

# Lecture 25: Conjugate Priors

Reading: Section 8.3

GU4241/GR5241 Statistical Machine Learning

Linxi Liu

April 20, 2017

## Bayesian models

The defining assumption of **Bayesian statistics** is that the distribution  $P$  which models the data is a **random quantity** and itself has a distribution  $Q$ . The generative model for data  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  is

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P & \sim & Q \\ X_1, X_2, \dots & \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} & P \end{array}$$

## Bayesian models

The defining assumption of **Bayesian statistics** is that the distribution  $P$  which models the data is a **random quantity** and itself has a distribution  $Q$ . The generative model for data  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  is

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P & \sim & Q \\ X_1, X_2, \dots & \underset{\sim}{\text{i.i.d.}} & P \end{array}$$

The rationale behind the approach is:

- ▶ In any statistical approach (Bayesian or frequentist), the distribution  $P$  is unknown.

## Bayesian models

The defining assumption of **Bayesian statistics** is that the distribution  $P$  which models the data is a **random quantity** and itself has a distribution  $Q$ . The generative model for data  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  is

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P & \sim & Q \\ X_1, X_2, \dots & \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} & P \end{array}$$

The rationale behind the approach is:

- ▶ In any statistical approach (Bayesian or frequentist), the distribution  $P$  is unknown.
- ▶ Bayesian statistics argues that any form of uncertainty should be expressed by probability distributions.

## Bayesian models

The defining assumption of **Bayesian statistics** is that the distribution  $P$  which models the data is a **random quantity** and itself has a distribution  $Q$ . The generative model for data  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  is

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P & \sim & Q \\ X_1, X_2, \dots & \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} & P \end{array}$$

The rationale behind the approach is:

- ▶ In any statistical approach (Bayesian or frequentist), the distribution  $P$  is unknown.
- ▶ Bayesian statistics argues that any form of uncertainty should be expressed by probability distributions.
- ▶ We can think of the randomness in  $Q$  as a model of the statistician's lack of knowledge regarding  $P$ .

## Prior and posterior

The distribution  $Q$  of  $P$  is called the **a priori distribution** (or the **prior** for short). We use  $q$  to denote its density if it exists.

## Prior and posterior

The distribution  $Q$  of  $P$  is called the **a priori distribution** (or the **prior** for short). We use  $q$  to denote its density if it exists.

Our objective is to determine the conditional probability of  $P$  given observed data

$$\Pr(P|x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

## Prior and posterior

The distribution  $Q$  of  $P$  is called the **a priori distribution** (or the **prior** for short). We use  $q$  to denote its density if it exists.

Our objective is to determine the conditional probability of  $P$  given observed data

$$\Pr(P|x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

The distribution is called the **a posteriori distribution** or **posterior**.



## Parametric Case

We can impose the modeling assumption that  $P$  is an element of a parametric model, e.g. that the density  $p$  of  $P$  is in a family  $\mathcal{P} = \{p(x|\theta)|\theta \in \mathcal{T}\}$ . If so, the prior and posterior can be expressed as distributions on  $\mathcal{T}$ . We write

$$q(\theta) \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr(\theta|x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

for the prior and posterior density, respectively.

### Remark

The posterior  $\Pr[P|x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is an abstract object, which can be rigorously defined using the tools of probability theory, but is in general (even theoretically) impossible to compute. However: In the parametric case, the posterior can be obtained using the Bayes equation.

# Bayes' Theorem

## Parametric modeling assumption

Suppose  $\mathcal{P} = \{p(x|\theta) | \theta \in \mathcal{T}\}$  is a model and  $q$  a prior distribution on  $\mathcal{T}$ . Our sampling model then has the form:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \theta & \sim & q \\ X_1, X_2, \dots & \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} & p(\cdot | \theta) \end{array}$$

Note that the data is *conditionally i.i.d.* given  $\Theta = \theta$ .

# Bayes' Theorem

## Parametric modeling assumption

Suppose  $\mathcal{P} = \{p(x|\theta)|\theta \in \mathcal{T}\}$  is a model and  $q$  a prior distribution on  $\mathcal{T}$ . Our sampling model then has the form:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \theta & \sim & q \\ X_1, X_2, \dots & \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} & p(\cdot|\theta) \end{array}$$

Note that the data is *conditionally i.i.d.* given  $\Theta = \theta$ .

Given data  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , we can compute the posterior by

$$\Pr(\theta|x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{(\prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i|\theta))q(\theta)}{p(x_1, \dots, x_n)} = \frac{(\prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i|\theta))q(\theta)}{\int (\prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i|\theta)) q(\theta)}.$$

this is very difficult to calculate

The individual terms have names:    We only know the posterior distribution

$$\text{posterior} = \frac{\text{likelihood} \times \text{prior}}{\text{evidence}}$$

## Example: unknown Gaussian mean

### Model

We assume that the data is generated from a Gaussian with fixed variance  $\sigma^2$ . The mean  $\mu$  is unknown. The model likelihood is  $p(x|\mu, \sigma) = g(x|\mu, \sigma)$  (where  $g$  is the Gaussian density on the line).

# Example: unknown Gaussian mean

## Model

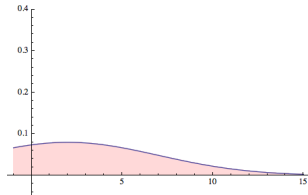
We assume that the data is generated from a Gaussian with fixed variance  $\sigma^2$ . The mean  $\mu$  is unknown. The model likelihood is  $p(x|\mu, \sigma) = g(x|\mu, \sigma)$  (where  $g$  is the Gaussian density on the line).

## Bayesian model

We choose a Gaussian prior on  $\mu$ ,

$$q(\mu) := g(\mu|\mu_0, \sigma_0) .$$

In the figure,  $\mu_0 = 2$  and  $\sigma_0 = 5$ . Hence, we assume that  $\mu_0 = 2$  is the most probable value of  $\mu$ , and that  $\mu \in [-3, 7]$  with a probability  $\sim 0.68$ .



## Example: Unknown Gaussian mean

Application of Bayes' formula to the Gaussian-Gaussian model shows the posterior distribution is

$$\Pr(\mu|x_{1:n}) = g(\mu|\mu_n, \sigma_n),$$

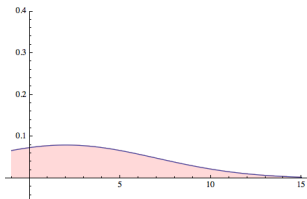
$$\text{where } \mu_n := \frac{\sigma^2 \mu_0 + \sigma_0^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{\sigma^2 + n\sigma_0^2} \text{ and } \sigma_n^2 := \frac{\sigma^2 \sigma_0^2}{\sigma^2 + n\sigma_0^2}.$$

## Example: Unknown Gaussian mean

Application of Bayes' formula to the Gaussian-Gaussian model shows the posterior distribution is

$$\Pr(\mu|x_{1:n}) = g(\mu|\mu_n, \sigma_n),$$

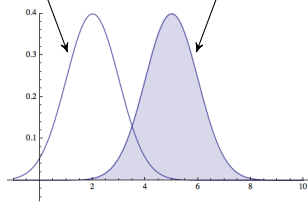
where  $\mu_n := \frac{\sigma^2 \mu_0 + \sigma_0^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{\sigma^2 + n\sigma_0^2}$  and  $\sigma_n^2 := \frac{\sigma^2 \sigma_0^2}{\sigma^2 + n\sigma_0^2}$ .



Prior

most probable model  
under the prior

actual distribution  
of the data



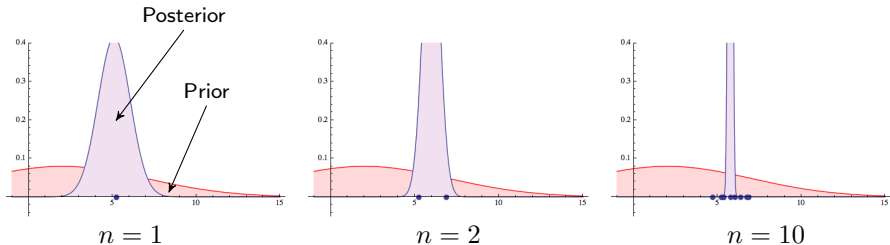
Sampling distribution

## Example: Unknown Gaussian mean

Application of Bayes' formula to the Gaussian-Gaussian model shows the posterior distribution is

$$\Pr(\mu|x_{1:n}) = g(\mu|\mu_n, \sigma_n),$$

$$\text{where } \mu_n := \frac{\sigma^2 \mu_0 + \sigma_0^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{\sigma^2 + n\sigma_0^2} \text{ and } \sigma_n^2 := \frac{\sigma^2 \sigma_0^2}{\sigma^2 + n\sigma_0^2}.$$





# Exponential Family Distributions

## Definition

We consider a model  $\mathcal{P}$  for data in a sample space  $\mathbf{X}$  with parameter space  $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ . Each distribution in  $\mathcal{P}$  has density  $p(x|\theta)$  for some  $\theta \in \mathcal{T}$ .

The model is called an **exponential family model** (EFM) if  $p$  can be written as

$$p(x|\theta) = \frac{h(x)}{Z(\theta)} e^{\langle S(x), \theta \rangle}$$

where:

- ▶  $S$  is a function  $S : \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ . This function is called the **sufficient statistic** of  $\mathcal{P}$ .
- ▶  $h$  is a function  $h : \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ .
- ▶  $Z$  is a function  $Z : \mathcal{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ , called the **partition function**.

# Exponential Family Distributions

Exponential families are important because:

1. The special form of  $p$  gives them many nice properties.
2. Most important parametric models (e.g. Gaussians) are EFM's.
3. Many algorithms and methods can be formulated generically for all EFM's.

## Alternative Form

The choice of  $p$  looks perhaps less arbitrary if we write

$$p(x|\theta) = \exp\left(\langle S(x), \theta \rangle - \phi(x) - \psi(\theta)\right)$$

which is obtained by defining

$$\phi(x) := -\log(h(x)) \quad \text{and} \quad \psi(\theta) := \log(Z(\theta))$$

### A first interpretation

Exponential family models are models in which:

- The data and the parameter interact only through the linear term  $\langle S(x), \theta \rangle$  in the exponent.

## Alternative Form

The choice of  $p$  looks perhaps less arbitrary if we write

$$p(x|\theta) = \exp\left(\langle S(x), \theta \rangle - \phi(x) - \psi(\theta)\right)$$

which is obtained by defining

$$\phi(x) := -\log(h(x)) \quad \text{and} \quad \psi(\theta) := \log(Z(\theta))$$

### A first interpretation

Exponential family models are models in which:

- ▶ The data and the parameter interact only through the linear term  $\langle S(x), \theta \rangle$  in the exponent.
- ▶ The logarithm of  $p$  can be non-linear in both  $S(x)$  and  $\theta$ , but there is no *joint* nonlinear function of  $(S(x), \theta)$ .

# The Partition Function

## Normalization constraint

Since  $p$  is a probability density, we know

$$\int_{\mathbf{X}} \frac{h(x)}{Z(\theta)} e^{\langle S(x), \theta \rangle} dx = 1 .$$

## Partition function

The only term we can pull out of the integral is the partition function  $Z(\theta)$ , hence

$$Z(\theta) = \int_{\mathbf{X}} h(x) e^{\langle S(x), \theta \rangle} dx$$

**Note:** This implies that an exponential family is completely determined by choice of the spaces  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathcal{T}$  and of the functions  $S$  and  $h$ .

## Example: Gaussian

### In 1 dimension

We can rewrite the exponent of the Gaussian as

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{x^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{2x\mu}{2\sigma^2}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\mu^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \\ &= \underbrace{c(\mu, \sigma)}_{\text{some function of } \mu \text{ and } \sigma} \exp\left(x^2 \cdot \frac{-1}{2\sigma^2} + x \cdot \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2}\right)\end{aligned}$$

This shows the Gaussian is an exponential family, since we can choose:

$$S(x) := (x^2, x) \quad \text{and} \quad \theta := \left(\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2}, \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad h(x) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad Z(\theta) = c(\mu, \sigma)^{-1}.$$

### In $d$ dimensions

$$S(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{x}) \quad \text{and} \quad \theta := \left(-\frac{1}{2}\Sigma^{-1}, \Sigma^{-1}\mu\right)$$

# Back to Bayesian Models: Parametric Prior Families

## Families of priors

The prior has to be expressed by a specific distribution. In parametric Bayesian models, we typically choose  $q$  as an element of a standard parametric family (e.g. the Gaussian in the previous example).

## Hyperparameters

If we choose  $q$  as an element of a <sup>Text</sup>parametric family

$$\mathcal{Q} = \{q(\theta|\phi) | \phi \in \mathcal{H}\}$$

$\phi$  is the parameter of the prior

on  $\mathcal{T}$ , selecting the prior comes down to choosing  $\phi$ . Hence,  $\phi$  becomes a tuning parameter of the model.

$$q(\theta|\lambda, y) = \exp\langle \theta, y \rangle - \lambda Z(\theta)$$

$$\text{posterior: } \exp(\langle \theta, S(x) + y \rangle - (\lambda + n) \log Z(\theta))$$

Parameter of the prior family are called **hyperparameters** of the Bayesian model.

# Natural Conjugate Priors

## Exponential family likelihood

We now assume the parametric model  $\mathcal{P} = \{p(x|\theta)|\theta \in \mathcal{T}\}$  is an exponential family model, i.e.

$$p(x|\theta) = \frac{h(x)}{Z(\theta)} e^{\langle S(x)|\theta \rangle}.$$

## Natural conjugate prior

We define a prior distribution using the density

$$q(\theta|\lambda, y) = \frac{1}{K(\lambda, y)} \exp\left(\langle \theta|y \rangle - \lambda \cdot \log Z(\theta)\right)$$

- ▶ Hyperparameters:  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_+$  and  $y \in \mathcal{T}$ .
- ▶ Note that the choice of  $\mathcal{P}$  enters through  $Z$ .
- ▶  $K$  is a normalization function.

Clearly, this is itself an exponential family (on  $\mathcal{T}$ ), with  $h \equiv Z^{-\lambda}$  and  $Z \equiv K$ .



## Ugly Computation

Substitution into Bayes' equation gives

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(\theta|x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \frac{\prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i|\theta)}{p(x_1, \dots, x_n)} \cdot q(\theta) \\ &= \frac{\frac{\prod_{i=1}^n h(x_i)}{Z(\theta)^n} \exp\langle \sum_i S(x_i) | \theta \rangle}{p(x_1, \dots, x_n)} \cdot \frac{\exp(\langle \theta | y \rangle - \lambda \log Z(\theta))}{K(\lambda, y)}\end{aligned}$$

If we neglect all terms which do not depend on  $\theta$ , we have

$$\Pr(\theta|x_1, \dots, x_n) \propto \frac{\exp\langle \sum_i S(x_i) | \theta \rangle}{Z(\theta)^n} \exp(\langle \theta | y \rangle - \lambda \log Z(\theta)) = \frac{\exp\left(\langle y + \sum_i S(x_i) | \theta \rangle\right)}{Z(\theta)^{\lambda+n}}$$

Up to normalization, this is precisely the form of an element of  $\mathcal{Q}$ :

$$\dots = \exp\left(\left\langle y + \sum_i S(x_i) | \theta \right\rangle - (\lambda + n) \log Z(\theta)\right) \propto q(\theta | \lambda + n, y + \sum_{i=1}^n S(x_i))$$

# Posteriors of Conjugate Priors

## Conclusion

If  $\mathcal{P}$  is an exponential family model with sufficient statistic  $S$ , and if  $q(\theta|\lambda, y)$  is a natural conjugate prior for  $\mathcal{P}$ , the posterior under observations  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  is

$$\Pr(\theta|x_1, \dots, x_n) = q(\theta|\lambda + n, y + \sum_{i=1}^n S(x_i))$$

## Remark

The form of the posterior above means that we can *compute the posterior by updating the hyperparameters*. This property motivates the next definition.

## Definition

Assume that  $\mathcal{P}$  is a parametric family and  $\mathcal{Q}$  a family of priors. Suppose, for each sample size  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , there is a function  $T_n : \mathbf{X}^n \times \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  such that

$$\Pr(\theta|x_1, \dots, x_n) = q(\theta|\hat{\phi}) \quad \text{with} \quad \hat{\phi} := T_n(x_1, \dots, x_n, \phi) .$$

Then  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathcal{Q}$  are called **conjugate**.

# Conjugate Priors

## Closure under sampling

If the posterior is an element of the prior family, i.e. if

$$\Pr(\theta|x_1, \dots, x_n) = q(\theta|\tilde{\phi})$$

for *some*  $\tilde{\phi}$ , the model is called **closed under sampling**. Clearly, every conjugate model is closed under sampling.

## Remark

Closure under sampling is a weaker property than conjugacy; for example, any Bayesian model with

$$\mathcal{Q} = \{ \text{all probability distributions on } \mathcal{T} \}$$

is trivially closed under sampling, but not conjugate.

**Warning:** Many Bayesian texts use conjugacy and closure under sampling equivalently.

## Which models are conjugate?

It can be shown that, up a few "borderline" cases, the only parametric models which admit conjugate priors are exponential family models.