fitting of Mixtures of Factor Analyzers

#### Using the Trimmed Likelihood Estimator

The maximum likelihood estimator introduced in Section 2 is easy to implement, but very sensitive to outliers. Even a single outlier can make an enormous impact on the MLE, and make at least one of the component parameters to be arbitrarily large. To overcome this, McLachlan et al. (2007), Andrews et al. (2011), and Baek and McLachlan (2011) proposed mixtures of  $t$ -factor analyzers by assuming multivariate  $t$ -distributions for component errors and factor distributions. In this section, we apply the idea of trimmed likelihood estimator (TLE), proposed by Neykov et al. (2007), to fit the the mixtures of factor analyzers in a robust way. [Compared to the proposed method based on TLE, the mixture of  \$t\$ -distributions has a very small breakdown point and is not robust when the outliers are extreme \(Hennig, 2004; Yao et al., 2014\).](#)

Suppose a number  $k$  ( $k \leq n$ ) of  $n$  observations are regular observations in the data, and the remaining  $n - k$  observations may be gross or outliers. The basic idea of TLE is removing the  $n - k$  observations which do not follow the model, and using only the  $k$  observations to fit the model. The combinatorial nature of the TLE can be expressed as:

$$\max_{I \in I_k} \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{i \in I} \log f(\mathbf{y}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}),$$

where  $I_k$  is the set of all  $k$ -subsets of  $(1, \dots, n)$  and  $f(\mathbf{y}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$  is defined in (2.2). The fact that all possible  $\binom{n}{k}$  partitions of the data have to be fitted by the MLE makes



91 the estimation procedure very computational expensive. To find an approximate TLE  
92 solution for large data sets, an algorithm called FAST-TLE was developed by Neykov  
93 and Müller (2003). The basic idea behind FAST-TLE algorithm contains two steps: a  
94 trial step followed by a refinement step.

95 (i) Trial step: Randomly select a subsample of size  $k^*$  from the data sample and then  
96 fit the model to that subsample to get a trial maximum likelihood estimate (MLE).

97 (ii) Refinement step: This step is based on the so-called concentration procedure.

98 (a) Starting with the trial MLE, find a combination with the  $k$  smallest negative  
99 log-likelihoods based on the current estimate.

100 (b) Obtain an improved estimator by fitting the model to these  $k$  cases.

101 (c) Repeat (a) and (b) until convergence.

102 At the end of this step, the solution with the largest trimmed likelihood is stored.  
103 This value may not be guaranteed to be the global optimal but would be a close  
104 approximation to it.

105 The choice of trial size  $k^*$  and refinement subsample size  $k$  are related to the break-  
106 down point (BP). The breakdown point (i.e., the smallest fraction of contamination  
107 that can cause the estimator to take arbitrary large values) of TLE was studied by us-  
108 ing  $d$ -fullness technique. Vandev and Neykov (1993) determined the value of  $d$  for the  
109 mixtures of normals to be  $m(p + 1)$ . It was proved that if  $\log f(y)$  is  $d$ -full, then the  
110 BP of TLE is not less than  $\frac{1}{n} \min\{n - m + 1, m - d + 1\}$  (Neykov and Müller, 2003).  
111 The trial subsample size  $k^*$  should be greater than or equal to  $d$  for the existence of  
112 MLE. The choice of  $k$  can be any number within  $[d, n]$ . When  $k = \lfloor (n + d + 1)/2 \rfloor$ , the  
113 BP of the TLE is maximized (Neykov and Müller, 2003). If the expected percentage of  
114 outliers  $\alpha$  in the data is a known priori, a recommended choice of  $k$  is  $\lfloor n(1 - \alpha) \rfloor$  which  
115 can increase the efficiency of the TLE.

116 The process of TLE applied particularly to the mixtures of factor analyzers can be  
117 performed as follows:

118 **Input:** A trial subset with sample size equals to  $k^*$  and initial parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)} =$   
119  $(\boldsymbol{\pi}^{(0)T}, \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(0)T}, \Lambda^{(0)T}, \Psi^{(0)T})^T$ .

120 **Output:** A subset of size  $k$  which has the  $k$  smallest negative log-likelihoods.

121 At the  $(l + 1)^{th}$  iteration:

122 **E-step:** Compute the expectation of component indicators  $\omega_{ij}$ , latent variable  $\mathbf{z}$ , and  
123  $\mathbf{z}\mathbf{z}^T$  based on the current subsample of size  $k$ .

124 **M-step:** Maximize the complete log-likelihood of subsample of size  $k$  with respect to  
125 each unknown parameter and thus get a new parameter

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(l+1)} = (\boldsymbol{\pi}^{(l+1)T}, \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(l+1)T}, \Lambda^{(l+1)T}, \Psi^{(l+1)T})^T.$$

126 **T-step:** Define a new subsample of size  $k$  which has the  $k$  smallest negative log-  
127 likelihoods with the new parameter  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(l+1)}$ .

128 Repeat **EMT** steps until convergence.

## 129 4 Simulation Study and Real Data Application

### 130 4.1 Simulation study

131 In this section, we use a simulation study to assess the performance of the MLE and the  
132 TLE to the mixtures of factor analyzers. For TLE, 20 randomly generated initial values  
133 are used and TLE reports the estimate whose log-likelihood is the biggest. True value  
134 (T) is also used as initial value for MLE and TLE. For the 20 initial values, we first  
135 use the R code “hc” from the R package “mclust” to cluster the randomly generated  
136 subsets of the data and then use the R code “factanal” from the R package “stats” to

137 do [factor analysis](#) for each cluster. The trimming proportion  $\alpha$  is set to be 5% and thus  
 138  $k = \lfloor n(1 - \alpha) \rfloor$  is used for TLE in all examples. We will discuss how to choose  $\alpha$  data  
 139 adaptively in Section 5.

A two-component mixture of factor analyzers are considered in the simulation:

$$f(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{j=1}^2 \pi_j \mathcal{N}_p(\mathbf{y}; \boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \Lambda_j \Lambda_j^T + \Psi),$$

where the mixing proportions are  $\pi_1 = 0.4$  and  $\pi_2 = 0.6$ . The means  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1$  and  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_2$  are  $p \times 1$  vectors with all the elements equal to 0 and 5, respectively, and the factor loading matrices  $\Lambda_1$  and  $\Lambda_2$  are  $p \times 2$  matrices with all the elements equal to 0.5 and 1, respectively. That is,

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{p \times 1}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ \vdots \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}_{p \times 1},$$

$$\Lambda_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.5 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 0.5 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}_{p \times 2}, \Lambda_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}_{p \times 2}.$$

140 We consider  $p = 10, 20,$  and  $30$ . Sample sizes of  $n = 200$  and  $n = 400$  are conducted  
 141 over 200 repetitions. To assess the robustness of the estimators, only  $(1 - \alpha_0) \times 100\%$  of  
 142 the observations are generated from the above model with  $\alpha_0 = 0, 0.01, 0.03,$  and  $0.05,$   
 143 and the remaining  $\alpha_0 \times 100\%$  of the data is generated randomly from  $U(20, 30)$ . [The](#)  
 144 [simulation was done through R on a personal laptop with an i7-3610QM CPU and 8GB](#)  
 145 [of RAM. The computation time of the new algorithm \(with 20 random initial values\) is](#)  
 146 [45 seconds for  \$n = 200\$  and 61 seconds for  \$n = 400\$ .](#)

The performance of the estimates is measured by the miss-classification probability

(MCP), which is defined to be the proportion of observations that are misclassified:

$$\text{MCP} = 1 - \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^2 \omega_{ij} I_{p_{ij} > 0.5} \right\} / n,$$

where  $\omega_{ij}$ , defined in (2.4), indicates which component  $\mathbf{y}_i$  comes from, and  $p_{ij}$  is the classification probability calculated by

$$p_{ij} = \frac{\hat{\pi}_j \mathcal{N}_p(\mathbf{y}_i; \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_j, \hat{\Lambda}_j \hat{\Lambda}_j^T + \hat{\Psi})}{\sum_{j=1}^2 \hat{\pi}_j \mathcal{N}_p(\mathbf{y}_i; \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_j, \hat{\Lambda}_j \hat{\Lambda}_j^T + \hat{\Psi})}, i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, 2.$$

147 Note that for mixture models there are well known label switching issues (Celeux, et al.,  
 148 2000; Stephens, 2000; Jasra et al., 2005; Yao and Lindsay, 2009; Grün and Leisch, 2009;  
 149 Yao, 2012a, 2012b). In our simulations, the labels are found by minimizing the MCP.

150 Tables 1 and 2 report the means and standard deviations of MCP for  $n = 200$  and  
 151 400, respectively. Based on the above tables, both TLE(T) and TLE(I) have smaller  
 152 MCP than MLE for all three  $p$  values and both  $n = 200$  and  $n = 400$ . In Tables  
 153 3 and 4, we also report the means and standard deviations of the Euclidean distance  
 154 between the estimates  $\hat{\pi}_1$ ,  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_1$ , and  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_2$  and their corresponding true values based on 200  
 155 repetitions. From the tables, we can see that the TLEs with both true initial values and  
 156 random initial values have better performance than the MLE when there are outliers,  
 157 especially for  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_2$  and  $\pi_1$ . The TLEs with randomly generated initial values work almost  
 158 the same as those with true initial values. In addition, the TLE still works well when  
 159 the trimming proportion is larger than the proportion of outliers. **Furthermore, when**  
 160 **there are no outliers ( $\alpha = 0$ ), TLE has comparable performance to the traditional MLE.**

Table 1: Average (Std) of MCP, with  $n = 200$ .

Dimension	Method	$\alpha = 0$	$\alpha = 0.01$	$\alpha = 0.03$	$\alpha = 0.05$
$p = 10$	MLE	0.984(0.012)	0.117(0.032)	0.103(0.031)	0.089(0.029)
	TLE(T)	0.984(0.011)	0.017(0.010)	0.018(0.012)	0.017(0.012)
	TLE(I)	0.982(0.012)	0.019(0.011)	0.020(0.013)	0.020(0.014)
$p = 20$	MLE	0.982(0.012)	0.089(0.030)	0.097(0.029)	0.140(0.029)
	TLE(T)	0.982(0.012)	0.019(0.013)	0.020(0.013)	0.067(0.010)
	TLE(I)	0.980(0.014)	0.022(0.015)	0.022(0.014)	0.070(0.013)
$p = 30$	MLE	0.151(0.354)	0.076(0.025)	0.105(0.031)	0.100(0.032)
	TLE(T)	0.151(0.353)	0.026(0.014)	0.033(0.018)	0.021(0.012)
	TLE(I)	0.145(0.347)	0.029(0.021)	0.040(0.036)	0.026(0.029)

## 161 4.2 Real data application

162 In this example, we consider applying both MLE and TLE of the mixture of factor  
163 analyzers to the wine data, which is available at the Machine Learning Repository of  
164 the University of California. The data set contains the results of chemical analysis  
165 of wines grown in the same region in Italy, but derived from three different cultivars.  
166 Therefore, a three component mixture model is suitable to fit the data if we do not use  
167 the cultivars of the wines. The analysis determined the quantities of  $p = 13$  constituents  
168 found in each of  $n = 178$  wines. Both MLE and TLE of the mixture of factor analyzers  
169 were fitted to this data set. Similar to the simulation study, the trimming proportion is  
170 set to be 0.05 for TLE.

171 Based on McLachlan and Peel (2000), the miss-classification rate is smallest for  $q = 2$   
172 and 3. In our analysis,  $q = 2$  is used as our reduced dimension. Figure 1 shows the  
173 estimated posterior means of the  $q = 2$  factors following a three-component mixture  
174 of factor analyzers of the wine data, which is actually the  $\mathbf{a}_{ij}$  calculated from E-step.  
175 These posterior means have been plotted with their true group labels corresponding to

Table 2: Average (Std) of MCP, with  $n = 400$ .

Dimension	Method	$\alpha = 0$	$\alpha = 0.01$	$\alpha = 0.03$	$\alpha = 0.05$
$p = 10$	MLE	0.986(0.006)	0.125(0.024)	0.123(0.020)	0.130(0.019)
	TLE(T)	0.986(0.006)	0.025(0.007)	0.044(0.006)	0.064(0.006)
	TLE(I)	0.986(0.006)	0.026(0.008)	0.044(0.006)	0.064(0.006)
$p = 20$	MLE	0.986(0.006)	0.110(0.021)	0.123(0.022)	0.131(0.019)
	TLE(T)	0.986(0.006)	0.025(0.007)	0.044(0.006)	0.065(0.007)
	TLE(I)	0.986(0.006)	0.025(0.007)	0.045(0.006)	0.065(0.007)
$p = 30$	MLE	0.984(0.008)	0.096(0.021)	0.124(0.020)	0.091(0.022)
	TLE(T)	0.984(0.009)	0.025(0.006)	0.047(0.008)	0.016(0.007)
	TLE(I)	0.984(0.009)	0.025(0.007)	0.047(0.008)	0.017(0.008)

176 the three different cultivars displayed. From Figure 1 we can see that mixtures of factor  
 177 analyzers have been useful here in exploring the grouping structure of the data in a much  
 178 reduced dimension.

179 To assess the robustness of the two estimation methods, we also consider the contam-  
 180 inated data by adding 1% and 3% outliers from  $U(9, 11)$ . Table 5 displays the estimated  
 181 means  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_2$ , and  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_3$  via MLE and TLE when the proportion of outliers are  $\alpha_0 = 0$ ,  
 182 0.01, and 0.03, and Table 6 displays the estimated component proportions  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$ .  
 183 The true parameter values are calculated by using true classification labels based on  
 184 the cultivars of the wines. From both tables, we see that when there are no outliers  
 185 ( $\alpha_0 = 0$ ), both MLE and TLE can provide comparatively good estimators. When the  
 186 data is contaminated, however, TLE performs much better than MLE. As the proportion  
 187 of outliers gets higher, MLE departs further away from the original MLE, while TLE  
 188 does not change much when the outliers are added to the data.

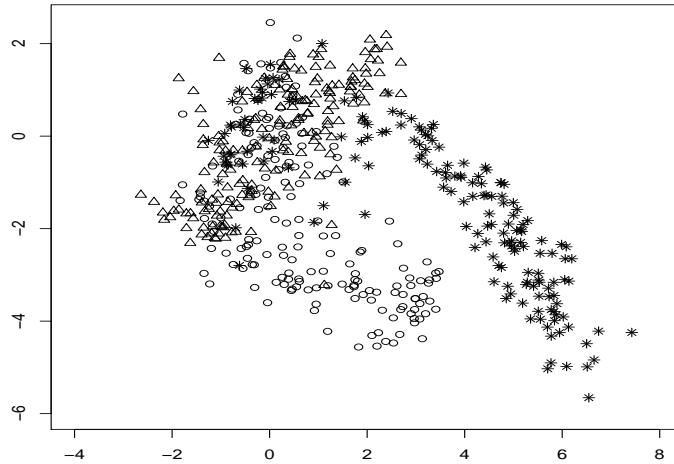


Figure 1: Wine data: Plot of the estimated posterior means of the  $q = 2$  factors ( $\Delta$ ,  $\circ$ , and  $*$  denote true component membership).

## 5 Discussion

Mixtures of factor analyzers have been popularly used to do dimension reduction and model based clustering for high dimensional data. In this article, we investigate a robust estimation procedure of the mixtures of factor analyzers based on the TLE proposed by Neykov et al. (2007). The simulation study and real data analysis demonstrated the effectiveness of the TLE based robust estimation procedure.

It is well known that the scale estimate by TLE is biased for univariate data. A scale factor is usually needed to make the scale estimate an unbiased consistent estimator. Based on our limited empirical experience, the TLE based covariance estimate for mixtures of factor analyzers are also biased. However, it requires more theoretical studies whether a scale or vector factor could make the TLE based covariance estimator unbiased and consistent.

In our examples, we have fixed the trimming proportion to be 0.05 for TLE. It works well whenever the true proportions of outliers are no more than 5%. However, it requires

203 more research to find a data adaptive optimal or conservative trimming proportion for  
204 TLE in practice. Neykov et al. (2007) recommended a graphical tool to choose the  
205 trimming proportion in their examples. However, based on our limited empirical expe-  
206 rience, such graphical tool was not very successful in choosing the trimming proportion  
207 for mixtures of factor analyzers. There have been many methods proposed for choosing  
208 the trimming proportion for TLE in the non-mixture context. For example, Jurečková  
209 et al. (1994) studied the problem of choosing the trimming proportion for a trimmed  $L$ -  
210 estimator of location, and recommended the  $L$ -estimators with smooth weight functions.  
211 For the trimmed mean in the location modeling and for the trimmed least-squares esti-  
212 mator in the linear regression model, Dodge and Jurečková (1997) proposed a partially  
213 adaptive estimator of the trimming proportion based on a rank-based decision proce-  
214 dure. Clark and Schubert (2010) studied an adaptive trimmed likelihood estimator of  
215 regression, whose algorithm tends to expose the outliers automatically and provide the  
216 estimators with the outliers removed. It will be interesting to know whether we can  
217 extend the foregoing methods to adaptively choose the trimming proportion for TLE in  
218 the mixture context.

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Table 3: Average (Std) of Euclidean distance, with  $n = 200$ .

Dimension	Method	$\alpha = 0$	$\alpha = 0.01$	$\alpha = 0.03$	$\alpha = 0.05$
$p = 10$	MLE	$\mu_1$ : 0.023(0.026)	0.051(0.032)	0.042(0.038)	0.044(0.033)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.025(0.034)	1.359(0.469)	2.979(1.505)	6.368(0.825)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.002)	0.021(0.012)	0.021(0.016)	0.030(0.016)
	TLE(T)	$\mu_1$ : 0.024(0.020)	0.023(0.020)	0.021(0.021)	0.025(0.014)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.028(0.030)	0.030(0.035)	0.024(0.028)	0.032(0.035)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.002)	0.001(0.002)	0.002(0.003)	0.003(0.004)
	TLE(I)	$\mu_1$ : 0.026(0.022)	0.025(0.021)	0.021(0.022)	0.030(0.030)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.030(0.034)	0.033(0.038)	0.031(0.066)	0.036(0.038)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.002)	0.001(0.002)	0.002(0.003)	0.003(0.004)
$p = 20$	MLE	$\mu_1$ : 0.022(0.015)	0.046(0.091)	0.042(0.024)	0.042(0.027)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.027(0.029)	0.849(0.298)	2.792(0.479)	5.449(0.690)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.013(0.009)	0.020(0.012)	0.028(0.014)
	TLE(T)	$\mu_1$ : 0.023(0.015)	0.026(0.024)	0.023(0.018)	0.025(0.016)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.029(0.030)	0.036(0.046)	0.030(0.030)	0.031(0.036)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.002)	0.001(0.002)	0.002(0.003)	0.003(0.003)
	TLE(I)	$\mu_1$ : 0.024(0.016)	0.029(0.025)	0.027(0.025)	0.029(0.023)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.039(0.057)	0.047(0.068)	0.037(0.037)	0.038(0.040)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.002)	0.002(0.003)	0.002(0.003)	0.003(0.003)
$p = 30$	MLE	$\mu_1$ : 0.004(0.010)	0.034(0.022)	0.040(0.024)	0.018(0.032)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.005(0.021)	0.528(0.213)	2.248(0.392)	1.551(2.216)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.008(0.008)	0.019(0.012)	0.010(0.016)
	TLE(T)	$\mu_1$ : 0.004(0.009)	0.024(0.015)	0.024(0.014)	0.010(0.018)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.009(0.043)	0.027(0.033)	0.028(0.031)	0.008(0.020)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.002(0.002)	0.002(0.003)	0.001(0.003)
	TLE(I)	$\mu_1$ : 0.004(0.010)	0.047(0.201)	0.079(0.465)	0.044(0.401)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.012(0.063)	0.037(0.048)	0.039(0.049)	0.013(0.036)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.002(0.002)	0.003(0.007)	0.001(0.005)

Table 4: Average (Std) of Euclidean distance, with  $n = 400$ .

Dimension	Method	$\alpha = 0$	$\alpha = 0.01$	$\alpha = 0.03$	$\alpha = 0.05$
$p = 10$	MLE	$\mu_1$ : 0.010(0.007)	0.031(0.020)	0.023(0.015)	0.020(0.013)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.013(0.018)	1.566(0.289)	3.757(0.364)	6.630(0.595)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.025(0.011)	0.026(0.010)	0.030(0.011)
	TLE(T)	$\mu_1$ : 0.011(0.008)	0.012(0.009)	0.012(0.009)	0.012(0.008)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.015(0.021)	0.016(0.017)	0.013(0.014)	0.012(0.012)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.001(0.001)	0.001(0.001)	0.002(0.002)
	TLE(I)	$\mu_1$ : 0.011(0.009)	0.012(0.009)	0.013(0.009)	0.012(0.009)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.016(0.022)	0.017(0.019)	0.015(0.016)	0.014(0.014)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.001(0.001)	0.001(0.001)	0.002(0.002)
$p = 20$	MLE	$\mu_1$ : 0.011(0.006)	0.025(0.013)	0.021(0.012)	0.020(0.014)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.013(0.013)	1.056(0.235)	2.963(0.324)	5.713(0.511)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.018(0.008)	0.024(0.010)	0.028(0.010)
	TLE(T)	$\mu_1$ : 0.011(0.007)	0.011(0.006)	0.012(0.008)	0.012(0.008)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.014(0.016)	0.016(0.016)	0.013(0.013)	0.013(0.015)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.001(0.001)	0.001(0.001)	0.002(0.002)
	TLE(I)	$\mu_1$ : 0.012(0.008)	0.011(0.006)	0.012(0.008)	0.013(0.014)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.016(0.020)	0.018(0.017)	0.014(0.014)	0.015(0.016)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.001(0.001)	0.001(0.001)	0.002(0.002)
$p = 30$	MLE	$\mu_1$ : 0.011(0.008)	0.021(0.013)	0.022(0.014)	0.016(0.014)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.014(0.015)	0.715(0.171)	2.503(0.316)	3.616(2.238)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.013(0.008)	0.022(0.010)	0.021(0.016)
	TLE(T)	$\mu_1$ : 0.012(0.009)	0.011(0.007)	0.012(0.007)	0.009(0.008)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.018(0.024)	0.014(0.013)	0.017(0.019)	0.009(0.011)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.001(0.001)	0.001(0.002)	0.001(0.002)
	TLE(I)	$\mu_1$ : 0.013(0.009)	0.012(0.008)	0.012(0.007)	0.009(0.008)
		$\mu_2$ : 0.019(0.023)	0.016(0.015)	0.019(0.019)	0.010(0.013)
		$\pi_1$ : 0.001(0.001)	0.001(0.001)	0.001(0.002)	0.001(0.002)

Table 5: Wine data: Estimated Means with  $\alpha_0 = 0, 0.01, \text{ and } 0.03$ .

	True	$\alpha_0 = 0$		$\alpha_0 = 0.01$		$\alpha_0 = 0.03$	
		MLE	TLE	MLE	TLE	MLE	TLE
$\mu_1$	13.74	13.66	13.74	13.44	13.74	12.34	13.73
	2.01	1.99	2.01	1.61	2.02	0.21	1.99
	2.46	2.47	2.46	2.09	2.46	0.79	2.43
	17.04	17.49	17.05	16.42	17.18	15.77	17.01
	106.34	107.87	106.30	105.67	106.04	105.95	105.34
	2.84	2.85	2.84	2.50	2.84	1.29	2.84
	2.98	3.00	2.98	2.69	2.98	2.11	2.96
	0.29	0.29	0.29	-0.03	0.29	-1.25	0.28
	1.90	1.92	1.90	1.53	1.90	0.66	1.87
	5.53	5.44	5.52	5.29	5.53	7.09	5.50
	1.06	1.07	1.06	0.71	1.06	-0.40	1.06
	3.16	3.16	3.16	2.78	3.14	1.53	3.14
	1115.71	1097.23	1114.12	1144.08	1115.45	1284.31	1115.80
$\mu_2$	12.28	12.28	12.30	12.34	12.32	12.92	12.30
	1.93	1.95	1.96	1.98	1.95	1.97	1.97
	2.24	2.22	2.25	2.26	2.24	2.33	2.24
	20.24	19.96	20.26	20.21	20.09	18.88	20.08
	94.55	91.86	90.09	94.98	90.07	99.06	91.30
	2.26	2.23	2.23	2.30	2.24	2.51	2.24
	2.08	2.04	2.06	2.14	2.05	2.48	2.07
	0.36	0.37	0.38	0.37	0.37	0.33	0.38
	1.63	1.60	1.55	1.64	1.53	1.75	1.59
	3.09	3.05	3.07	3.17	3.07	4.11	3.06
	1.06	1.05	1.06	1.05	1.05	1.06	1.05
	2.79	2.77	2.79	2.82	2.78	2.95	2.78
	519.51	502.67	496.14	534.54	496.23	777.10	498.36
$\mu_3$	13.15	13.12	13.13	13.12	13.12	13.11	13.12
	3.33	3.31	3.37	3.30	3.30	3.27	3.29
	2.44	2.44	2.43	2.44	2.44	2.43	2.44
	21.42	21.42	21.34	21.42	21.41	21.33	21.41
	99.31	100.03	99.35	100.03	100.04	100.02	100.05
	1.68	1.68	1.65	1.68	1.67	1.68	1.67
	0.78	0.79	0.77	0.79	0.79	0.80	0.79
	0.45	0.44	0.45	0.44	0.44	0.44	0.44
	1.15	1.16	1.12	1.16	1.16	1.15	1.16
	7.40	7.29	7.27	7.28	7.27	7.25	7.25
	0.68	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69
	1.68	1.70	1.68	1.70	1.70	1.69	1.70
	629.90	630.27	629.56	630.53	631.24	627.43	632.32

Table 6: Wine data: Estimated component proportions with  $\alpha_0 = 0, 0.01,$  and  $0.03.$

	$\alpha_0 = 0$		$\alpha_0 = 0.01$		$\alpha_0 = 0.03$	
True	MLE	TLE	MLE	TLE	MLE	TLE
$\pi_1$	0.3315	0.3516	0.3049	0.3386	0.0331	0.3201
$\pi_2$	0.3989	0.3726	0.4190	0.3697	0.6853	0.3869