

Penalized Maximum Likelihood Estimator for Skew Normal Mixtures

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Abstract

Skew normal mixture models provide a more flexible framework than the popular normal mixtures for modelling heterogeneous data with asymmetric behaviors. Due to the unboundedness of likelihood function and the divergency of shape parameters, the maximum likelihood estimators of the parameters of interest are often not well defined, leading to dissatisfactory inferential process. We put forward a proposal to deal with these issues simultaneously in the context of penalizing the likelihood function. The resulting penalized maximum likelihood estimator is proved to be strongly consistent when the putative order of mixture is equal to or larger than the true one. We also provide penalized EM-type algorithms to compute penalized estimators. Finite sample performances are examined by simulations and real data applications and the comparison to the existing methods.

Keywords: Skew normal mixtures, Penalized maximum likelihood estimator, Strong consistency, EM-type algorithms.

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1 Introduction

Finite mixtures of skew normal (SN) distributions have received considerable attention in recent years. In tackling data with multimodal and asymmetric behaviours, skew normal mixture (SNMIX) models are considered as a more flexible and robust tool than the most popular Gaussian mixture (GMIX) models. With component densities themselves capturing skewness and excess kurtosis, this framework remedies unrealistic symmetric assumptions and avoids the overfitting problem existing in GMIX (Lin *et al.* 2007b; Fruhwirth-Schnatter and Pyne 2010).

The several attempts to analyse skew normal mixtures are attributed to Lin *et al.* (2007b) and Basso *et al.* (2010). A multivariate extension of this model has been developed by Lin (2009) and Cabral *et al.* (2012). Fruhwirth-Schnatter and Pyne (2010) explored a Bayesian approach and proposed an efficient MCMC scheme in multivariate SNMIX. Other researchers extended the SN distribution to more general statistical models, such as linear mixed models (Lachos *et al.* 2010), parsimonious clustering models (Vrbik and McNicholas 2014) and mixtures of regression models (Zeller *et al.* 2016).

Consider the SN distribution introduced by Azzalini (1985), whose density function is given by

$$f_{SN}(x; \theta) = \frac{2}{\sigma} \phi\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right) \Phi\left(\lambda \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right), \quad x \in \mathbb{R} \quad (1.1)$$

where $\theta = (\mu, \sigma^2, \lambda) \in \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}$, and $\phi(\cdot)$ and $\Phi(\cdot)$ are the normal density and distribution function. The density (1.1) depends on μ, σ^2, λ , which regulate location, scale and shape (skewness) respectively.

Given the kernel density (1.1) and a finite order p , as shown in Lin *et al.* (2007b), the density function of SNMIX is

$$f(x; \Psi) = \sum_{k=1}^p \pi_k f_{SN}(x; \theta_k) = \int f_{SN}(x; \theta) d\Psi(\theta) \quad (1.2)$$

where $\pi_k, \theta_k = (\mu_k, \sigma_k^2, \lambda_k)$ are the mixing proportion and component parameters respectively. We use the notation Ψ for all parameters in SNMIX, and for its cumulative distribution function $\Psi(\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^p \pi_k I(\theta_k \leq \theta)$, where $I(\cdot)$ is the indicator function.

The parameter space of Ψ can then be written as

$$\Gamma = \left\{ \Psi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_p, \mu_1, \dots, \mu_p, \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_p, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p) : \right. \\ \left. 0 \leq \pi_k \leq 1, \sum_{k=1}^p \pi_k = 1, -\infty < \mu_k, \lambda_k < +\infty, \sigma_k \geq 0, k = 1, \dots, p \right\}.$$

In finite mixture models, several approaches are available in the literature, which characterize the mixing distribution Ψ , see Lindsay (1995) and McLachlan & Peel (2000). Among which, the maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) is commonly used for its asymptotic efficiency under regular parametric models. In univariate and multivariate SNMIX, Lin *et al.* (2007b) and Lin (2009) investigated the theory and applications of the MLE as well as corresponding EM algorithms.

However, the ordinary MLE may be not well defined even in the classical normal mixtures (Kiefer and Wolfowitz 1956; Day 1969). Suppose we have a random sample $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ of size n from the above SNMIX model. Then the log-likelihood function is

$$\ell_n(\Psi) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(X_i; \Psi) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^p \frac{2\pi_k}{\sigma_k} \phi\left(\frac{X_i - \mu_k}{\sigma_k}\right) \Phi\left(\lambda_k \frac{X_i - \mu_k}{\sigma_k}\right) \right\} \quad (1.3)$$

It is clear that $\ell_n(\Psi)$ is unbounded over parameter space Γ for any given n , due to it goes to infinity as $\mu_k \rightarrow X_i$ and $\sigma_k \rightarrow 0$ with the other parameters fixed (Ciuperca *et al.* 2003). Hence, a global MLE of Ψ is known to be inconsistent. Meanwhile, the likelihood ratio test statistic is shown to lose the elegant asymptotic properties.

To avoid likelihood degeneracy, two likelihood-based approaches were proposed to regain the consistency and efficiency. One is the constraint MLE. Redner (1981) proved that, in every compact parameter subspace containing the true parameter Ψ_0 , the MLE $\hat{\Psi} \rightarrow \Psi_0$ in probability as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Hathaway (1985) suggested using a constrained MLE under the condition $\min_{i,j} \sigma_i/\sigma_j \geq c > 0$, where c is a fixed constant. However, as stated in Chen *et al.* (2008), the reduction of parameter space may lead to the true parameter Ψ_0 not belonging to the altered space. Other researchers focused on the penalized method. It is a promising approach to counter the likelihood unboundedness problem without altering the parameter space. With different penalties on component variances, Ciuperca *et al.* (2003) and Chen *et al.* (2008) respectively proved the strong consistency of the penalized maximum likelihood estimators (PMLE).

In addition to the unbounded likelihood, another undesirable property in SNMIX is that the MLE of λ_k diverges. For the SN distribution, Azzalini and Capitanio (1999) found that the MLE of λ can occur on the boundary (i.e. $\hat{\lambda} = \pm\infty$), even for data whose distribution can be fairly well approximated by the SN model with finite λ . To obtain reliable estimators of λ , the larger sample sizes are often required (DiCiccio and Monti 2004). Azzalini and Arellano-Valle (2013) proved that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\hat{\lambda}| \rightarrow \infty) = 0$, but the divergence of MLE occurs with a non-negligible probability for finite sample size. In SNMIX, for $\Phi(\cdot)$ being a monotonically increasing function, $\ell_n(\Psi)$ in (1.3) over Γ is maximized at

$$\hat{\lambda}_k = \begin{cases} \infty, & \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i > \mu_k) = n \\ -\infty, & \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i < \mu_k) = n \end{cases}$$

Although $\hat{\lambda}_k = \pm\infty$ will not lead to degenerate likelihood, the standard asymptotic distribution theory of MLE does not hold on the boundary of Γ . Furthermore, an divergent estimator requires an enormous amount of computational workload and has unpleasant effects on inferential process (Azzalini and Arellano-Valle 2013).

Unfortunately, under this peculiar situation, the constraint MLE has no way to alleviate the divergency of shape parameter estimation. As an example, place an additional constraint $\max_k \{|\lambda_k|\} \leq C$ on Γ , where C is a sufficiently large positive constant. $\ell_n(\Psi)$ would be maximized only if shape parameters converge to the boundary of the constrained Γ as

$$\max_k |\hat{\lambda}_k| = C, \text{ if } \max_k \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \text{sgn}(X_i - \mu_k) \right| = n \quad (1.4)$$

where $\text{sgn}(\cdot)$ is the sign function. Therefore, the constrained MLE turns out to be invalid.

In this paper, to overcome both likelihood degeneracy and divergent shape parameters, we recommend estimating Ψ by maximizing the likelihood function with a penalty function. The penalized log-likelihood is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} p\ell_n(\Psi) &= \ell_n(\Psi) + p_n(\Psi), \\ p_n(\Psi) &= \sum_{k=1}^p p_n(\sigma_k) + \sum_{k=1}^p p_n(\lambda_k). \end{aligned} \quad (1.5)$$

Then PMLE of Ψ would be obtained by $\tilde{\Psi} = \arg \max_{\Psi} p\ell_n(\Psi)$. With reasonable penalties, the corresponding penalized likelihood $p\ell_n(\Psi)$ is bounded over Γ , granting the existence of PMLE.

To regain the consistency of $\tilde{\Psi}$, penalty functions $p_n(\sigma)$ and $p_n(\lambda)$ must be chosen carefully. We select $p_n(\sigma)$ such that it goes to negative infinity when σ goes to either 0 or infinity, and choose $p_n(\lambda)$ such that $p_n(\lambda)$ tends to negative infinity as $|\lambda|$ tends to infinity.

We focus on investigating the penalized likelihood-based estimator in skew normal mixtures. The remainder of the article unfolds as follows. Section 2 outlines some preliminaries including technical lemmas and choice of penalties. In Section 3, we provide a rigorous proof of the strong consistency of the proposed PMLE in both $p = p_0$ and $p > p_0$ cases. The penalized EM algorithms are presented in Section 4. The simulation results as well as two application examples are respectively in Section 5 and 6. Technical proofs are relegated to the Appendix.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Technical lemmas

In normal mixture models, Chen *et al.* (2008) provided a novel technique to establish the strong consistency. Based on the Bernstein Inequality, they proved an insightful conclusion, the number of observations falling in a small neighbourhood of the location parameters has a uniform upper bound. However, as noted in Chen *et al.* (2008), the normality assumption does not play a crucial role. The conclusion has recently been furthered to the distribution-free case by Chen (2016). Without proofs, we conclude the main results as the following Lemma 2.1.

Lemma 2.1. *Let X_1, \dots, X_n be i.i.d. observations from an absolute continuous distribution F with density function $f(x)$. Suppose $f(x)$ is continuous and $M = \sup_x f(x) < \infty$. Let $F_n(x) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i \leq x)$ be the empirical distribution function. Thus, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,*

$$\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \{F_n(x + \epsilon) - F_n(x)\} \leq 2M\epsilon + 10n^{-1} \log n,$$

holds uniformly for all $\epsilon > 0$ almost surely.

It is worth observing that, Lemma 2.1 excludes the zero-probability event for each ϵ on which the upper bound is violated. Furthermore, it is clear that the density and distribution function of skew normal mixtures satisfy the milder distribution assumptions in Lemma 2.1. Thus, let

$\epsilon = |\sigma \log \sigma|$, where $\sigma > 0$ and σ is small. With a slight alteration, we state the conclusion for skew normal mixtures as follows:

Lemma 2.2. *Suppose $X_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ are i.i.d. random samples from the finite mixture of skew normal distributions with density function $f(x; \Psi_0)$ as defined in (1.2), except for a zero-probability event not depending on σ , we have*

$$\sup_{\mu \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^n I(|X_i - \mu| \leq |\sigma \log \sigma|) \leq 4Mn|\sigma \log \sigma| + 10 \log n, \text{ a.s. as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

in which $M = \sup_x f(x; \Psi_0)$.

Remark. For $n \rightarrow \infty$ much faster than $\log n$, the first item dominates the upper bound.

2.2 Choice of penalties

Lemma 2.1 and 2.2 provide a technical basis for the sizes of the penalties. To ensure the consistency of the proposed PMLE, we assume the following conditions on $p_n(\sigma)$ and $p_n(\lambda)$:

- C1.** $\forall \sigma > 0, p_n(\sigma) = o(n)$ and $\sup_{\sigma > 0} \max\{0, p_n(\sigma)\} = o(n)$.
- C2.** $p_n(\sigma) \leq (\log n)^2 \log \sigma$, when $\sigma < n^{-1} \log n$ and n is large.
- C3.** $p_n(\lambda)$ is a continuous function that takes maximum at $\lambda = 0$ and goes to negative infinity as $|\lambda| \rightarrow \infty$. Besides, $p_n(0) = 0$.
- C4.** $p_n(\sigma)$ and $p_n(\lambda)$ are differentiable with respect to σ and λ respectively, and as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $p'_n(\sigma) = o(n^{1/2})$ and $p'_n(\lambda) = o(n^{1/2})$.

However, the existence of the above required penalty functions is obvious and of non-uniqueness. Users therefore have the freedom to choose penalties, indicating the added mathematical conditions are not restrictive. Condition C1 makes a restriction on the upper and lower bounds of $p_n(\sigma)$, while C2 makes $p_n(\sigma)$ sufficiently severe to prevent $\sigma^2 \rightarrow 0$. Condition C3 limits the effect of $p_n(\lambda)$. Condition C4 guarantees the existence of a limiting distribution of the penalized MLE. Here, with sample variance denoted by s_n^2 , we recommend to use the following

two penalty functions

$$\begin{aligned} p_n(\sigma) &= -a_n \left(s_n^2/\sigma^2 + \log(\sigma^2/s_n^2) - 1 \right), \\ p_n(\lambda) &= -b_n \left(\lambda^2 - \log(1 + \lambda^2) \right). \end{aligned} \tag{2.1}$$

where a_n and b_n are positive tuning parameters of $p_n(\sigma), p_n(\lambda)$ respectively.

Note that Conditions C1-C4 are easy to verify for the recommended penalties. The form of $p_n(\sigma)$ also stands for a prior inverse Gamma distribution placed on σ^2 from the Bayesian point of view and has the advantage of retaining scale invariance (Chen *et al.* 2008). It is also well used in constructing EM-test statistic, see Chen and Li (2009) and Chen *et al.* (2012).

The penalty function $p_n(\lambda)$ in (2.1), compared with $p(\lambda) = -c_1 \log(1 + c_2 \lambda^2)$ used in Azzalini and Arellano-Valle (2013), in which c_1 and c_2 are two fixed constants, has several markedly advantages. Firstly, as a convex function, $p_n(\lambda)$ is fairly flat near zero and very steep when λ is away from 0. Hence, it has little effects on likelihood function when λ is regular, while sensitive to the divergent skewness parameter. Furthermore, it is also remarkable that $p_n(\lambda)$ will not increase computation complexity in the EM-type algorithms.

The sensible choice of a_n and b_n should depend on n . Under large sample case as $n \rightarrow \infty$, Chen *et al.* (2012) pointed out that the asymptotic property of the EM-test statistic will not be changed whenever $a_n = o(n^{1/4})$. The consistency of PMLE can also be granted whenever $b_n = o(n)$. In practice, we recommend

$$a_n = c_a/n, b_n = c_b/\log n \tag{2.2}$$

in which the constants c_a and c_b control the scale of penalties. In this paper, we take $c_a = 1$ and $c_b = 0.05$. Chen et al (2012) is a reference that also took $c_a = 1$.

3 Strong Consistency of The Penalized MLE

3.1 Consistency of The Penalized MLE when $p = p_0$

Let $K_0 = E_{\Psi_0}(\log f(X; \Psi_0))$ denote conditional expectation under the true mixing distribution and recall $M = \sup_x f(x; \Psi_0)$ in Lemma 2.2. Suppose that ϵ_0 and η_0 are sufficiently small and

large positive constant respectively. Given p, M and K_0 , there exists $\epsilon_0 \rightarrow 0$ satisfying following two inequalities:

$$4pM\epsilon_0 \log^2 \epsilon_0 \leq 1 \text{ and } \log \epsilon_0 + \frac{\log^2 \epsilon_0}{2} \geq p(2 - K_0).$$

Besides, we also select a η_0 such that $\eta_0 > \max_k \{|\lambda_{0k}|\}, k = 1, \dots, p$, where λ_{0k} is the element of Ψ_0 . The choice of ϵ_0 and η_0 clearly depend on Ψ_0 but not on the sample size n .

For the obvious existence of ϵ_0 and η_0 , it is convenient to define regions:

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_\sigma &= \{\Psi \in \Gamma : \min\{\sigma_k\} \leq \epsilon_0, k = 1, \dots, p\}, \\ \Gamma_\lambda &= \{\Psi \in \Gamma : \max\{|\lambda_k|\} \geq \eta_0, k = 1, \dots, p\}, \\ \Gamma^* &= \Gamma - \Gamma_\sigma \cup \Gamma_\lambda. \end{aligned}$$

We will see that the penalization will be on these regions of the parameters. When a vector is in the region Γ_σ , then the parameter of the mixing distribution has at least one component deviation close to zero. The penalty $p_n(\sigma)$ will counter it such that PMLE with $\sigma \in \Gamma_\sigma$ is with a diminishing probability. Similarly, PMLE will exclude the values in the region Γ_λ in which there is at east one $|\lambda_k|$ diverges to infinity.

We first give the consistency in the following theorem. To state the results clearly, rearrange the component deviations in ascending order as $\sigma_{(1)} \leq \dots \leq \sigma_{(p)}$, with the corresponding mixing proportion and parameters being respectively denoted as $\pi_{(k)}$ and $\theta_{(k)} = (\mu_{(k)}, \sigma_{(k)}^2, \lambda_{(k)})$ when $k \in \{1, \dots, p\}$. Hence, for $\tau \in \{1, \dots, p\}$, the parameter space Γ_σ can be partitioned by

$$\Gamma_\sigma^\tau = \{\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma : \sigma_{(1)} \leq \dots \leq \sigma_{(\tau)} \leq \tau_0 < \epsilon_0 \leq \sigma_{(\tau+1)} \leq \dots \leq \sigma_{(p)}\}.$$

In particular, when $\tau = p$,

$$\Gamma_\sigma^p = \{\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma : \sigma_{(1)} \leq \dots \leq \sigma_{(p)} \leq \tau_0 < \epsilon_0\}.$$

Theorem 3.1. *Assume that the density function is $f(x; \Psi_0)$. Let the penalized likelihood $p\ell_n(\Psi)$ be defined as in (1.5) with the penalty function $p_n(\Psi)$ satisfying C1-C3. Then for any $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^p$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and almost surely*

$$\sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^p} p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \rightarrow -\infty.$$

The proof of Theorem 3.1 is in Appendix. For the spaces Γ_σ^τ with $1 \leq \tau \leq p-1$, we can obtain the similar results as in Theorem 3.1. The result is stated below.

Theorem 3.2. *Under the same assumptions as in Theorem 3.1 except that $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^\tau$ for τ with $1 \leq \tau \leq p-1$, $\sup_{\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^\tau} p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \rightarrow -\infty$ almost surely as $n \rightarrow \infty$.*

Note that $\Gamma_\sigma = \cup_{\tau=1}^p \Gamma_\sigma^\tau$. From Theorems 3.1 and 3.2, we conclude that PMLE of Ψ is not in Γ_σ except for a zero probability event. Below, we present a result showing the boundedness of skewness parameters λ in PMLE. Consider the region $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda$.

Theorem 3.3. *Under the same conditions as in Theorem 3.1, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we can also show that almost surely $\sup_{\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda} p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \rightarrow -\infty$.*

From the above three Theorems, we have excluded the possibility that the penalized MLE $\tilde{\Psi}$ falls in $\Gamma_\sigma \cup \Gamma_\lambda = \Gamma_\sigma \cup \{\Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda\}$. Hence, it suffices to show that $\tilde{\Psi} \in \Gamma^*$ with probability 1. The strong consistency of $\tilde{\Psi}$ is stated below.

Theorem 3.4. *Assume the same conditions as in Theorem 3.1, Ψ is a mixing distribution with p_0 components satisfying*

$$p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \geq c > -\infty.$$

Then as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\Psi \rightarrow \Psi_0$ almost surely.

Rewrite $\Gamma^* = \{\Psi \in \Gamma : \min_k \{\sigma_k\} \geq \epsilon_0, \max_k \{|\lambda_k|\} \leq \eta_0\}$, $\Psi \in \Gamma^*$ is equivalent to impose a positive lower bound to component deviations and a positive upper bound to the absolute value of skewness parameters. Since Γ^* is regular, the consistency is then covered by the technique in Kiefer and Wolfowitz (1956) even with a penalty of size $o(n)$.

Since $p\ell_n(\tilde{\Psi}) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \geq 0$, the PMLE $\tilde{\Psi}$ is thus strongly consistent. Besides, for $p = p_0$, all elements in $\tilde{\Psi}$ converge to those of Ψ_0 almost surely.

Further, let $S_n(\Psi) = \frac{\partial \ell_n(\Psi)}{\partial \Psi}$ and $S'_n(\Psi) = \frac{\partial^2 \ell_n(\Psi)}{\partial \Psi \partial \Psi^T}$ be respectively the score vector and second derivative matrix of $\ell_n(\Psi)$. Since the SNMIX model is regular at Ψ_0 , we have the positive definite fisher information matrix $I(\Psi_0) = -E\{S'_n(\Psi_0)\} = E\{S_n^T(\Psi_0)S_n(\Psi_0)\}$. Based on the classical asymptotic technique and condition C4 such that $p'_n(\sigma) = o(n^{1/2})$, $p'_n(\lambda) = o(n^{1/2})$, we have

$$\tilde{\Psi} - \Psi_0 = -\{S'_n(\Psi_0)\}^{-1}S_n(\Psi_0) + o_p(n^{1/2}).$$

Thus, the penalized estimator is of the asymptotic normality and efficiency.

Theorem 3.5. *Under the same conditions as in Theorem 3.1 and Condition C4, as $n \rightarrow \infty$*

$$\sqrt{n}(\tilde{\Psi} - \Psi_0) \rightarrow N(\mathbf{0}, I^{-1}(\Psi_0))$$

in distribution.

3.2 Consistency of The Penalized MLE when $p > p_0$

In practice, it is often that people only know an upper bound of the mixture order rather than the exact p_0 , that is, $p_0 < p < \infty$. In this case, by treating both $\tilde{\Psi}$ and Ψ_0 as mixing distributions on the same space, Chen *et al.* (2008) and Chen and Tan (2009) proved the consistency of their PMLEs in univariate and multivariate normal mixtures. To measure the difference between the mixing distributions Ψ and Ψ_0 , we first define a distance as

$$D(\Psi, \Psi_0) = \int_{\Theta} |\Psi(\theta) - \Psi_0(\theta)| \exp(-|\theta|) d\theta \quad (3.1)$$

where $\theta = (\mu, \sigma^2, \lambda) \in \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}$, $|\theta| = |\mu| + \sigma^2 + |\lambda|$ and $d\theta = d\mu d\sigma^2 d\lambda$. The distance has two desirable properties. First, it is bounded with the inequalities $0 \leq D(\Psi, \Psi_0) \leq \int_{\Theta} \exp(-|\theta|) d\theta < \infty$. Second, $D(\tilde{\Psi}, \Psi_0) \rightarrow 0$ implies that $\tilde{\Psi} \rightarrow \Psi_0$ in distribution, providing the technical basis for consistency. Hence, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 3.6. *Assume the same conditions as in Theorem 3.1, except that $p_0 < p < \infty$, for any mixing distribution Ψ with p components satisfying*

$$p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \geq c > -\infty.$$

Then as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\Psi \rightarrow \Psi_0$ almost surely.

4 Penalized EM Algorithms

Concerning computation, Lin *et al.* (2007b) exploited two extensions of the EM algorithm: the ECM algorithm (Meng and Rubin 1993) and the ECME algorithm (Liu and Rubin 1994). In view of the asymptotic properties (Hero and Fessler 1993) and the fast convergence rate (Green

1990) of the penalized EM algorithm, we present two penalized EM-type algorithms to achieve the PMLE $\tilde{\Psi}$.

Consider the complete data $(X, Z) = \{X_j, Z_j\}_{j=1}^n$, where the latent component-indicators vector $Z_j = (Z_{1j}, \dots, Z_{pj})$ follows a multinomial distribution with 1 trial and cell probabilities π_1, \dots, π_p . Write it as $Z_j \sim \mathcal{M}(1; \pi_1, \dots, \pi_p)$. Note that Z_1, \dots, Z_n are mutually independent. Based on the component-indicators, for each $X_j (j = 1, \dots, n)$, a hierarchical representation for skew normal mixtures is given by

$$\begin{aligned} X_j | \tau_j, Z_{ij} = 1 &\sim N(\mu_i + \delta(\lambda_i)\tau_j, (1 - \delta^2(\lambda_i))\sigma_i^2), \\ \tau_j | Z_{ij} = 1 &\sim TN_{[0, +\infty)}(0, \sigma_i^2), \\ Z_j &\sim \mathcal{M}(1; \pi_1, \dots, \pi_p). \end{aligned} \quad (4.1)$$

where $\delta(\lambda) = \lambda/\sqrt{1 + \lambda^2}$ and $TN_{[0, +\infty)}(0, \sigma^2)$ denotes the truncated normal distribution. In addition, τ_1, \dots, τ_n are also mutually independent.

According to (4.1), ignoring additive constants, the complete data log-likelihood function is

$$\begin{aligned} \ell_c(\Psi) = \sum_{i=1}^p \sum_{j=1}^n Z_{ij} &\left\{ \log(\pi_i) - \log(\sigma_i^2) - \frac{1}{2} \log(1 - \delta^2(\lambda_i)) \right. \\ &\left. - \frac{\tau_j^2 - 2\delta(\lambda_i)\tau_j(x_j - \mu_i) + (x_j - \mu_i)^2}{2\sigma_i^2(1 - \delta^2(\lambda_i))} \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.2)$$

By Bayesian theorem, we have $\tau_j | (X_j = x_j, Z_{ij} = 1) \sim TN_{[0, +\infty)}(\mu_{\tau_{ij}}, \sigma_{\tau_i}^2)$, where $\mu_{\tau_{ij}} = \delta(\lambda_i)(x_j - \mu_i)$, $\sigma_{\tau_i} = \sigma_i \sqrt{1 - \delta^2(\lambda_i)}$. Thus, for the current parameters $\Psi^{(t)} = (\pi_1^{(t)}, \dots, \pi_p^{(t)}, \theta_1^{(t)}, \dots, \theta_p^{(t)})$ with $\theta_k^{(t)} = (\mu_k^{(t)}, \sigma_k^{2(t)}, \lambda_k^{(t)})$, let $\mu_{\tau_{ij}}^{(t)} = \delta(\lambda_i^{(t)})(x_j - \mu_i^{(t)})$ and $\sigma_{\tau_i}^{(t)} = \sigma_i^{(t)} \sqrt{1 - \delta^2(\lambda_i^{(t)})}$. The ECM algorithm proceeds as follows:

E-step: Compute the conditional expectations

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{ij}^{(t)} &= E\left(Z_{ij} | X_j = x_j, \Psi^{(t)}\right) = \frac{\pi_i^{(t)} f_{SN}(x_j; \theta_i^{(t)})}{\sum_{k=1}^p \pi_k^{(t)} f_{SN}(x_j; \theta_k^{(t)})}, \\ \beta_{ij}^{(t)} &= E\left(\tau_j | X_j = x_j, Z_{ij} = 1, \Psi^{(t)}\right) = \mu_{\tau_{ij}}^{(t)} + \sigma_{\tau_i}^{(t)} \Delta_{ij}^{(t)}, \\ \gamma_{ij}^{(t)} &= E\left(\tau_j^2 | X_j = x_j, Z_{ij} = 1, \Psi^{(t)}\right) = \mu_{\tau_{ij}}^{2(t)} + \sigma_{\tau_i}^{2(t)} + \mu_{\tau_{ij}}^{(t)} \sigma_{\tau_i}^{(t)} \Delta_{ij}^{(t)}. \end{aligned}$$

where $\Delta_{ij}^{(t)} = \phi\left(\lambda_i^{(t)} \frac{x_j - \mu_i^{(t)}}{\sigma_i^{(t)}}\right) / \Phi\left(\lambda_i^{(t)} \frac{x_j - \mu_i^{(t)}}{\sigma_i^{(t)}}\right)$. Thus we get $E(Z_{ij} \tau_j | X_j, \Psi^{(t)}) = \alpha_{ij}^{(t)} \beta_{ij}^{(t)}$ and

$E(Z_{ij}\tau_j^2|X_j, \Psi^{(t)}) = \alpha_{ij}^{(t)}\gamma_{ij}^{(t)}$. Therefore, the objective function can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\Psi|\Psi^{(t)}) &= E\left(\ell_c(\Psi) + p_n(\Psi)|X, \Psi^{(t)}\right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^p \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij}^{(t)} \left\{ \log(\pi_i) - \log(\sigma_i^2) - \frac{1}{2} \log(1 - \delta^2(\lambda_i)) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{\gamma_{ij}^{(t)} - 2\delta(\lambda_i)\beta_{ij}^{(t)}(x_j - \mu_i) + (x_j - \mu_i)^2}{2\sigma_i^2(1 - \delta^2(\lambda_i))} \right\} + \sum_{k=1}^p p_n(\sigma_k) + \sum_{k=1}^p p_n(\lambda_k). \end{aligned}$$

CM-step : Maximize $Q(\Psi|\Psi^{(t)})$ with respect to Ψ under the restriction with $\sum_{k=1}^p \pi_k = 1$.

1: Update $\pi_i^{(t)}$ by $\pi_i^{(t+1)} = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij}^{(t)}$;

2: Update $\mu_i^{(t)}$ by

$$\mu_i^{(t+1)} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij}^{(t)} x_j - \delta(\lambda_i^{(t)}) \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij}^{(t)} \beta_{ij}^{(t)}}{\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij}^{(t)}}.$$

3: Fix $\mu_i = \mu_i^{(t+1)}$, denote $S_{0i}^{(t)} = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij}^{(t)} \gamma_{ij}^{(t)}$, $S_{1i}^{(t)} = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij}^{(t)} \beta_{ij}^{(t)} (x_j - \mu_i^{(t+1)})$ and $S_{2i}^{(t)} = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij}^{(t)} (x_j - \mu_i^{(t+1)})^2$, with the definition of $p_n(\sigma)$ in (2.1), obtain $\sigma_i^{2(t+1)}$ by setting

$$\sigma_i^{2(t+1)} = \frac{S_{0i}^{(t)} - 2\delta(\lambda_i^{(t)})S_{1i}^{(t)} + S_{2i}^{(t)} + 2a_n \left(1 - \delta^2(\lambda_i^{(t)})\right) s_n^2}{2 \left(1 - \delta^2(\lambda_i^{(t)})\right) \left(a_n + \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij}^{(t)}\right)}$$

4: Fix $\mu_i = \mu_i^{(t+1)}$ and $\sigma_i = \sigma_i^{(t+1)}$, with equivalent transformation of $p_n(\lambda) = -b_n \left\{ \frac{1}{1 - \delta^2(\lambda)} + \log(1 - \delta^2(\lambda)) - 1 \right\}$, and $\lambda_i^{(t+1)}$ is the solution of

$$-\delta^3(\lambda_i)\sigma_i^{2(t+1)} \left(2b_n + \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij}^{(t)}\right) + (1 + \delta^2(\lambda_i)) S_{1i}^{(t)} - \delta(\lambda_i) \left(S_{0i}^{(t)} + S_{2i}^{(t)} - \sigma_i^{2(t+1)} \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij}^{(t)}\right) = 0.$$

4*: For Azzalini's penalty function $p(\lambda) = -c_1 \log(1 + c_2 \lambda^2)$ where $c_1 = 0.876, c_2 = 0.856$ and $\lambda_i^{(t+1)}$ is obtained by solving

$$\sigma_i^{2(t+1)} \delta(\lambda_i) (1 - \delta^2(\lambda_i)) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij}^{(t)} - \frac{2c_1 c_2}{1 - (1 - c_2)\delta^2(\lambda_i)} \right) + (1 + \delta^2(\lambda_i)) S_{1i}^{(t)} - \delta(\lambda_i) \left(S_{0i}^{(t)} + S_{2i}^{(t)} \right) = 0.$$

With some elementary modifications, the ECME algorithm for fitting the skew normal mixtures can be conducted by replacing the 4th CM-step with the following CML-step:

CML-step: Calculate

$$\left(\lambda_1^{(t+1)}, \dots, \lambda_p^{(t+1)}\right) = \arg \max_{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p} \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n \log \left(\sum_{i=1}^p \pi_i^{(t+1)} f_{SN} \left(x_j; \mu_i^{(t+1)}, \sigma_i^{2(t+1)}, \lambda_i \right) \right) + \sum_{i=1}^p p_n(\lambda_i) \right\}.$$

As noted in Lin *et al.* (2007b), the ECME has a faster convergence rate than the ECM when $p = 1$ or $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p$ are the structure parameters. But beyond that, the ECM is the better choice for the one-dimensional search involved in the 4th CM-step as it is more efficient than the optimization of multi-parameter involved in CML-step.

To monitor convergence, we stop the EM-type algorithm after the relative change in the objective function is smaller than a threshold 10^{-6} .

Remark: Compared with the 4th CM-step in Lin *et al.* (2007b), the 4th CM-step of our penalized algorithm shares a similar structure and then the same computational complexity. We also note that the 4*th CM-step Azzalini's penalty function can significantly reduce the computational complexity. Moreover, it is worth noting that the penalty standing for a prior inverse Gamma distribution also enjoys the advantage of remaining computational efficiency, see Ciuperca *et al.* (2003) and Chen *et al.* (2008).

5 Simulation Studies

5.1 Penalty comparison

The first numerical simulation is conducted to compare the performance of our PMLE only with $p_n(\lambda)$ in (2.1) to that of the penalized estimator proposed by Azzalini and Arellano-Valle (2013), who called it MPLE. For ease of comparison, the parameter values and the sample sizes are taken to be the same as that in Azzalini and Arellano-Valle (Fig 5. 2013). That is, $\theta = (0, 1, 5)$ and $n = \{50, 100, 250, 350, 500, 1000\}$. Besides, the replication time is 5000.

The biases and root mean squared errors (RMSEs) of estimators are plotted in the two rows of Fig 1. The first row is with fixed skew value $\lambda = 5$ and different sample sizes, while the second row is with the fixed sample size $n = 100$ and different λ . We can then examine how the bias and RMSE can be reduced when the sample size is increasing. This can be showed in the first row of plots indicating the estimation consistency. The second row of plots shows how they behave when the sample size is fixed to be $n = 100$ and the value of λ is increasing. PMLE is better performed than MPLE uniformly and the bias of PMLE can be small at some value of λ around 6. The doubly logarithmic scale is adopted to simplify the interpretation for the

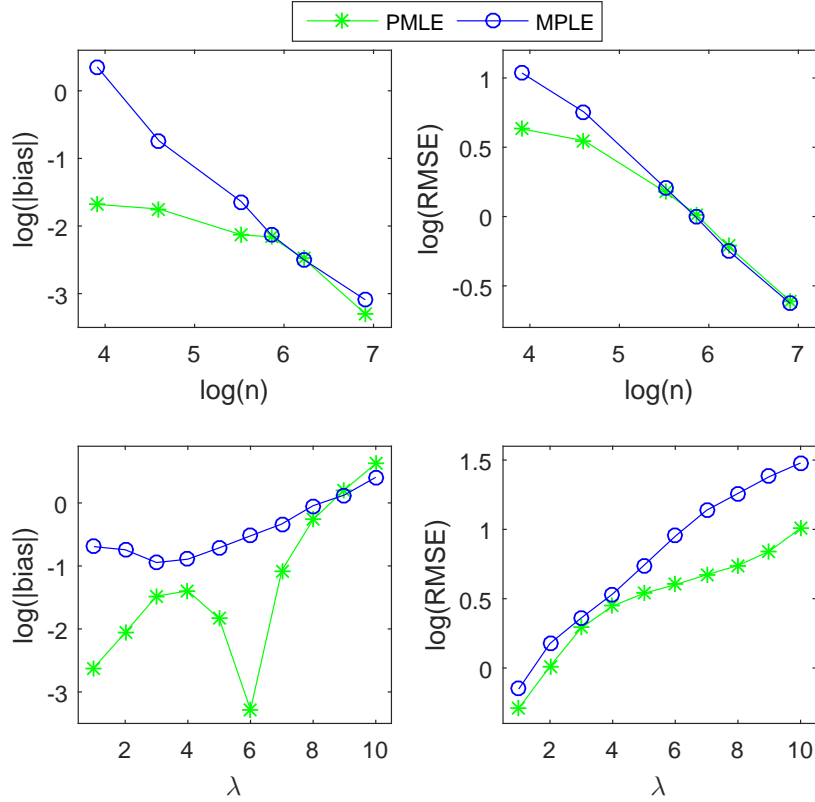


Figure 1: Simulation study on our PMLE and Azzalini's MPLE. Top left(right) panel: $\log |\text{bias}|$ ($\log(\text{RMSE})$) are calculated when $\lambda = 5$ and $n = \{50, 100, 250, 350, 500, 1000\}$; Bottom left(right) panel: $\log |\text{bias}|$ ($\log(\text{RMSE})$) are calculated when $n = 100$ and $\lambda = 1, \dots, 10$.

curves. especially for the upper left penal, in which the bias of MPLE decreases approximately at the rate of order $n^{-3/2}$. This is probably because $p_n(\lambda)$ in (2.1) decreases at the rate of order $\log(n)^{-1}$ as n increases, the bias of PMLE diminishes faster than that of MPLE. Overall, PMLE is markedly preferable to Azzalini's MPLE under small or moderate sample size cases.

5.2 Simulations for $p = p_0$

In this subsection, numerical studies are performed to examine the consistency of the PMLE. The studies, based on 5000 replications, consider samples of size $n = \{100, 200\}$ from two 2-component SNMIX models. The null settings are shown in Table 1.

For each model, the estimators are obtained by local maximization of the (penalized) likeli-

Table 1: The settings of two models

| Models | parameter settings ($SN(\mu, \sigma^2, \lambda)$) |
|----------|---|
| Model I | $0.5SN(-2, 1, 2) + 0.5SN(2, 2, 1)$ |
| Model II | $0.5SN(-1, 2, 1) + 0.5SN(1.5, 2, -1)$ |

hood function via the (penalized) ECM algorithm. To tackle the initialization issue, Chen *et al.* (2008) used the true mixing distribution as initial values and Basso *et al.* (2010) recommended a combination of the K -means approach and the method of moments. We employ both schemes in our simulations to see their performance. In addition, to overcome the effect of label switching (McLachlan & Peel 2000), we employ the method on location parameters in Celeux *et al.* (1996) in SNMIX.

Model I: The density function of Model I turns out to be bimodal and well-separated. Table 2 shows the minimum of $\hat{\sigma}^2$, the maximum of $|\hat{\lambda}|$ and their degeneracy frequencies of the two estimators out of 5000 replications. We regard the estimated values of σ^2 as 0 when $\hat{\sigma}^2 < 10^{-10}$, and take $|\hat{\lambda}| > 100$ as an indication of divergence.

Table 2: Results of parameter estimation for Model I. (numbers in brackets record the occurrences of $|\hat{\lambda}| > 100$)

| Parameters | $n = 100$ | | $n = 200$ | |
|-----------------------------|------------|-------|-----------|-------|
| | MLE | PMLE | MLE | PMLE |
| True values | | | | |
| $\min(\hat{\sigma}^2)$ | 0.111 | 0.136 | 0.270 | 0.273 |
| $\max(\hat{\lambda})$ | 3.8e2(205) | 10.58 | 1.6e2(4) | 11.03 |
| K-means | | | | |
| $\min(\hat{\sigma}^2)$ | 0.107 | 0.133 | 0.270 | 0.272 |
| $\max(\hat{\lambda})$ | 3.7e2(214) | 10.62 | 1.4e2(3) | 11.02 |

The outcomes in Table 2 indicate that the MLE of σ^2 does not shrink to 0 in this case. However, although the component densities are well-separated, the MLE still suffers from the divergence on λ in both initializations of the algorithms.

Table 3 shows the biases and RMSEs of the two estimators. It is clear that all biases and RMSEs of the PMLE in Table 3 decrease as n increases, reflecting its consistency. It is also

Table 3: Biases and RMSEs (in brackets) for Model I

| Parameters | $n = 100$ | | $n = 200$ | |
|--------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | MLE | PMLE | MLE | PMLE |
| True values | | | | |
| $\hat{\mu}_1$ | 0.027(0.26) | 0.036(0.24) | 0.015(0.19) | 0.020(0.18) |
| $\hat{\mu}_2$ | 0.071(0.46) | 0.070(0.43) | 0.051(0.35) | 0.055(0.35) |
| $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$ | 0.162(0.74) | 0.081(0.59) | 0.072(0.45) | 0.048(0.41) |
| $\hat{\sigma}_2^2$ | 0.055(0.84) | 0.024(0.77) | 0.029(0.62) | 0.017(0.59) |
| $\hat{\lambda}_1$ | 7.208(40.9) | 0.528(1.82) | 0.571(4.36) | 0.299(1.25) |
| $\hat{\lambda}_2$ | 5.065(32.0) | 0.491(1.62) | 0.358(1.94) | 0.233(1.05) |
| $\hat{\pi}_1$ | 0.008(0.03) | 0.005(0.03) | 0.004(0.02) | 0.003(0.02) |
| K-means | | | | |
| $\hat{\mu}_1$ | 0.088(0.37) | 0.097(0.36) | 0.043(0.23) | 0.049(0.22) |
| $\hat{\mu}_2$ | 0.228(0.79) | 0.226(0.77) | 0.117(0.50) | 0.120(0.49) |
| $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$ | 0.103(0.69) | 0.030(0.56) | 0.030(0.45) | 0.006(0.41) |
| $\hat{\sigma}_2^2$ | 0.293(1.07) | 0.229(0.93) | 0.073(0.68) | 0.059(0.65) |
| $\hat{\lambda}_1$ | 6.385(39.0) | 0.304(1.95) | 0.434(4.03) | 0.178(1.29) |
| $\hat{\lambda}_2$ | 3.522(33.0) | 0.095(2.13) | 0.197(1.99) | 0.091(1.25) |
| $\hat{\pi}_1$ | 0.003(0.03) | 0.001(0.03) | 0.002(0.02) | 0.001(0.02) |

remarkable that, the PMLE is far superior in the performances of estimating λ_1 and λ_2 to the MLE, remedy the indeed unreliable MLE of λ especially when n is small. Overall, the PMLE significantly outperforms the MLE except for the mean μ_1 . Meanwhile, presumably due to the well separate kernel densities, the MLEs and PMLEs of all other parameters work well.

The unreliable MLE of λ reaffirms the theoretical expectation in DiCiccio and Monti (2004). That is, larger sample sizes would be required to improve the estimation accuracy. When $n = 1000$, the mixing distribution can generally be reliably estimated by the MLE. A separate simulation study is performed in Model I with $n = 1000$, the outcome is summarized graphically in Fig 2. In this situation, not only the estimated distribution $\hat{\Psi}$ but also all elements in $\hat{\Psi}$ converge to that of Ψ_0 .

Moreover, for SN distribution, DiCiccio and Monti (2004) proposed an easy-to-implement procedure to handle the estimation divergence about λ . They defined $\hat{\lambda}$ by the smallest value $\check{\lambda}$ such that $H_0 : \lambda = \check{\lambda}$ is not rejected at the 5% nominal level by a profile likelihood ratio test converging in distribution to χ_1^2 .

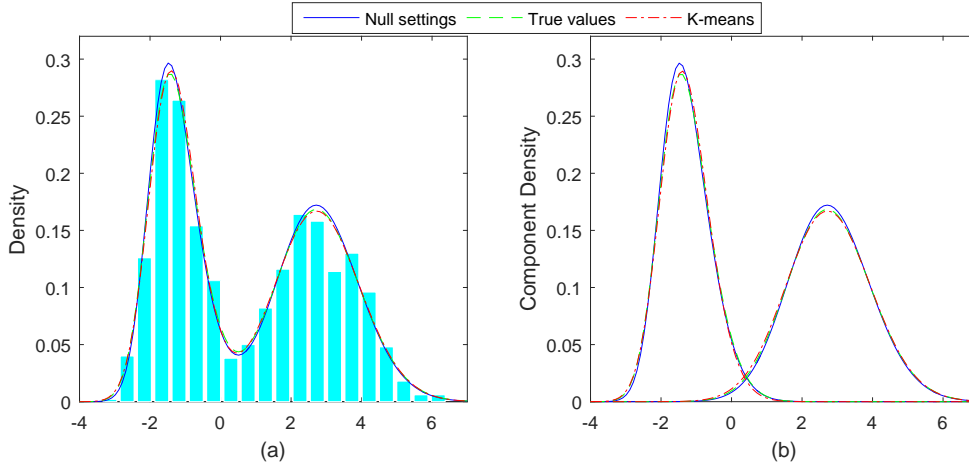


Figure 2: (a) Histogram of the simulating data from Model I with $n = 1000$ overlaid with densities under null settings and MLEs with two starts, (b) Component densities under null settings and MLEs with two starts

Let $\hat{\Lambda}$ be the MLE of $\Lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p)$ with $\Lambda_0 = (\lambda_{01}, \dots, \lambda_{0p})$. Noting that there is no $\sigma^2 \rightarrow 0$ in Model I, we thus extend the approach of DiCiccio and Monti (2004) to SNMIX by taking $\hat{\Lambda}$ to be a modified estimator (ME) $\check{\Lambda} = (\check{\lambda}_1, \dots, \check{\lambda}_p)$. The ME $\check{\Lambda}$ is obtained by $\max_{\check{\Lambda}} \|\check{\Lambda} - \hat{\Lambda}\|_1$ under that the composite null hypothesis $H_0 : \Lambda = \check{\Lambda}$ is not rejected at the 5% nominal level by the profile likelihood ratio test whose limiting null distribution is chi-squared χ^2_ν with the degrees of freedom $\nu = \sum_{k=1}^p I(|\lambda_k| \geq 30)$.

Table 4: Biases and RMSEs (in brackets) of the ME for Model I on λ .

| Parameters | True values | | K-means | |
|---------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | $n = 100$ | $n = 200$ | $n = 100$ | $n = 200$ |
| $\check{\lambda}_1$ | 1.247(3.87) | 0.443(1.74) | 0.972(3.91) | 0.317(1.76) |
| $\check{\lambda}_2$ | 0.967(3.19) | 0.336(1.52) | 0.446(3.75) | 0.183(1.64) |

The only difference between the ME and MLE is mainly on the performance of estimating the shape parameters λ_1 and λ_2 . Table 4 shows that with both the initial schemes of the algorithms, the ME has power to exclude diverging estimates. However, as shown in Table 3, the PMLE works better than the ME.

Remark: Unfortunately, the extension of DiCiccio and Monti's (2004) approach to the SN-

MIX lacks rigorous theoretical basis. When $\check{\sigma}^2 = \hat{\sigma}^2 \rightarrow 0$, the null hypothesis $H_0 : \Lambda = \check{\Lambda}$ lies on the boundary of the parameter space. That is, the regularity conditions are not satisfied for the mixture problem considered here, and the asymptotic χ^2 theory of the likelihood ratio test statistic does not hold. Hence, their method remains invalid in SNMIX but it seems to be applicable only in the well-separated case without $\hat{\sigma}^2 \rightarrow 0$, displaying an additional advantage of the penalized estimator.

In the following, we consider a more difficult situation in which two component densities in the mixture are close to one another. However, an interesting observation is that although the parameters cannot be well estimated separately, the densities can be estimated accurately.

Model II: The components of Model II are of homoscedasticity and the density function here seems to be strongly unimodal and thus poorly-separated. The simulated results are presented in Tables 5 and 6.

Table 5: Results of parameter estimation for Model II (the numbers in brackets record the occurrences of $\hat{\sigma}^2 < 1e-10(1 \times 10^{-10})$ and $|\hat{\lambda}| > 100$ respectively)

| Parameters | $n = 100$ | | $n = 200$ | |
|-------------------------|-------------|-------|-------------|-------|
| | MLE | PMLE | MLE | PMLE |
| True values | | | | |
| $\min(\hat{\sigma}^2)$ | 7.8e-31(62) | 0.008 | 7.7e-31(12) | 0.004 |
| $\max(\hat{\lambda})$ | 5.3e2(533) | 9.511 | 3.3e2(91) | 11.01 |
| K-means | | | | |
| $\min(\hat{\sigma}^2)$ | 2.7e-304(3) | 0.008 | 0.001 | 0.009 |
| $\max(\hat{\lambda})$ | 3.1e2(638) | 11.14 | 2.9e2(75) | 12.28 |

It can be observed from Table 5 that (a) the MLE suffers from degeneracies in both of σ^2 and λ even when the true distribution is used for initialization of the algorithm, the difficult situation is eased as sample size increases; (b) the penalized approach solves both degenerate problems on σ^2 and λ , all estimated values of PMLE are well confined; (c) the classical clustering procedure *K*-means has, to certain extent, an excluding effect in fitting $\hat{\Psi}$ with degenerate component variances as we found that the *K*-means initialization of the algorithm can reduce the proportion of diverging values compared with the true value initialization.

Table 5 also indicates a remarkable higher degenerate frequency on $\hat{\lambda}$ than on $\hat{\sigma}^2$. The

divergence of shape parameters in SNMIX thus must be paid more attention in practice. The phenomenon can also partly explain our use of a significantly slower decreasing $p_n(\lambda)$ defined in (2.2) with rate $(\log n)^{-1}$, than the n^{-1} of $p_n(\sigma)$ as n increases.

Table 6: Biases and RMSEs (in brackets) for Model II

| Parameters | $n = 100$ | | $n = 200$ | |
|-----------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | MLE | PMLE | MLE | PMLE |
| True values | | | | |
| $\hat{\mu}_1$ | -0.123(0.74) | -0.094(0.72) | -0.081(0.57) | -0.063(0.54) |
| $\hat{\mu}_2$ | 0.154(0.76) | 0.125(0.73) | 0.089(0.58) | 0.075(0.56) |
| $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$ | -0.901(5.88) | -0.579(1.09) | -0.279(2.28) | -0.280(0.72) |
| $\hat{\sigma}_2^2$ | -0.793(5.15) | -0.595(1.12) | -0.319(2.63) | -0.288(0.74) |
| $\hat{\lambda}_1$ | 12.14(52.1) | 0.303(1.32) | 2.707(19.8) | 0.286(1.19) |
| $\hat{\lambda}_2$ | -13.02(54.4) | -0.350(1.36) | -2.497(18.5) | -0.269(1.13) |
| $\hat{\pi}_1$ | 0.003(0.23) | 0.005(0.25) | 0.003(0.19) | 0.004(0.19) |
| K-means | | | | |
| $\hat{\mu}_1$ | 0.871(1.18) | 0.846(1.20) | 0.947(1.13) | 0.935(1.14) |
| $\hat{\mu}_2$ | -0.808(1.14) | -0.784(1.17) | -0.951(1.13) | -0.940(1.13) |
| $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$ | -0.719(1.52) | -0.745(1.13) | -0.562(0.87) | -0.582(0.89) |
| $\hat{\sigma}_2^2$ | -0.920(10.0) | -0.796(1.19) | -0.543(0.82) | -0.564(0.83) |
| $\hat{\lambda}_1$ | -15.27(50.5) | -2.752(3.57) | -4.648(15.7) | -2.414(3.29) |
| $\hat{\lambda}_2$ | 14.64(50.1) | 2.699(3.52) | 4.447(16.8) | 2.411(3.29) |
| $\hat{\pi}_1$ | 0.010(0.24) | 0.009(0.25) | 0.001(0.20) | 0.001(0.20) |

Table 6 reports the biases and RMSEs of the MLE and PMLE under Model II. To manifest the discrepancy between degenerate $\hat{\sigma}^2$ and σ_0^2 , and to make a sensible comparison, we calculate the bias and RMSE of $\log(\hat{\sigma}_i^2)$ instead of $\hat{\sigma}_i^2$, which are in proportion to the relative indicators used in Chen *et al.* (2008). When Ψ_0 is used for initialization, the biases and RMSEs of PMLE reduce rapidly as n increases, with remarkable superiority of PMLE over MLE displayed on $\hat{\lambda}$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2$.

In the case of K -means initialization, although $\hat{\sigma}^2 \rightarrow 0$ has been largely prevented, Ψ has not been estimated accurately, both the estimators even lose the consistency on $\hat{\mu}$. This behavior was investigated through a separate simulation study, which is conducted on a data set generated from Model II with $n = 1000$. Table 7 shows the MLE and PMLE are almost equivalent under the same initialization scheme, while quite different if the initialization changes. Meanwhile, the

values of $p\ell_n(\hat{\Psi})$ obtained when Ψ_0 is used as initial value are smaller than those that are based on K -means initialization. That is, the EM-type algorithm converges to a local maximum when starting from Ψ_0 , the K -means based estimates seem the global maximum solution, which leads to the poor performances in Table 6.

The outcomes in Table 7 are vividly summarized in Figure 3. We can see that although the K -means based fitted mixing density is close to the true value based estimate, the resulting component densities differ substantially from the true ones. In other words, this phenomenon does not challenge the identifiability of finite mixture models(Wald 1949; Kiefer and Wolfowitz 1956), but reveals the so-called "*over-flexibility*" shortcoming of the estimation methods for SNMIX when the two mixing components are close to one another.

Table 7: Parameter estimates for Model II when $n = 1000$

| Method | μ_1 | μ_2 | σ_1^2 | σ_2^2 | λ_1 | λ_2 | π_1 | $p\ell_n(\hat{\Psi})$ |
|-----------------------------|---------|---------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|---------|-----------------------|
| True values | | | | | | | | |
| MLE | -1.018 | 1.440 | 1.940 | 1.873 | 1.018 | -1.016 | 0.504 | -1617 |
| PMLE | -1.018 | 1.439 | 1.940 | 1.873 | 1.018 | -1.015 | 0.504 | -1617 |
| K-means | | | | | | | | |
| MLE | -0.037 | 0.273 | 1.136 | 1.399 | -0.846 | 1.814 | 0.525 | -1616 |
| PMLE | -0.038 | 0.273 | 1.136 | 1.398 | -0.844 | 1.804 | 0.525 | -1616 |

Another interesting observation about the K -means based estimation is its much lower occurrence of $\hat{\sigma}^2 \rightarrow 0$ than the true value based estimation in SNMIX presented in Table 5 in spite of its poor performances indicated in Table 6. To further study this phenomenon, we consider Example 2 of Chen *et al.* (2008), in which data were generated from $0.5N(0, 1) + 0.5N(1.5, 3)$. In this case, based on the two starting strategies, we fit the data with both two-component GMIX and SNMIX. The replication time is again 5000.

The results in Table 8 suggest the following. For the GMIX model, the K -means based estimation gets more degenerate $\hat{\sigma}^2$ than the true value based estimation does when $n = 100$. While for SNMIX, the K -means based estimation avoids $\hat{\sigma}^2 \rightarrow 0$ more efficiently than the true value based estimation. However, the K -means based estimation suffers much more severely from the divergence of $\hat{\lambda}$ than the true value based estimation. This may explain the reason why the aggregated estimation effect of the K -means based estimation is worse.

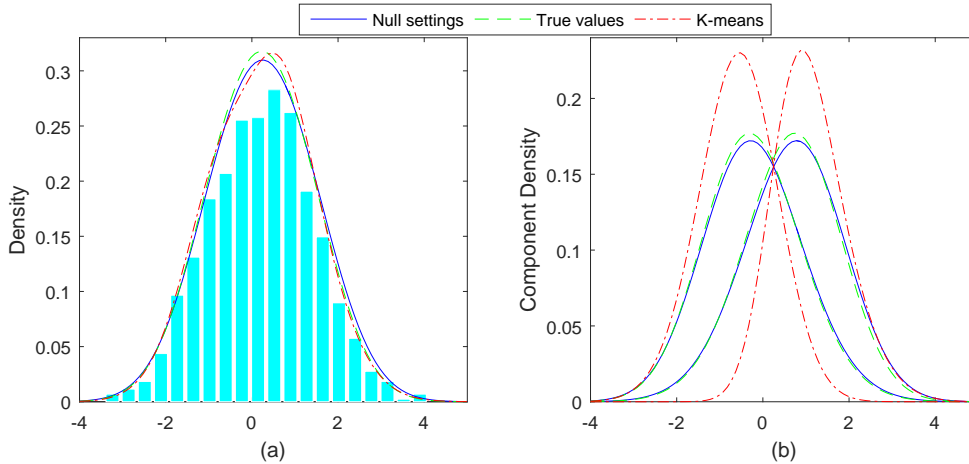


Figure 3: (a) Histogram of the simulating data from Model II with $n = 1000$ overlaid with densities under null settings and MLEs with two starts, (b) Component densities under null settings and MLEs with two starts

Table 8: Results of parameter estimation for $0.5N(0, 1) + 0.5N(1.5, 3)$ fitted by GMIX and SNMIX. (the numbers in brackets record the occurrences of $\hat{\sigma}^2 < 1e-10$ and $|\hat{\lambda}| > 100$ respectively)

| Parameters | True values | | K -means | |
|-------------------------|--------------|------------|-------------|------------|
| | $n = 100$ | $n = 200$ | $n = 100$ | $n = 200$ |
| GMIX | | | | |
| $\min(\hat{\sigma}^2)$ | 0(30) | 0(3) | 0(40) | 0(3) |
| SNMIX | | | | |
| $\min(\hat{\sigma}^2)$ | 4.3e-252(22) | 7.7e-31(2) | 7.8e-304(3) | 3.1e-30(2) |
| $\max(\hat{\lambda})$ | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.4e2(588) | 3.0e2(116) |

The achievement of preventing $\hat{\sigma}^2 \rightarrow 0$ under Model II thus comes from the cooperation of the SNMIX modelling scheme and the K -means starting strategy. An intuitive explanation for this phenomenon is that, the K -means starts in SNMIX can escape from the attraction domain around the singularities, the existence of which was proved by Biernacki and Chrtien (2003).

5.3 Simulation for $p > p_0$

In the case of $p_0 < p < \infty$, for convenience, the data have still been sampled from Model I with $n = \{100, 200, 500\}$, that is, $p_0 = 2$. For each data set, the MLE and PMLE are computed when $p = \{2, 3, 4, 5\}$. The simulating size is 1000.

Since $p > p_0$, we cannot expect that every part of $\hat{\Psi}$ equals to that of Ψ_0 . To handle this situation, Chen *et al.* (2008) and Chen & Tan (2009) employed ten values in the neighbourhood of Ψ_0 as the starts of the ECM algorithm. In this simulation, the ten initial values are obtained by slightly perturbing μ_{0j} in Ψ_0 . The perturbation proceeds as follows:

$$\mu_i = \mu_{0j} + N(0, 0.1^2), \pi_i = \pi_{0j}/\omega_j; i = 1, \dots, p; j = 1, \dots, p_0.$$

where ω_j is the total component number that μ_i comes from μ_{0j} and $\sum_{j=1}^{p_0} \omega_j = p$. Given the initial values, the best run in terms of objective function is taken as the final estimator.

In this case, it is meaningful to investigate the distance $D(\hat{\Psi}, \Psi_0)$ defined in (3.1). However, it is not sensible for measuring the discrepancy between $\hat{\Psi}$ and Ψ_0 . To improve the situation, we employ a modified distance $D^*(\hat{\Psi}, \Psi_0) = \int_{\Theta^*} |\hat{\Psi}(\theta) - \Psi_0(\theta)| d\theta$, where $\theta = (\mu, \log(\sigma^2)/5, \log(\lambda)/2)$ and $\Theta^* = [-5, 10] \times [-15, 1] \times [-10, 5]$. Note that all parameter values of two estimators are within the region Θ^* .

The numbers of degeneracies of MLE are shown in Table 9. It is immediately clear that the frequencies of degeneracy of σ^2 and λ decrease as n increases and increase as the putative order p increases. In addition, we also observe a higher frequency of degeneracy existing on λ over σ^2 , in agreement with Table 2 and 5. We also issue a statement here that, in all cases, there is no degenerate outcomes occurred in our penalized estimator.

Table 9: Number of degeneracies in $\hat{\sigma}^2$ and $\hat{\lambda}$ for Model I.

| $p_0 = 2$ | $n = 100$ | | $n = 200$ | | $n = 500$ | |
|-----------|------------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| | $\hat{\sigma}^2$ | $\hat{\lambda}$ | $\hat{\sigma}^2$ | $\hat{\lambda}$ | $\hat{\sigma}^2$ | $\hat{\lambda}$ |
| $p = 2$ | 0 | 40 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| $p = 3$ | 12 | 492 | 3 | 134 | 0 | 1 |
| $p = 4$ | 79 | 901 | 12 | 290 | 0 | 12 |
| $p = 5$ | 166 | 1196 | 30 | 437 | 0 | 25 |

Table 10 reports the averages of $D^*(\hat{\Psi}, \Psi_0)$. In each case, the mean of $D^*(\hat{\Psi}, \Psi_0)$ decreases as n increases. The slow decreasing rate of $D^*(\hat{\Psi}, \Psi_0)$ may be also explained by the conclusion in Chen (1995) that the optimal convergence rate of estimated distribution is at most $n^{-1/4}$ when $p > p_0$. Moreover, for $n = 100$, we can observe a significantly smaller and slower increasing

Table 10: Average $D^*(\Psi, \Psi_0)$ of MLE and PMLE for Model I

| $p_0 = 2$ | MLE | | | PMLE | | |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | $n = 100$ | $n = 200$ | $n = 500$ | $n = 100$ | $n = 200$ | $n = 500$ |
| $p = 2$ | 9.46 | 6.84 | 4.35 | 8.17 | 6.53 | 4.32 |
| $p = 3$ | 15.56 | 10.83 | 6.59 | 10.37 | 9.00 | 6.23 |
| $p = 4$ | 19.04 | 13.39 | 7.95 | 12.29 | 10.83 | 7.48 |
| $p = 5$ | 22.28 | 15.44 | 9.08 | 13.82 | 12.19 | 8.48 |

average distance of PMLE over MLE, indicates the superiority of PMLE when $p > p_0$. However, the discrepancies on average $D^*(\hat{\Psi}, \Psi_0)$ of two methods gradually vanishes as n increases.

6 Application Examples

6.1 Body mass index data

This data set contains information about body mass index (BMI), an important medical standard used to measure obesity, calculated by the ratio of body weight (kg) and square of body height (m^2). The BMI data is collected by the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, conducted annually by the National Center for Health Statistics of the Center for Disease Control in the USA. According to the reports in years 1999-2000 and 2001-2002, Lin *et al.* (2007a) investigated the BMI of man participants aged between 18 to 80, whose weights are lying within [39.5, 70] kg and [95.01, 196.8] kg. The data is strongly bimodal and thus fitted with two-component mixtures using four distributions: Normal, Student' t , Skew normal and Skew t . Another two distributions, skew contaminated normal and skew slash distribution, are introduced by Prates *et al.* (2013) to model this data.

We obtain the BMI data consisting of 2107 participants in R package **mixsmsn** presented by Prates *et al.* (2013). To compare the proposed PMLE with the ordinary MLE, the parameter estimations and penalized log-likelihoods are displayed in Table 11. The results are the best performer of objective functions out of 20 runs with different K -means starts. A relative tolerance of 10^{-6} for objective functions is employed in the ECM algorithm as the convergence criterion.

Table 11: Parameter estimates for BMI data

| Method | μ_1 | μ_2 | σ_1^2 | σ_2^2 | λ_1 | λ_2 | π_1 | $p\ell_n(\hat{\Psi})$ |
|--------|---------|---------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|---------|-----------------------|
| MLE | 19.70 | 28.71 | 12.45 | 62.80 | 1.622 | 8.104 | 0.522 | -6870 |
| PMLE | 19.74 | 28.70 | 12.05 | 62.69 | 1.564 | 7.618 | 0.520 | -6870 |

The results of MLE and PMLE are given in Table 11, and they are essentially equivalent to each other. Thus in the case without degeneracies on σ^2 and λ , the PMLE can be sufficiently close to MLE. Besides, it appears that the fitted model is of significant heteroscedasticity. The approximation of two approaches in this data set seems reasonable, since the effect of the penalizing terms $p_n(\sigma)$ and $p_n(\lambda)$ naturally disappear as n increases to infinity.

6.2 The Faithful data

For the second case, we investigate the accuracy of the proposed PMLE in a data set with small sample size. A good choice is the famous Faithful data, which is collected from Old Faithful Geyser in Yellowstone National Park. Scientists presented analysis on this data, see Silverman (1986) and Azzalini and Bowman (1990). It consists of 272 observations, measured on two variables (in minutes): eruption length and eruption duration. Lin *et al.* (2007b) and Prates *et al.* (2013) fitted the data with univariate and bivariate two-component SNMIX respectively, both of which have better performance than corresponding two-component GMIX.

We focus on fitting eruption length with two-component SNMIX and list the outcomes in the Table 12. As expected, all parameter values of PMLE keep almost the same as that of the MLE. The similarity of MLE and PMLE is also reemphasized by the density curves and CDF curves in Figure 4, both of which are inseparable.

Table 12: Parameter estimates for Faithful data

| Method | μ_1 | μ_2 | σ_1^2 | σ_2^2 | λ_1 | λ_2 | π_1 | $p\ell_n(\hat{\Psi})$ |
|--------|---------|---------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|---------|-----------------------|
| MLE | 1.727 | 4.796 | 0.145 | 0.463 | 5.818 | -3.401 | 0.349 | -257.9 |
| PMLE | 1.728 | 4.794 | 0.143 | 0.462 | 5.559 | -3.357 | 0.349 | -257.9 |

Based on the results of Table 12 and Figure 4, it strongly suggests that the proposed penal-

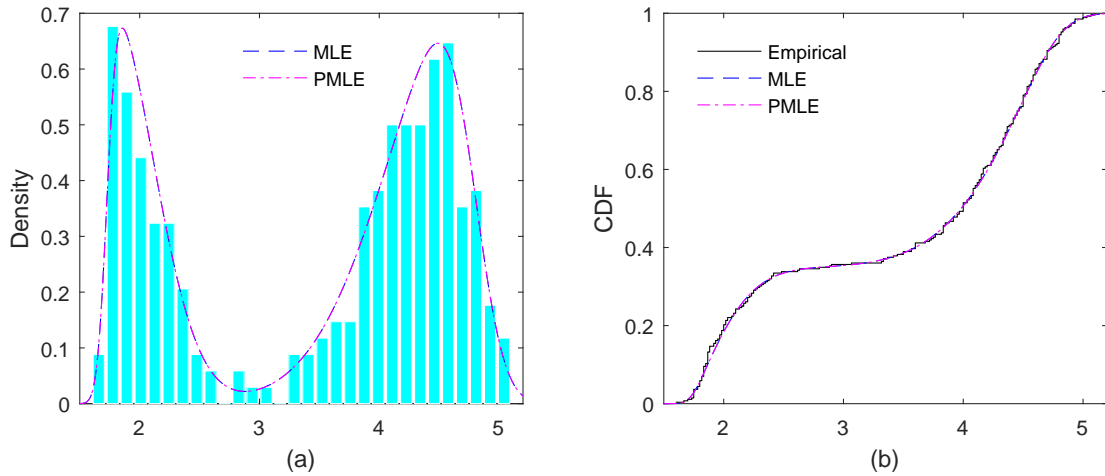


Figure 4: (a) Histogram of the faithful data overlaid with densities based on the results of MLE and PMLE, (b) Empirical CDF of the faithful data overlaid with CDFs based on MLE and PMLE

izing approach can give a reasonably accurate estimate, which would be also sufficient for data sets of small sample size.

7 Conclusions

In this paper, we propose a penalized MLE to overcome both the degeneracy of σ^2 and the divergence of $|\lambda|$ in MLE in skew normal mixture models. The rigorous proofs of the consistency of the PMLE are provided when the putative order p is equal to or larger than p_0 . The approach developed could be valid for regaining the consistency and efficiency, and have the advantage of placing no additional constraint on the parameter space. This methodology can be extensively applicable to other class of finite mixture models, for example, the multivariate SNMIX models (Lin 2009) and finite mixture of skew- t distributions (Lin *et al.* 2007a), which are more complicated and worthy of further investigation.

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Appendix

Proof of Theorem 3.1

Proof. Define index sets of observations $A_{(k)} = \{i : |x_i - \mu_{(k)}| < |\sigma_{(k)} \log \sigma_{(k)}|\}$ for $k = 1, \dots, p$. For any set S , let $n(S)$ be the number of elements in S and define $\ell_n(\Psi; S) = \sum_{i \in S} \log f(x_i; \Psi)$.

For $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^p$ and small enough ϵ_0 , the mixture density $f(x_i; \Psi) \leq \frac{1}{\sigma_{(k)}}$ for any $i \in A_{(k)}$. Since $n(\cap_{t=1}^{k-1} A_{(t)}^c \cap A_{(k)}) \leq n(A_{(k)})$, recall the bound for $n(A_{(k)})$ in lemma 2.2, almost surely, we have

$$\ell_n(\Psi; \cap_{t=1}^{k-1} A_{(t)}^c \cap A_{(k)}) \leq -n(A_{(k)}) \log \sigma_{(k)} \leq 4Mn\sigma_{(k)} \log^2 \sigma_{(k)} - 10 \log \sigma_{(k)} \log n, \quad (\text{A.1})$$

Adding penalty function $p_n(\sigma_{(k)})$ satisfying conditions **C1-C2**, the (A.1) can be extended as

$$\begin{aligned} & \ell_n(\Psi; \cap_{t=1}^{k-1} A_{(t)}^c \cap A_{(k)}) + p_n(\sigma_{(k)}) \\ & \leq 4Mn\sigma_{(k)} \log^2 \sigma_{(k)} - (10 \log n - \log^2 n) \log \sigma_{(k)} \\ & \leq 4Mn\sigma_{(k)} \log^2 \sigma_{(k)} \leq 4Mn\epsilon_0 \log^2 \epsilon_0. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.2})$$

For any $i \in \cap_{t=1}^p A_{(t)}^c$, since $|x_i - \mu_{(k)}| > |\sigma_{(k)} \log \sigma_{(k)}|$, it is easy to show

$$\log f(x_i; \Psi) \leq \log \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^p \frac{2\pi_k}{\sigma_k} \phi\left(\frac{x_i - \mu_k}{\sigma_k}\right) \right\} \leq \log \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^p \frac{2\pi_k}{\sigma_k} \phi(-\log \sigma_k) \right\} \leq -\log \epsilon_0 - \frac{\log^2 \epsilon_0}{2} < 0$$

By $4pM\epsilon_0 \log^2 \epsilon_0 \leq 1$, $-4pM\epsilon_0 \log \epsilon_0 \leq \frac{p-1}{p}$ holds for small enough ϵ_0 , this further implies

$$n(\cap_{t=1}^p A_{(t)}^c) \geq n - \sum_{t=1}^p n(A_{(t)}) \geq \frac{n}{p}.$$

Hence, the total log-likelihood contributions of observations in $\cap_{t=1}^p A_{(t)}^c$ are bounded by

$$\ell_n(\Psi; \cap_{t=1}^p A_{(t)}^c) \leq -\frac{n}{p} \left\{ \log \epsilon_0 + \frac{(\log \epsilon_0)^2}{2} \right\} \quad (\text{A.3})$$

Thus, for $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^p$ and the selected sufficiently small ϵ_0 , with the results of (A.2) & (A.3) and condition **C3**, the penalized log-likelihood has the upper bound as

$$p\ell_n(\Psi) = \sum_{k=1}^p \left\{ \ell_n(\Psi; \cap_{t=1}^{k-1} A_{(t)}^c \cap A_{(k)}) + p_n(\sigma_{(k)}) \right\} + \ell_n(\Psi; \cap_{t=1}^p A_{(t)}^c) + o(n)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq 4pMn\epsilon_0 \log^2 \epsilon_0 - \frac{n}{p} \left\{ \log \epsilon_0 + \frac{(\log \epsilon_0)^2}{2} \right\} + o(n) \\ &\leq n + n(K_0 - 2) + o(n) = n(K_0 - 1) + o(n) \end{aligned}$$

By the strong law of large numbers, we have $\frac{1}{n}p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \xrightarrow{a.s.} K_0$. Consequently, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, almost surely,

$$\sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^p} p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \leq -n + o(n) \rightarrow -\infty.$$

□

Proof of Theorem 3.2

Proof. Let $\bar{\Gamma}_\sigma^\tau$ be a compactified Γ_σ^τ allowing $\sigma_{(1)} = \dots = \sigma_{(\tau)} = 0$. For $\Psi \in \bar{\Gamma}_\sigma^\tau$, define the following continuous functions

$$g_\tau(x; \Psi) = \sum_{k=1}^{\tau} \frac{\pi_{(k)}}{\sqrt{2}} \phi\left(\frac{x - \mu_{(k)}}{\sqrt{2}\epsilon_0}\right) + \sum_{k=\tau+1}^p \pi_{(k)} f(x; \theta_{(k)})$$

where $f(x; \theta_{(k)})$ is density function of k th component. Since $\sigma_{(p)} \geq \dots \geq \sigma_{(\tau+1)} \geq \epsilon_0$, $g_\tau(x; \Psi)$ is bounded over $\bar{\Gamma}_\sigma^\tau$. Therefore, $\forall \Psi \in \bar{\Gamma}_\sigma^\tau$, we have $\log E_{\Psi_0} \{g_\tau(X; \Psi)/f(X; \Psi_0)\} = -\Delta_\tau(\epsilon_0) < 0$. It is also obvious that $\Delta_\tau(\epsilon_0)$ is a decreasing function and $\lim_{\epsilon_0 \rightarrow 0} \Delta_\tau(\epsilon_0) \in (0, \infty)$. Hence, the inequality $8\tau M\epsilon_0 \log^2 \epsilon_0 < \Delta_\tau(\epsilon_0)$ holds for small enough ϵ_0 .

Define $l_n^\tau(\Psi) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log\{g_\tau(x_i; \Psi)\}$ on $\bar{\Gamma}_\sigma^\tau$, by the strong law of large numbers and the upper bound of Jensen's inequality, we have almost surely

$$\sup_{\Psi \in \bar{\Gamma}_\sigma^\tau} n^{-1} \{l_n^\tau(\Psi) - \ell_n(\Psi_0)\} \rightarrow E_{\Psi_0} \log\{g_\tau(X; \Psi)/f(X; \Psi_0)\} \leq -\Delta_\tau(\epsilon_0) \quad (\text{A.4})$$

For $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^\tau$ and $\tau \in \{1, \dots, p-1\}$, recall the definition of $A_{(k)}, k \in \{1, \dots, \tau\}$, the mixture density $f(x_i; \Psi) \leq \frac{1}{\sigma_{(k)}} g_\tau(x_i; \Psi)$ for all $i \in A_{(k)}$. While to the remaining observations, since $|x_i - \mu_{(k)}| \geq |\sigma_{(k)} \log \sigma_{(k)}|$, and if $\sigma_{(k)}$ is small enough that $\sigma_{(k)}^{-1} = \exp\{-\log \sigma_{(k)}\} < \exp\{\frac{1}{4} \log^2 \sigma_{(k)}\}$, thus

$$f(x; \theta_{(k)}) \leq \frac{2}{\sigma_{(k)}} \phi\left(\frac{x - \mu_{(k)}}{\sigma_{(k)}}\right) \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \phi\left(\frac{x - \mu_{(k)}}{2\sigma_{(k)}}\right) \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \phi\left(\frac{x - \mu_{(k)}}{2\epsilon_0}\right)$$

holds with $\sigma_{(k)} \leq \epsilon_0$, which implies $f(x_i; \Psi) \leq g_\tau(x_i; \Psi)$.

In summary, the log-likelihood contribution of x_i have following upper bounds

$$\log f(x_i; \Psi) \leq \begin{cases} -\log \sigma_{(k)} + \log g_\tau(x_i; \Psi), & i \in A_{(k)}, \\ \log g_\tau(x_i; \Psi), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This further indicates the upper bound of log-likelihood

$$\ell_n(\Psi) \leq l_n^\tau(\Psi) - \sum_{k=1}^{\tau} n(A_{(k)}) \log \sigma_{(k)}.$$

With the conclusions of (A.2) and (A.4), it can be show that

$$\begin{aligned} & \sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^\tau} p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \\ & \leq \sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^\tau} \{l_n^\tau(\Psi) - \ell_n(\Psi_0)\} + \sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^\tau} \sum_{k=1}^{\tau} \{-n(A_{(k)}) \log \sigma_{(k)} + p_n(\sigma_{(k)})\} + o(n) \\ & \leq -n\Delta_\tau(\epsilon_0) + 4\tau Mn\epsilon_0 \log^2 \epsilon_0 + o(n) \leq -\frac{\Delta_\tau(\epsilon_0)}{2}n + o(n) \end{aligned}$$

for the chosen ϵ_0 . Note that $\Delta_\tau(\epsilon_0) > 0$, thus $\forall \tau \in \{1, \dots, p-1\}$, $\sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^\tau} p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \rightarrow -\infty$ a.s. as $n \rightarrow \infty$. \square

Proof of Theorem 3.3

Proof. When $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda$, since the component deviances have a positive lower bound and divergent skew parameters do not lead to infinite component density, $f(x; \Psi)$ is therefore bounded over $\Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda$.

According to Jensen's inequality, we have $E_{\Psi_0} \log\{f(X; \Psi)/f(X; \Psi_0)\} < 0$ for any $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda$. We can also choose η_0 large enough so that $\Psi_0 \notin \Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda$. Consequently it is easy to show that, as in Wald (1949),

$$\sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(\frac{f(x_i; \Psi)}{f(x_i; \Psi_0)} \right) \right\} \rightarrow -\Delta(\eta_0) < 0 \quad \text{a.s. as } n \rightarrow \infty. \quad (\text{A.5})$$

Note that $\Delta(\eta_0)$ is greater than zero and is a increasing function of η_0 . With the upper bound in (A.5) and the conditions **C1-C3**, we get

$$\sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda} p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) = \sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda} \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(\frac{f(x_i; \Psi)}{f(x_i; \Psi_0)} \right) + \sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda} p_n(\Psi) - p_n(\Psi_0)$$

$$\leq -\frac{\Delta(\eta_0)}{2}n + o(n)$$

Thus we have $\sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda} p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \rightarrow -\infty$ almost surely as $n \rightarrow \infty$. \square

Proof of Theorem 3.5

Proof. Based on the proof when $p = p_0$, we establish a brief proof process for the case $p > p_0$. With the defined distance (3.1) and any $\kappa > 0$, let us define a new parameter space $\Omega(\kappa) = \{\Psi : \Psi \in \Gamma, D(\Psi, \Psi_0) \geq \kappa\}$. Clearly, $\Psi_0 \notin \Omega(\kappa)$ when $\kappa > 0$.

For $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^p \cap \Omega(\kappa)$, it is easy to show the derivations of Theorem 3.1 are still applicable by replacing $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^p$ with $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^p \cap \Omega(\kappa)$. Hence, we can quickly get $\sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^p \cap \Omega(\kappa)} p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \rightarrow -\infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and claim that $\tilde{\Psi} \notin \Gamma_\sigma^p \cap \Omega(\kappa)$ with probability one.

Since $\Psi_0 \notin \Omega(\kappa)$, for $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^\tau \cap \Omega(\kappa)$ where $1 \leq \tau \leq (p-1)$ and $\Psi \in \Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda \cap \Omega(\kappa)$, the corresponding inequalities $E_{\Psi_0} \log\{g_\tau(X; \Psi)/f(X; \Psi_0)\} < 0$ and $E_{\Psi_0} \log\{f(X; \Psi)/f(X; \Psi_0)\} < 0$ still holds respectively. Thus (A.4) and (A.5) can be extended to

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^\tau \cap \Omega(\kappa)} n^{-1}\{l_n^\tau(\Psi) - \ell_n(\Psi_0)\} &\leq -\Delta_\tau(\epsilon_0) < 0, \\ \sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda \cap \Omega(\kappa)} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(\frac{f(X_i; \Psi)}{f(X_i; \Psi_0)} \right) \right\} &\rightarrow -\Delta(\eta_0) < 0. \end{aligned}$$

for the properly selected ϵ_0, η_0 and well-defined $g_\tau(x; \Psi)$. Based on these two results, with $n \rightarrow \infty$, we similarly get $\sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^\tau \cap \Omega(\kappa)} p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \rightarrow -\infty$ for $\tau \in \{1, \dots, (p-1)\}$ and $\sup_{\Gamma_\sigma^c \cap \Gamma_\lambda \cap \Omega(\kappa)} p\ell_n(\Psi) - p\ell_n(\Psi_0) \rightarrow -\infty$.

From the previous results, it is clear that the penalized maximum likelihood estimator $\tilde{\Psi}$ must fall in $\Gamma^* \cup \Omega^c(\kappa)$ with probability one. Given the arbitrariness of κ , $\tilde{\Psi} \in \Omega^c(\kappa)$ implies that $D(\tilde{\Psi}, \Psi_0) \rightarrow 0$. At the same time, $\tilde{\Psi} \in \Gamma^*$ also implies $D(\tilde{\Psi}, \Psi_0) \rightarrow 0$ by Kiefer and Wolfowitz (1956). Thus, the strong consistency of the penalized MLE is proved under the case $p > p_0$. \square