# A. DISTANCE THEOREM FOR EXPONENTIAL FAMILIES 

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#### Abstract

Two members of an exponential family can be represented as two points in the natural parameter space of that family or as two points in the expectation parameter space. The theorem describes a simple relation between the interpoint distances in the two spaces, also relating to the symmetrical KullbackLeibler distance between the two distributions.


1. The Theorem. A $k$-dimensional exponential family $\mathscr{G}$ has density functions of the form

$$
g_{\alpha}(x) \equiv e^{\alpha^{\prime} x-\psi(\alpha)}, \quad \alpha \in A,
$$

with respect to some carrier measure $v(x)$ on the sample space $\mathscr{X}$, which is contained in $\mathscr{R}^{k}$. Here $\alpha$ is the natural parameter and $A$ is the natural parameter space, the convex set in $\mathscr{R}^{k}$ consisting of all $\alpha$ having the normalizing function

$$
e^{\psi(\alpha)} \equiv \int e^{\alpha^{\prime} x} d v(x)
$$

less than infinity. In order that $\mathscr{G}$ not reduce to a lower-dimensional exponential family, we assume that $v(x)$ does not concentrate all its mass on any ( $k-1$ )-dimensional hyperplane.

The expectation vector and the covariance matrix of $x$,

$$
\beta \equiv \mathrm{E}_{\alpha} x \quad \text { and } \quad \Sigma_{\alpha} \equiv \operatorname{Cov}_{\alpha} x
$$

exist finitely in the interior of $A$ and can be obtained by differentiation of $\psi$. Let $\nabla_{\alpha}$ be the gradient operator

$$
\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha(1)}, \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha(2)}, \ldots, \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha(k)}\right)^{\prime}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla_{\alpha} \psi=\beta \quad \text { and } \quad \nabla_{\alpha} \psi \nabla_{\alpha}^{\prime}=\Sigma_{\alpha} \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

This last result can be written as $\beta \nabla_{\alpha}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\alpha}$ or, more evocatively, as

$$
\begin{equation*}
d \beta=\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\alpha} d \alpha \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The mapping $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, from the natural parameter $\alpha$ to the expectation parameter $\beta$, is one-to-one inside $A$, mapping $A$ into the expectation parameter space $B$ (not necessarily convex; see [2]). The matrix $\Sigma_{\alpha}$, which is positive definite, will also be denoted by $\Sigma_{\beta}$ when convenient, this being understood to mean $\Sigma_{\beta(\alpha)}$. See [2] and [3], Chapter 2, for general properties of exponential families.

Fig. 1 shows two points $\alpha_{0}$ and $\alpha_{1}$ inside $A$ and the corresponding points $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ in $B$. The straight-line segment $L_{A}$ connecting $\alpha_{0}$ to $\alpha_{1}$ maps into a curve $\beta\left(L_{A}\right)$ in $B$, while the straight-line segment $L_{B}$ connecting $\beta_{0}$ to $\beta_{1}$ maps into a curve $\alpha\left(L_{B}\right)$ in $A$. It is assumed that $L_{B}$ is inside $B$, though a weakened version of the theorem which follows can be proved without this assumption. In all the usual cases, $B$ is convex, so this assumption is automatically fulfilled.


Fig. 1
$A$ - the natural parameter space, $B$ - the expectation parameter space

If $\alpha_{1}$ is infinitesimally close to $\alpha_{0}$, then (1.2) gives

$$
\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{0}\right)^{\prime} \Sigma_{0}\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{0}\right) \approx\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)^{\prime} \Sigma_{0}^{-1}\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right), \quad \Sigma_{0} \equiv \Sigma_{\alpha_{0}} \equiv \Sigma_{\beta_{0}}
$$

What if $\alpha_{1}$ is not close to $\alpha_{0}$ ? Define the averages

$$
\bar{\Sigma}_{0,1} \equiv \int_{0}^{1} \Sigma_{\alpha_{0}+\theta\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{0}\right)} d \theta \quad \text { and } \quad \overline{\Sigma_{0,1}^{-1}} \equiv \int_{0}^{1} \Sigma_{\beta_{0}+\theta\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)}^{-1} d \theta
$$

of $\Sigma_{\alpha}$ along $L_{A}$ and of $\Sigma_{\beta}^{-1}$ along $L_{B}$, respectively. Define also the

Kullback-Leibler distance

$$
\begin{equation*}
I(i, j) \equiv \mathrm{E}_{x_{i}} \log \frac{g_{\alpha_{i}}(x)}{g_{\alpha_{j}}(x)}=\left(\alpha_{i}-\alpha_{j}\right)^{\prime} \beta_{i}-\left[\psi\left(\alpha_{i}\right)-\psi\left(\alpha_{j}\right)\right] \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem. The following four quantities are equal:
(1) $\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{0}\right)^{\prime} \bar{\Sigma}_{0,1}\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{0}\right)$,
(2) $\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)^{\prime} \overline{\Sigma_{0,1}^{-1}}\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)$,
(3) $\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{0}\right)^{\prime}\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)$,
(4) $I(0,1)+I(1,0)$.

Remark 1. If $\alpha_{1} \neq \alpha_{0}$, then all four quantities are positive. In particular, $\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{0}\right)^{\prime}\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)>0$, implying that the mapping $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is monotone in a certain obvious sense.

Remark 2. The theorem is true in the wider framework of smooth convex dual mappings $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, as remarked in Section 7 of [2], following the lead of Barndorff-Nielsen [1].
2. Proof of the Theorem. Let $\nabla_{\beta}$ be the gradient operator

$$
\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta(1)}, \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta(2)}, \ldots, \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta(k)}\right)^{\prime} .
$$

Then, because of (1.2), $\nabla_{\beta} \alpha^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$, and for any function $h$ we obtain $\nabla_{\beta} h=\Sigma_{\beta}^{-1} \nabla_{\alpha} h, h$ being thought of as defined in both $A$ and $B$. In particular,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla_{\beta} \psi=\Sigma^{-1} \beta \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

From definition (1.3) we derive

$$
\nabla_{\beta} I\left(\beta_{0}, \beta\right)=\Sigma_{\beta}^{-1}\left(\beta-\beta_{0}\right) .
$$

Integrating along the straight-line segment

$$
L_{B}=\left\{\beta_{0}+\theta\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right): 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant-1\right\},
$$

with $d \beta=\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right) d \theta$, gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
I\left(\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}\right)=\int_{0}^{1}\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\beta_{0}+\theta\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)}^{-1} \theta\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right) d \theta \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Integrating (2.1) along $L_{B}$ gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi\left(\beta_{1}\right)-\psi\left(\beta_{0}\right)=\int_{0}^{1}\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\beta_{0}+\theta\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)}^{-1}\left[\beta_{0}+\theta\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)\right] d \theta \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Subtracting (2.2) from (2.3) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\psi\left(\beta_{1}\right)-\psi\left(\beta_{0}\right)\right]-I\left(\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}\right)=\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)^{\prime} \overline{\Sigma_{0,1}^{-1}} \beta_{0} . \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

An interchange of $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ in (2.4) gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[-\psi\left(\beta_{1}\right)+\psi\left(\beta_{0}\right)\right]-I\left(\beta_{1}, \beta_{0}\right)=\left(\beta_{0}-\beta_{1}\right)^{\prime} \overline{\Sigma_{0,1}^{-1}} \beta_{1} \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

which added to (2.4) results in

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)^{\prime} \overline{\Sigma_{0,1}^{-1}}\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)=I(0,1)+I(1,0) \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now put

$$
\varphi(\alpha) \equiv \alpha^{\prime} \beta-\psi(\alpha) .
$$

The differentiation results (1.1) and (1.2) show that

$$
\nabla_{\alpha} \dot{\varphi}=\Sigma_{\alpha} \alpha .
$$

They also imply, by (1.3), that

$$
\nabla_{\alpha} I\left(\alpha, \alpha_{0}\right)=\Sigma_{\alpha}\left(\alpha-\alpha_{0}\right) .
$$

The same argument as in (2.2)-(2.6), now integrating along $L_{A}=\left\{\alpha_{0}+\right.$ $\left.+\theta\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{0}\right)\right\}$, results in

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{0}\right)^{\prime} \bar{\Sigma}_{0,1}\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{0}\right)=I(0,1)+I(1,0) \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally, comparing (1.3) with (2.4) gives

$$
\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{0}\right)^{\prime} \beta_{0}=\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)^{\prime} \overline{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{0,1}^{-1}} \beta_{0} .
$$

Interchanging the arguments 1 and 0 and subtracting from (2.3), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{0}\right)^{\prime}\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)=\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right)^{\prime} \overline{\Sigma_{0,1}^{-1}}\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{0}\right) . \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Theorem follows from (2.6), (2.7), and (2.8).

## REFERENCES

[1] O. Barndorff-Nielsen, Exponential families, exact theory, Aarhus University, Various Publications Series 19 (1970).
[2] B. Efron, The geometry of exponential families, Ann. Statist. 6 (1978), p. 362-376.
[3] E. L. Lehmann, Testing statistical hypotheses, John Wiley, New York 1959.

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