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# Bayesian Mixture Labeling and Clustering

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*Label switching is one of the fundamental issues for Bayesian mixture modeling. It occurs due to the nonidentifiability of the components under symmetric priors. Without solving the label switching, the ergodic averages of component specific quantities will be identical and thus useless for inference relating to individual components, such as the posterior means, predictive component densities, and marginal classification probabilities. The author establishes the equivalence between the labeling and clustering and proposes two simple clustering criteria to solve the label switching. The first method can be considered as an extension of K-means clustering. The second method is to find the labels by minimizing the volume of labeled samples and this method is invariant to the scale transformation of the parameters. Using a simulation example and the application of two real data sets, the author demonstrates the success of these new methods in dealing with the label switching problem.*

**Keywords** Bayesian mixtures; Clustering; K-means; Label switching; Markov chain Monte Carlo.

**Mathematics Subject Classification** 62F15; 62F10.

## 1. Introduction

Suppose  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  are independent observations from an  $m$ -component mixture density

$$p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \pi_1 f(\mathbf{x}; \lambda_1) + \pi_2 f(\mathbf{x}; \lambda_2) + \dots + \pi_m f(\mathbf{x}; \lambda_m),$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_m, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m)$ ,  $f(\cdot)$  is some parametric component density/mass function,  $(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m)$  are the component specific parameters, which can be scalar or vector, and  $(\pi_1, \dots, \pi_m)$  are the mixture proportions with  $\sum_{j=1}^m \pi_j = 1$ . For a general introduction to mixture models, see Lindsay (1995), Böhning (1999), McLachlan and

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Peel (2000), and Frühwirth-Schnatter (2006). The likelihood for  $\mathbf{x}$  is

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \{\pi_1 f(x_i; \lambda_1) + \pi_2 f(x_i; \lambda_2) + \cdots + \pi_m f(x_i; \lambda_m)\}. \quad (1.1)$$

For any permutation  $\boldsymbol{\omega} = (\omega(1), \dots, \omega(m))$  of the identity permutation  $(1, \dots, m)$ , define the corresponding permutation of the parameter vector  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  by

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\omega} = (\pi_{\omega(1)}, \dots, \pi_{\omega(m)}, \lambda_{\omega(1)}, \dots, \lambda_{\omega(m)}). \quad (1.2)$$

Then  $L(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\omega}; \mathbf{x})$  will be numerically the same as  $L(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x})$  for any permutation  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ . Hence for Bayesian mixtures, if the prior is symmetric or permutation invariant for all components, the posterior distribution will be similarly symmetric and thus invariant to all the permutations of the component parameters. The marginal posterior distributions for the parameters will also be identical for each mixture component. It is then meaningless to draw inference, relating to individual components, directly from Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) samples using ergodic averaging before solving the label switching problem.

Many methods have been proposed to deal with the labeling problem in Bayesian analysis. The easiest way to solve the label switching is to impose constraints on the parameters—see Diebolt and Robert (1994), Dellaportas et al. (1996), and Richardson and Green (1997). Another popular labeling method is the relabeling algorithm (Celeux, 1998; Stephens, 2000), which is based on minimizing a Monte Carlo risk. Stephens (2000) suggested a particular choice of loss function based on the Kullback–Liebler (KL) divergence. I refer to this particular relabeling algorithm as *KL algorithm*. Chung et al. (2004) imposed an asymmetric prior by fixing the label of a single observation. Yao and Lindsay (2009) proposed to label the samples based on the posterior modes they are associated with when they are used as the starting points for an ascending algorithm of the posterior. Other labeling methods include, for example, Celeux et al. (2000), Frühwirth-Schnatter (2001), Hurn et al. (2003), Marin et al. (2005), Geweke (2007), and Grun and Leisch (2009). Jasra et al. (2005) provided a recent review of attempts to solve the label switching problem in mixture models.

In this article, I establish the equivalence between the labeling and clustering and propose two simple clustering criteria to solve the label switching. The first loss function is based on the euclidian distance between the sample and the center of the labeled samples. I show that this labeling method is equivalent to applying the K-means clustering to all the permuted MCMC samples. If I only include one component specific parameter in the loss function (e.g., as component means), then this method will be exactly the same as order constraint labeling on this component parameter. However, unlike the order constraint labeling, this method can simultaneously incorporate different component parameters together and can be easily extended to high dimensional case. In addition, this labeling method is computationally very fast, as shown in the examples. The second method is to label the samples by minimizing the volume of the labeled samples. Here the volume is defined to be the determinant of covariance matrix. One nice property of this method is its invariance to the linear transformation of the parameters (e.g., changing both component means by a scale factor and both variances by a different one). In addition, unlike some of the other labeling methods (e.g., the

KL algorithm; Stephens, 2000), both of the proposed methods can be applied to solve label switching for frequentist mixtures. Using a simulation example and the application of two real data sets, I demonstrate the success of these new methods in dealing with the label switching problem.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the two new labeling methods. In Sec. 3, I use one simulation example and two real data sets to compare these new labeling methods with two popular existing methods. I summarize the proposed labeling methods in Sec. 4.

## 2. New Labeling Method

For Bayesian mixtures, after getting a sequence of MCMC samples,  $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_N$ , from the posterior distribution of  $\theta$ , where  $N$  is the number of MCMC samples, the label switching problem is solved by finding the right labels  $(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$  for  $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_N)$  (i.e., relabeling the output of the sampler, such that  $\theta_1^{\omega_1}, \dots, \theta_N^{\omega_N}$  have the same label meaning). If I solve the label switching problem in this way, then I can use the labeled samples to estimate the quantities relating to individual components.

Due to the symmetry of the posterior, for an  $m$ -component mixture model, the posterior distribution has  $m!$  symmetric modal regions (each modal region is corresponding to one well labeled parameter space). Given the MCMC samples  $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_N)$ , the latent true labels  $(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$  are defined such that  $\theta_1^{\omega_1}, \dots, \theta_N^{\omega_N}$  are all in the same modal region and therefore have the same label meaning. The aim of labeling is to recover the latent labels  $(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$ . Because each modal region defines a set of latent labels, there are essentially  $m!$  sets of latent true labels and they are identifiable up to the same permutation. To do labeling, it is necessary only to recover one of the modal regions and the corresponding set of latent true labels.

From the asymptotic theory for the posterior distribution—see Walker (1969) and Frühwirth-Schnatter (2006, Sections 1.3, 3.3)—when the sample size is large, the correctly labeled MCMC samples/modal region should, approximately, follow the normal distribution. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the right labels  $(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$  will make the size of the cluster consisting of the labeled samples  $(\theta_1^{\omega_1}, \dots, \theta_N^{\omega_N})$  smaller than the wrong labels.

To explain the equivalence between labeling and clustering under a special setting, let  $\Delta = \{\theta_t^{(j)}, t = 1, \dots, N\}$ , where  $\{\omega_{(1)}, \dots, \omega_{(m!)}\}$  are the  $m!$  permutations of  $(1, \dots, m)$ . Note that  $\Delta$  includes both of the original samples and all of their permutations. Suppose it is possible to find  $m!$  tight clusters for  $\Delta$ , each containing exactly one permutation of each sample element  $\theta$ . It is then possible to choose any one of these tight clusters to be the newly labeled sample set and assume they are in the same modal region. So, the labeling problem is very similar to the clustering problem if only one permutation of each sample element  $\theta$  is allowed in each cluster.

Different clustering criteria lead to different labeling methods. In this section, I propose two simple clustering criteria to solve the label switching. The first method is to define the size of a cluster by the trace of the covariance matrix. The second method is to use the determinant of covariance matrix to define the size of a cluster.

### 2.1. The K-Means Method

I propose to find the labels  $\mathbf{\Omega} = (\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$  together with their center  $\theta_c$  by minimizing the following loss functions:

$$\ell(\theta_c, \mathbf{\Omega}) = \text{tr} \left( \sum_{t=1}^N (\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)^T \right) = \sum_{t=1}^N (\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)^T (\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c), \quad (2.1)$$

where  $\mathbf{\Omega} = (\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$  and  $\text{tr}(A)$  is the trace of  $A$ . Because the loss function (2.1) is within cluster sum of squares, this labeling method can be also called the K-means method.

When the labels  $(\omega_t, t = 1, \dots, N)$  are fixed, the minimum of (2.1) over  $\theta_c$  occurs at the sample mean of  $\{\theta_1^{\omega_1}, \dots, \theta_N^{\omega_N}\}$ . When  $\theta_c$  is fixed, the optimum over  $\omega_t, t = 1, \dots, N$  can be done independently for all  $t$ . The algorithm to minimize (2.1) is the following.

**Algorithm 2.1.** *Labelling by trace of covariance (TRCOV): Starting with some initial values for  $(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$  (e.g., setting them based on the order constraint), iterate the following steps until a fixed point is reached.*

**Step 1.** Update  $\theta_c$  by the sample mean based on the current values  $\{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N\}$ ,

$$\theta_c = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N \theta_t^{\omega_t}.$$

**Step 2.** Given the current estimated center  $\theta_c$ ,  $\{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N\}$  are updated by

$$\omega_t = \arg \min_{\omega} (\theta_t^{\omega} - \theta_c)^T (\theta_t^{\omega} - \theta_c), \quad t = 1, \dots, N.$$

The loss function  $\ell(\theta_c, \mathbf{\Omega})$  defined in (2.1) decreases after each of the previous two steps. So this algorithm must converge.

**Theorem 2.1.** *The loss function  $\ell(\theta_c, \mathbf{\Omega})$  of (2.1) is decreased in each iteration of Algorithm 2.1 until a fixed point is reached.*

The proof of Theorem 2.1 is very simple and is omitted. Note that the minimum found by Algorithm 2.1 may only be a local minimum. To increase the chance of detecting the global minimum, it is possible to run this algorithm starting from several initial values. In step 2, after each change of  $\omega_t$ , it is also possible to also update  $\theta_c$ , thereby increasing the speed of convergence but increasing complexity.

Notice that for  $\theta$  if the information from one component specific parameter dominates the other component parameters, then this labeling method will be very close to the order constraint labeling on this component specific parameter. Specifically, if only  $m$ -component specific parameters, say the  $m$ -component means for one dimension data, are used in (2.1), then this labeling method will be exactly the same as the labeling by putting an order constraint on the component means. Because of this, the order constraint labeling can be considered as a special case of the TRCOV method. However, unlike the order constraint labeling, the TRCOV method can automatically make use of the most informative component parameters.

In addition, the new method can simultaneously incorporate the information from different component parameters and can be easily extended to the high dimensional case.

## 2.2. The Determinant-Based Loss

A drawback of the TRCOV method is that the objective function (2.1) is not invariant to the scale transformation of the parameters. To solve the scale effect of the parameters, I propose another way to define the size of a cluster by the determinant of covariance matrix. I find the labels on the samples, along with the center, that minimize the determinant of covariance matrix

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta_c, \Omega) = \det \left( \sum_{t=1}^N (\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)^T \right), \quad (2.2)$$

where  $\Omega = (\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$  and  $\det(A)$  is the determinant of matrix  $A$ . The idea of determinant loss has also been used to create a robust estimator of the multivariate location and scatter (see the minimum covariance determinant [MCD] method of Rousseeuw, 1984) and do robust cluster analysis (see, for example, Gallegos and Ritter, 2005).

One nice property about the determinant criterion (2.2) is that it is invariant to all permutation invariant linear transformations of the parameters (e.g., changing all component means by a linear transformation and all variances by a different one). Therefore, the labels found by minimizing (2.2) will not be affected by such linear transformations.

Let  $\bar{\theta}$  be the new parameter vector after a permutation invariant linear transformation of  $\theta$ .

**Theorem 2.2.** *The determinant criteria of (2.2) is invariant, up to a multiplication constant, to all permutation invariant linear transformations of the parameters:*

$$\det \left( \sum_{t=1}^N (\tilde{\theta}_t^{\omega_t} - \tilde{\theta}_c)(\tilde{\theta}_t^{\omega_t} - \tilde{\theta}_c)^T \right) = k \det \left( \sum_{t=1}^N (\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)^T \right),$$

where the multiplication constant  $k$  does not depend on  $\Omega = (\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$ . The proof of Theorem 2.2 and the constant  $k$  are given in the Appendix.

Based on the next theorem, we can know that when  $(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$  are fixed, the minimum of (2.2) over  $\theta_c$  occurs at the sample mean of  $\{\theta_1^{\omega_1}, \dots, \theta_N^{\omega_N}\}$ .

**Theorem 2.3.** *Given  $(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$ , let*

$$\bar{\theta} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N \theta_t^{\omega_t},$$

which is the sample mean of  $\{\theta_1^{\omega_1}, \dots, \theta_N^{\omega_N}\}$ . Then  $\bar{\theta}$  minimizes (2.2) over  $\theta_c$ .

The proof of Theorem 2.3 is given in the Appendix. Unlike the trace of covariance case, the minimum of (2.2) over  $\Omega = (\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$ , given  $\theta_c$ , can not

truly be done independently for all  $t$ . Rather it is necessary to optimize over  $\omega_t$  one  $t$  at a time while holding all others fixed.

Let

$$C_{\langle t \rangle} = \sum_{l \neq t} (\theta_l^{\omega_l} - \theta_c)(\theta_l^{\omega_l} - \theta_c)^T. \quad (2.3)$$

Notice that the objection function  $\mathcal{L}(\theta, \Omega)$  in (2.2) is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\theta, \Omega) &= \det(C_{\langle t \rangle} + (\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)^T) \\ &= \det(C_{\langle t \rangle}) \det\left[I + C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2}(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)^T C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2}\right] \\ &= \det(C_{\langle t \rangle}) \left[1 + (\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)^T C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1}(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)\right]. \end{aligned} \quad (2.4)$$

Thus, to optimize over  $\omega_t$  for a particular  $t$ , other terms fixed, minimize

$$(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)^T C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1}(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c),$$

which is a weighted distance between  $\theta_t$  and  $\theta_c$ . The leave-one-out weight matrix  $C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1}$  makes this labeling method invariant to the affine transformation of the component parameters.

The algorithm to minimize (2.2) is the following.

**Algorithm 2.2.** *Labelling by determinant of covariance (DETCOV): Starting with some initial values for  $(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)$  (e.g., setting them based on the order constraint), iterate the following two steps until a fixed point is reached.*

**Step 1.** *Update  $\theta_c$  by the sample mean based on the current values  $\{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N\}$ ,*

$$\theta_c = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N \theta_t^{\omega_t}.$$

**Step 2.** *For  $t = 1, \dots, N$ , given the current estimated center  $\theta_c$ , and  $\{\omega_l, l \neq t\}$ ,  $\omega_t$  are updated by*

$$\omega_t = \arg \min_{\omega} (\theta_t^{\omega} - \theta_c)^T C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1}(\theta_t^{\omega} - \theta_c). \quad (2.5)$$

The pervious algorithm will monotonically decrease the objective function (2.2) after each step. So, the Algorithm 2.2 must converge.

**Corollary 2.1.** *The loss function  $\mathcal{L}(\theta_c, \Omega)$  of (2.2) will decrease after each iteration of Algorithm 2.2 until a fixed point is reached.*

The proof of Corollary 2.1 follows directly from Theorem 2.3 and the result (2.4).

Note that in step 2, it is necessary to calculate  $C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1}$  for every  $t$ , which may be computationally expensive when the dimension of  $\theta$  is quite large. Based on the following result, we can greatly reduce the computation burden of  $C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1}$ . Its proof is given in the Appendix.

**Theorem 2.4.** *Let*

$$C = \sum_{t=1}^N (\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)^T, \quad u_t = C^{-1/2}(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c), \quad v_t = C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2}(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2}.$$

*Then*

$$C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1} = C^{-1/2} \left( I + \frac{1}{1 - u_t^T u_t} u_t u_t^T \right) C^{-1/2}, \quad (2.6)$$

*and*

$$C^{-1} = C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2} \left( I - \frac{1}{1 + v_t^T v_t} v_t v_t^T \right) C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2}. \quad (2.7)$$

Based on (2.6) of Theorem 2.4, to calculate  $C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1}$ , it is only necessary to find  $C^{-1/2}$ . Because  $C^{-1/2}$  only needs to be updated after some label  $\omega_t$  changes, the computation of (2.6) is much less than updating  $C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1}$  for each  $t$ .

In addition, based on (2.7), also it can be seen that it is only necessary to find the inverse of  $C$  once during the whole algorithm. Suppose that  $t$  has been optimized, and the permutation involved has been changed. Before moving to  $t+1$ , the  $C^{-1}$  can be updated using (2.7) based on  $C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2}$  and  $v_t = C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2}(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2}$ , where  $\omega_t$  is the updated new label for  $\theta_t$ .

If  $C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1}$  in (2.5) is replaced by  $C^{-1}$ , which does not depend on  $t$ , then the Algorithm 2.2 is the same as the normal likelihood labeling proposed by Yao and Lindsay (2009). However, their method is based on the asymptotic normality assumption of the labeled samples. The present proposed DETCOV method does not require such assumption and is derived from different motivation.

### 3. Examples

In this section, I use one simulation example and two real data sets to compare the proposed labeling methods TRCOV and DETCOV with order constraint (OC) labeling and Stephens' KL algorithm (KL). By default, the OC method refers to ordering on the mean parameters. For the TRCOV, DETCOV, and KL methods, I use the OC labels as the initials. All the computations are done in Matlab 7.0 using a personal desktop computer with an Intel Core 2 Quad CPU 2.40 GHz.

**Example 1.** I generate 400 data points from  $0.3N(0, 1) + 0.7N(0.5, 2^2)$ . Based on this data set, I generate 20,000 MCMC samples (after initial burn-in) of component means, component proportions, and the unequal component variance. The MCMC samples are generated by Gibbs sampler, with the priors given by Richardson and Green (1997). That is, to assume

$$\pi \sim D(\delta, \delta), \quad \mu_j \sim N(\xi, \kappa^{-1}), \quad \sigma_j^{-2} \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \beta), \quad \beta \sim \Gamma(g, h) \quad j = 1, 2,$$

where  $D(\cdot)$  is Dirichlet distribution and  $\Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$  is gamma distribution with mean  $\alpha/\beta$  and variance  $\alpha/\beta^2$ . Following the suggestion of Richardson and Green (1997), let  $\delta = 1$ ,  $\xi$  equal the sample mean of the observations,  $\kappa = 1/R^2$ ,  $\alpha = 2$ ,  $g = 0.2$ , and  $h = 10/R^2$ , where  $R$  is the range of the observations. Richardson and Green

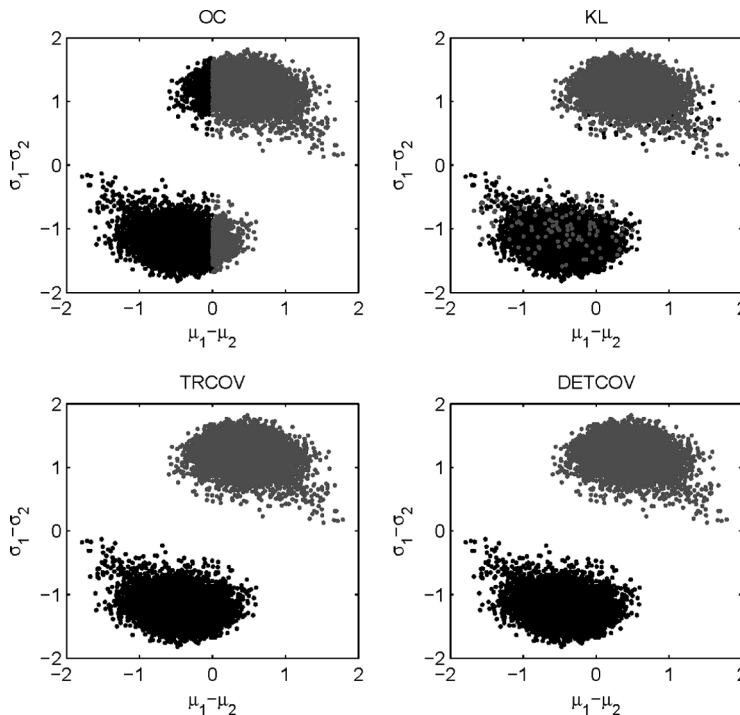


(1997) introduced an additional hierarchical model by allowing  $\beta$  to follow a gamma distribution to reduce the influence of  $\beta$  on the posterior distribution of the number of components. Similar priors are used for the other two examples.

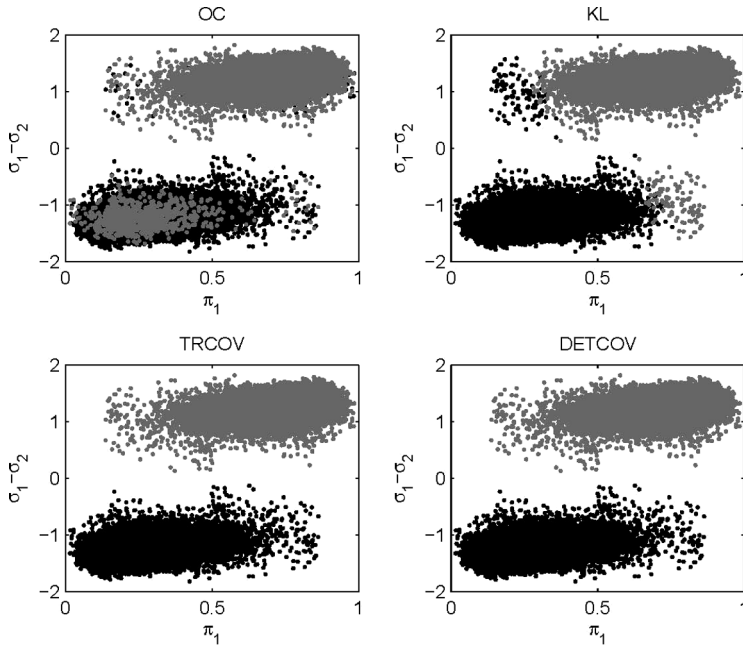
The runtime for KL, TRCOV, and DETCOV were 63, 1, and 2s, respectively. Note that TRCOV and DETCOV were much faster than KL. In this example, TRCOV and DETCOV had the same labeling results.

Because there are only two components, it is easy to make use of some parameter plots to see where the labeling differences occurred. Figure 1 is the plot of  $\sigma_1 - \sigma_2$  versus  $\mu_1 - \mu_2$  and Fig. 2 is the plot of  $\sigma_1 - \sigma_2$  vs.  $\pi_1$ . For better visual results, we also add the permuted samples to the plots. From these plots, it can be seen that there are indeed relatively two tight clusters. However, OC and KL did not accurately recover these two regions. Based on Fig. 2, it appears that KL used the component proportions more heavily than the other methods. The TRCOV/DETCOV methods clustered the two groups more naturally.

For better comparison, in Table 1, I also report the average and root mean squared error (RMSE) of the parameter estimates for each relabeling algorithm. For completeness, I include the order constraint labeling results based on three different component parameters— $\mu$ ,  $\sigma$ , and  $\pi$ —and denote them by OC- $\mu$ , OC- $\sigma$ , and OC- $\pi$ , respectively. Note that the OC- $\mu$  is the same as OC. Among three order constraint labeling methods, OC- $\sigma$  performed well (based on bias and RMSE), but OC- $\mu$  and OC- $\pi$  did poorly. OC- $\mu$  had small bias for  $\mu_1$  but large bias for all other parameters. OC- $\pi$  had small bias for  $\pi_1$  but large bias for all other parameters. The OC- $\sigma$  did



**Figure 1.** Plots of  $\sigma_1 - \sigma_2$  vs.  $\mu_1 - \mu_2$  for the four labeling methods in Example 1. The black points represent one set of labels and the gray points are the permuted samples.



**Figure 2.** Plots of  $\sigma_1 - \sigma_2$  vs.  $\pi_1$  for the four labeling methods in Example 1.

work well in this simulation study. This example demonstrates the power and danger of order constraint labeling. Similar discoveries had been found in Chung et al. (2004). In this example, KL didn't perform as well as OC- $\sigma$ . It had large bias for the  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  and large RMSE for  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$ . From Table 1, it can be seen that the proposed methods TRCOV and DETCOV worked well and produced closer results to OC- $\sigma$  than any other methods.

In Table 2, I report the performance of interval estimates, based on the percentage of intervals that covered their corresponding true parameters and the average interval width. From the table, it can be seen that all labeling methods had good coverage and exhibited higher-than-nominal rates of coverage in general. Based on Table 2, it can be seen that no single labeling method provided shorter intervals for all parameters. However, in general, OC- $\sigma$ , TRCOV, and DETCOV provided shorter interval width than OC- $\mu$ , OC- $\pi$ , and KL for most of parameters.

**Table 1**  
Average (RMSE) of point estimates over 500 repetitions

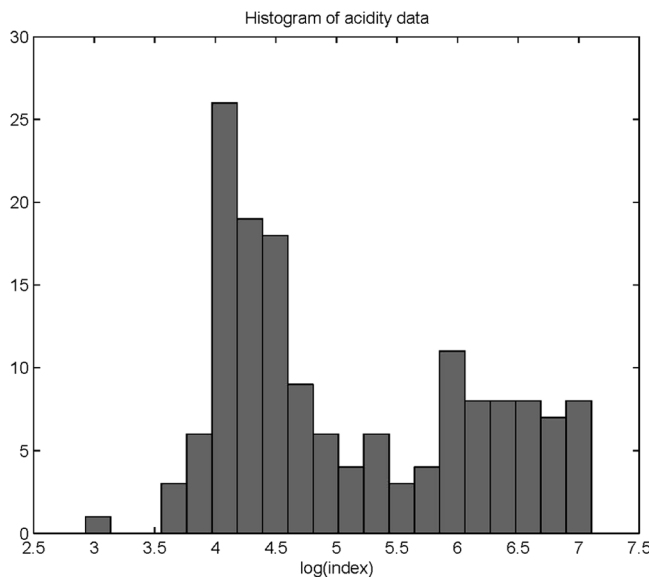
TRUE	OC- $\mu$	OC- $\sigma$	OC- $\pi$	KL	TRCOV	DETCOV
$\mu_1 : 0$	-0.010(0.152)	0.057(0.200)	0.204(0.282)	0.119(0.247)	0.038(0.199)	0.059(0.204)
$\mu_2 : 0.5$	0.605(0.198)	0.538(0.202)	0.391(0.158)	0.476(0.195)	0.557(0.211)	0.536(0.201)
$\sigma_1 : 1$	1.232(0.327)	1.089(0.177)	1.281(0.396)	1.180(0.322)	1.095(0.184)	1.110(0.204)
$\sigma_2 : 2$	1.858(0.246)	2.001(0.139)	1.810(0.224)	1.910(0.181)	1.996(0.143)	1.981(0.156)
$\pi_1 : 0.3$	0.413(0.140)	0.360(0.108)	0.281(0.057)	0.305(0.089)	0.362(0.109)	0.342(0.113)

**Table 2**  
Percent Coverage (average width) of nominal 95% interval estimates over 500 repetitions

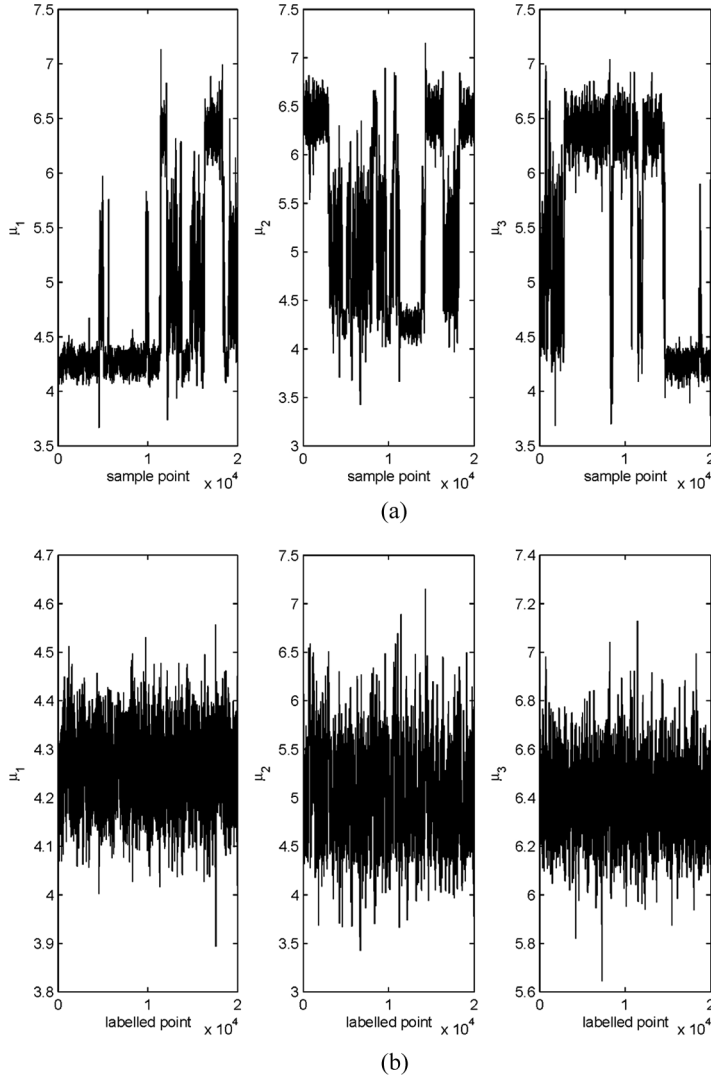
TRUE	OC- $\mu$	OC- $\sigma$	OC- $\pi$	KL	TRCOV	DETCOV
$\mu_1 : 0$	0.982(0.891)	0.976(1.172)	0.988(1.798)	0.984(1.517)	0.972(1.057)	0.974(1.208)
$\mu_2 : 0.5$	0.978(1.025)	0.982(1.100)	0.986(0.926)	0.976(0.911)	0.970(1.089)	0.974(1.002)
$\sigma_1 : 1$	0.988(1.405)	0.992(1.016)	0.992(1.803)	0.990(1.491)	0.992(1.043)	0.992(1.163)
$\sigma_2 : 2$	0.984(1.313)	0.990(0.703)	0.938(0.911)	0.942(0.738)	0.990(0.730)	0.958(0.696)
$\pi_1 : 0.3$	0.998(0.768)	0.992(0.699)	1.000(0.408)	0.992(0.494)	0.992(0.700)	0.992(0.615)

**Example 2** (Acidity Data). I consider the acidity data set (Crawford, 1994; Crawford et al., 1992). The data are shown in Fig. 3. The observations are the logarithms of an acidity index measured in a sample of 155 lakes in north-central Wisconsin. This data set has been analyzed as a mixture of Gaussian distributions by Crawford et al. (1992), Crawford (1994), and Richardson and Green (1997). Based on the result of Richardson and Green (1997), the posterior for three components was largest. Hence, I fit this data set by a three-component normal mixture. I postprocessed the 20,000 Gibbs samples by the OC, KL, TRCOV, and DETCOV labeling methods. The runtime for KL, TRCOV, and DETCOV were 45, 2, and 6s, respectively.

It is difficult to use the similar graphic way in Example 1 to compare different labeling methods when the number of components is larger than two Yao and Lindsay (2009). Here, I mainly provided the trace plots and the marginal density plots to illustrate the success of DETCOV. Figures 4 and 5 are the trace plots and the estimated marginal posterior density plots, respectively, for the original samples



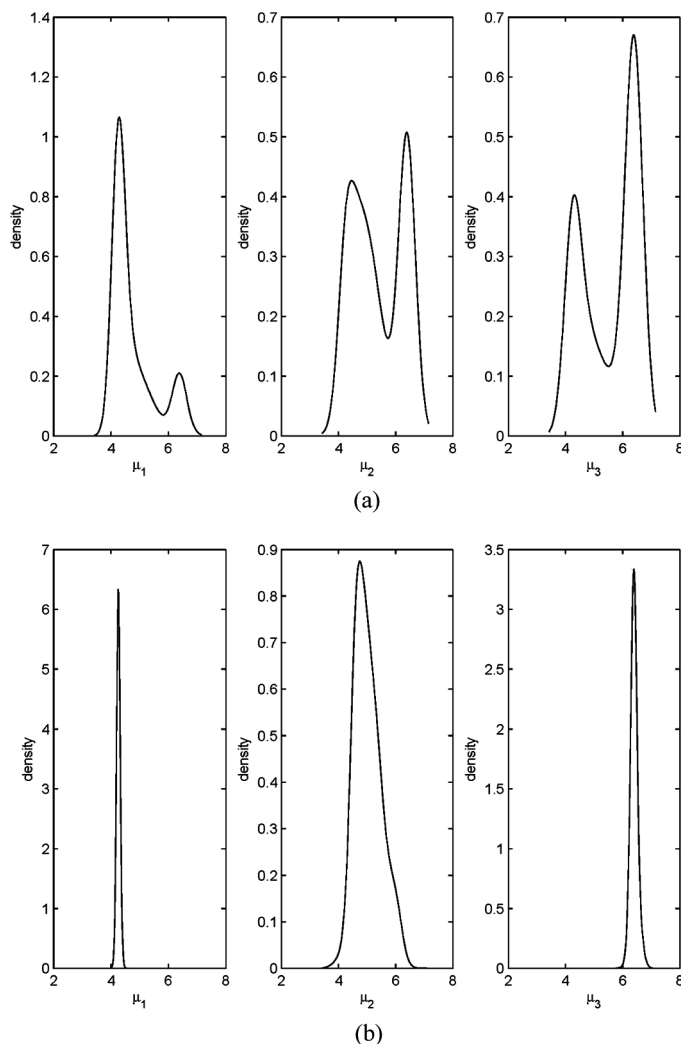
**Figure 3.** Histogram of acidity data. The number of bins used is 20.



**Figure 4.** Trace plots of the Gibbs samples of component means for acidity data: (a) original Gibbs samples and (b) labeled samples by DETCOV.

and the labeled samples by DETCOV. The OC, KL, and TRCOV methods had similar visual results to DETCOV for those plots. From these figures, it can be seen that the DETCOV method successfully removed the label switching in the raw output of the Gibbs sampler.

**Example 3 (Galaxy Data).** The galaxy data (Roeder, 1990) consists of the velocities (in thousands of kilometers per second) of 82 distant galaxies diverging from the galaxy. They are sampled from six well-separated conic sections of the corona borealis. A histogram of the 82 data points is shown in Fig. 6. This data set has been analyzed by many researchers including, for example, Crawford (1994),

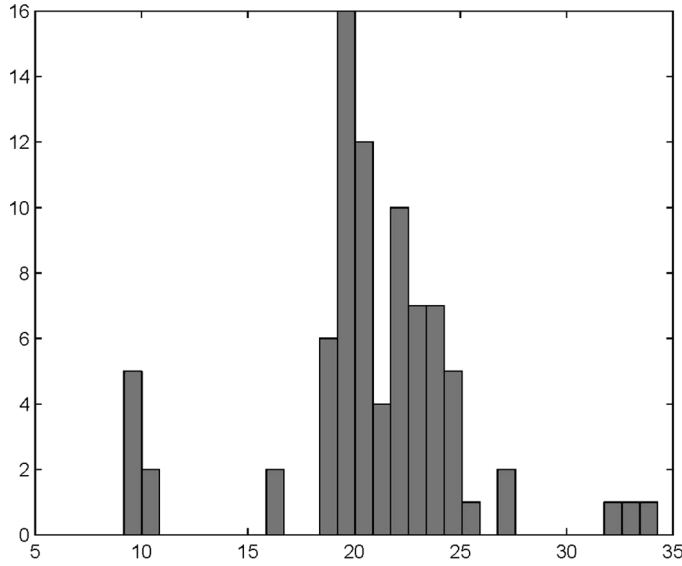


**Figure 5.** Plots of estimated marginal posterior densities of component means for acidity data based on: (a) original Gibbs samples and (b) labeled samples by DETCOV.

Chib (1995), Carlin and Chib (1995), Escobar and West (1995), Phillips and Smith (1996), and Richardson and Green (1997). Stephens (2000) also used this data set to explain the label switching problem. I fit this data by six-component normal mixture. I postprocessed the 20,000 Gibbs samples by the OC, KL, TRCOV, and DETCOV labeling methods.

The runtime for KL, TRCOV, and DETCOV were 2487, 47, and 1161s, respectively. Hence, the TRCOV method is much faster than KL and DETCOV.

Figures 7 and 8 are the trace plots and the estimated marginal posterior density plots, respectively, for the original samples and the labeled samples by DETCOV. For the marginal density plot, for comparison, I also add the OC labels. In this example, for trace plots, there is no big visual difference for the four labeling



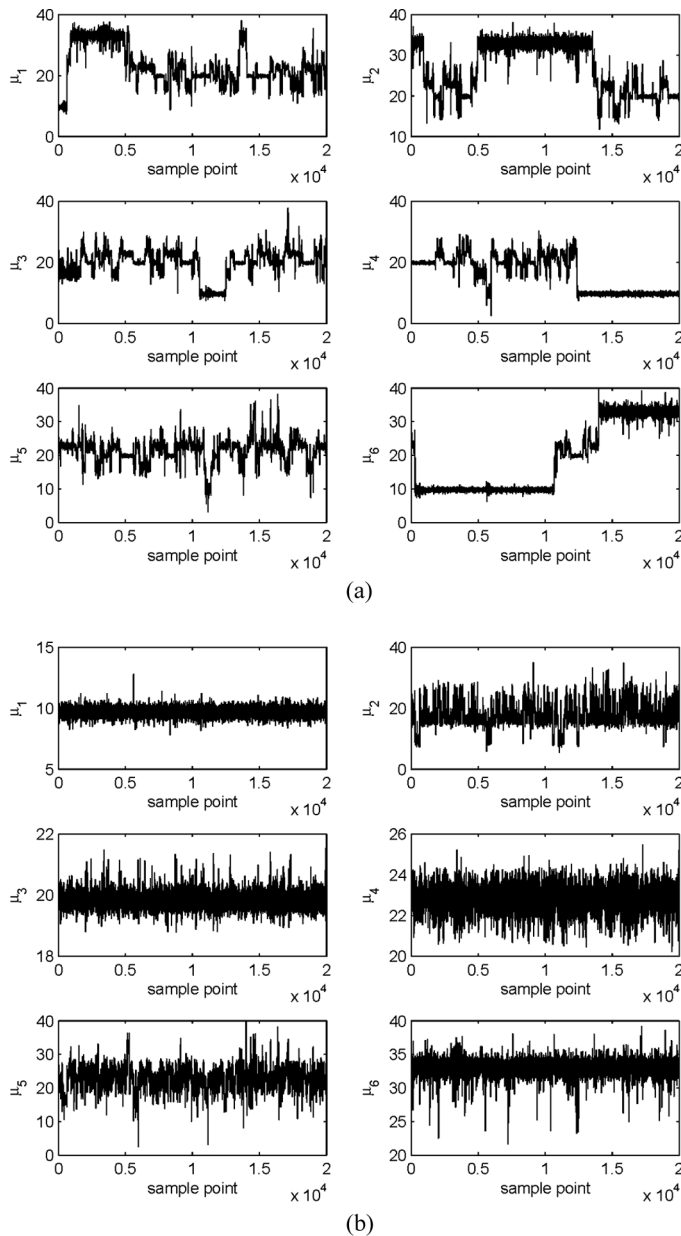
**Figure 6.** Histogram plot of galaxy data. The number of bins used is 30.

methods. For marginal density plots, the TRCOV methods had similar visual results to OC and the KL methods had similar visual results to DETCOV. From Figs. 7 and 8, it can be seen that the DETCOV method successfully removed the label switching in the raw output of the Gibbs sampler. Based on Fig. 8, it can be seen that the DETCOV method removed the multimodality of the marginal posterior densities of the means in the raw output; however, the OC method did not remove the label switching very well. Therefore, in this example, the DETCOV and KL methods worked a little better than the OC and TRCOV methods.

Based on the previous simulation study and the real data set application, it can be seen that DETCOV usually works better than the OC, KL, and TRCOV methods. In addition, TRCOV works better than the OC and is comparable to KL but TRCOV runs much faster than KL and DETCOV.

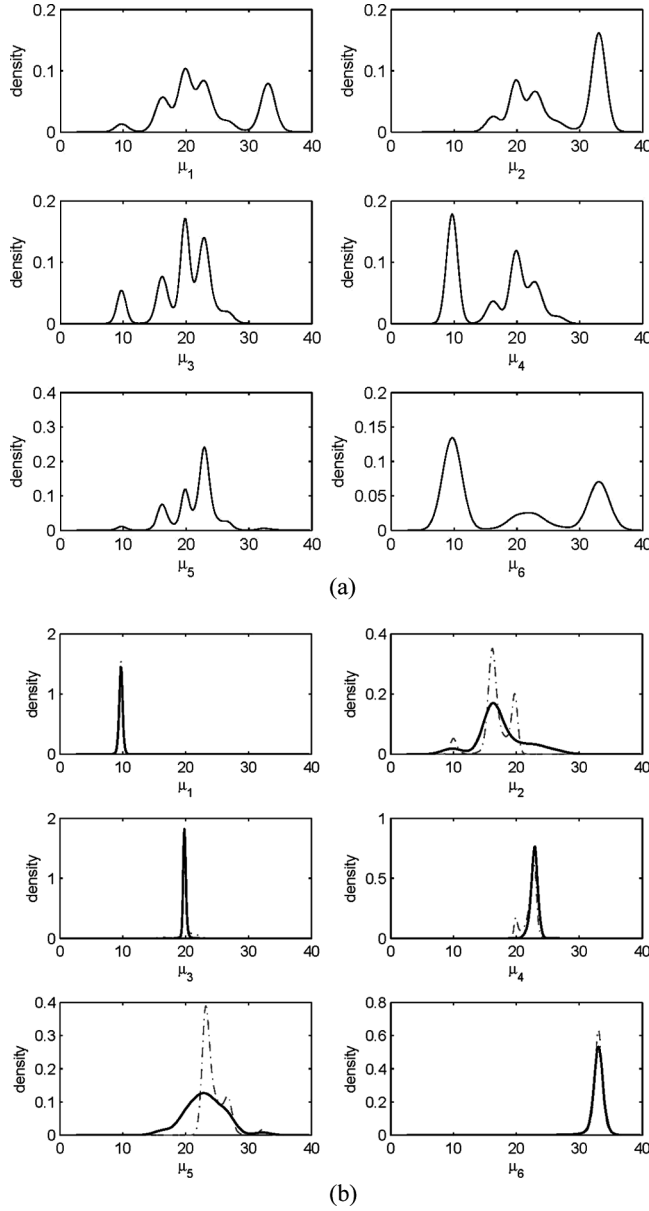
#### 4. Summary

In this article, I proposed two new clustering-related labeling methods. The first method, TRCOV, uses the idea of K-means clustering to label the samples. This method can be considered an extension of the OC method. However, unlike the OC method, this method can simultaneously incorporate different component parameters together and can be easily extended to the high dimension case. In addition, as shown in Sec. 3, this labeling method is computationally much faster than the KL and DETCOV methods. The second method, DETCOV, is to label the samples by minimizing the volume of the labeled samples. This method is invariant to the linear transformation of the parameters. Based on the examples in Section 3, it can be seen that the DETCOV method successfully removed the label switching in the raw output. The simulations also have shown that the TRCOV and DETCOV methods can produce good point and interval estimates.



**Figure 7.** Trace plots of the Gibbs samples of component means for galaxy data: (a) original Gibbs samples and (b) labeled samples by DETCOV.

In addition, the proposed methods TRCOV and DETCOV may also be able to solve label switching for frequentist mixtures because the methods only depend on the parameter samples. For frequentist mixtures, to use the bootstrap method to estimate the variation of the parameter estimates, it is necessary to bootstrap the new data set and find the corresponding parametric estimates for, say,  $N$  times. Let  $\{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_N\}$  be the  $N$  bootstrap samples, which have meaningless labels. Similar to



**Figure 8.** Plots of estimated marginal posterior densities of component means for galaxy data based on: (a) original Gibbs samples and (b) labeled samples by DETCOV (line) and labeled samples by OC (dash-dot).

the Bayesian mixtures, it is necessary to solve the label switching problem for the  $N$  bootstrap samples before using them to estimate the variation. For the bootstrap method, the data sets  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  are different for different  $\theta_j$ s and thus the classification probabilities are not well defined, as they require the to use the same data set for all the parameter samples. Therefore, any labeling methods related to



the classification probabilities, such as the KL algorithm, cannot be applied. As far as it is known, solving label switching for frequentist mixtures has not been well studied. This requires further research.

However, similar to other relabeling algorithms, the proposed methods TRCOV and DETCOV are not online algorithms. Users need to store all the samples before doing labeling. In addition, if the number of components  $m$  is too large or the dimension of the data is large, the DETCOV method may have numerical problems due to the calculation of  $C_{\langle i \rangle}^{-1}$  defined in (2.3). If this problem occurs, it is possible to use a ridge type estimator for  $C_{\langle i \rangle}^{-1}$ , say  $(C_{\langle i \rangle} + \lambda I)^{-1}$  for some constant  $\lambda$ .

Based on the equivalence between the labeling and clustering if only one permutation of each sample is allowed in each of the  $m!$  clusters, it is also possible to apply other clustering methods or criteria to do labeling.

## Appendix: Proofs

*Proof of Theorem 2.2.* For simplicity, suppose that there are only two unknown component parameters, such as component mean  $\mu$  and component variance  $\sigma^2$ , for each component. Let  $\theta_t = (\xi_{t1}^T, \xi_{t2}^T)^T$ , where  $\xi_{t1}$  is the  $m$ -component means and  $\xi_{t2}$  is  $m$ -component variance. Suppose

$$M = \sum_{t=1}^N (\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)^T = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  are all  $m \times m$  matrix. Let  $\tilde{\xi}_{t1} = a_1 + b_1 \xi_{t1}$ ,  $\tilde{\xi}_{t2} = a_2 + b_2 \xi_{t1}$  for all  $t$  and  $\tilde{\theta}_c$  be the corresponding transformation of  $\theta_c$  (see Theorem 2.3). Then

$$\tilde{M} = \sum_{t=1}^N (\tilde{\theta}_t^{\omega_t} - \tilde{\theta}_c)(\tilde{\theta}_t^{\omega_t} - \tilde{\theta}_c)^T = \begin{pmatrix} b_1^2 A & b_1 b_2 B \\ b_1 b_2 B & b_2^2 C \end{pmatrix}.$$

Based on some matrix algebra, the following occurs:

$$\det(M) = \det \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{pmatrix} = \det(A) \det(C - BA^{-1}B).$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\tilde{M}) &= \det \begin{pmatrix} b_1^2 A & b_1 b_2 B \\ b_1 b_2 B & b_2^2 C \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \det(b_1^2 A) \det(b_2^2 C - b_2^2 BA^{-1}B) \\ &= b_1^{2m} b_2^{2m} \det(A) \det(C - BA^{-1}B) \\ &= b_1^{2m} b_2^{2m} \det(M). \end{aligned}$$

For the linear transformation, the determinant of covariance criteria will not change, up to a multiplication constant, and thus the found labels will not change.  $\square$

*Proof of Theorem 2.3.* Let

$$\bar{\theta} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \theta_i^{\omega_i}.$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \det \left( \sum_{i=1}^N (\theta_i^{\omega_i} - \theta_c)(\theta_i^{\omega_i} - \theta_c)^T \right) &= \det \left( \sum_{i=1}^N (\theta_i^{\omega_i} - \bar{\theta})(\theta_i^{\omega_i} - \bar{\theta})^T + N(\bar{\theta} - \theta_c)(\bar{\theta} - \theta_c)^T \right) \\ &\geq \det \left( \sum_{i=1}^N (\theta_i^{\omega_i} - \bar{\theta})(\theta_i^{\omega_i} - \bar{\theta})^T \right), \end{aligned}$$

because  $(\bar{\theta} - \theta_c)(\bar{\theta} - \theta_c)^T \geq 0$ . So the minimum of (2.2) over  $\theta_c$  occurs at the sample mean of  $\{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_N\}$ .  $\square$

*Proof of Theorem 2.4.* Note that

$$C_{\langle t \rangle} = C - (\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)^T = C^{1/2}(I - u_t u_t^T)C^{1/2},$$

where  $u_t = C^{-1/2}(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)$ . By some calculation, it is possible to verify

$$(I - u_t u_t^T)^{-1} = \left( I + \frac{1}{1 - u_t^T u_t} u_t u_t^T \right).$$

So

$$C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1} = C^{-1/2} \left( I + \frac{1}{1 - u_t^T u_t} u_t u_t^T \right) C^{-1/2}.$$

Let

$$v_t = C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2}(\theta_t^{\omega_t} - \theta_c)C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2}.$$

Then

$$C = C_{\langle t \rangle} + (\theta_t - \theta_c)(\theta_t - \theta_c)^T = C_{\langle t \rangle}^{1/2}(I + v_t v_t^T)C_{\langle t \rangle}^{1/2}.$$

Note that

$$(I + v_t v_t^T)^{-1} = \left( I - \frac{1}{1 + v_t^T v_t} v_t v_t^T \right)$$

So

$$C^{-1} = C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2} \left( I - \frac{1}{1 + v_t^T v_t} v_t v_t^T \right) C_{\langle t \rangle}^{-1/2}.$$

$\square$

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