Lecture 4: Variational Inference in Exponential Family Graphical Models

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Aug. 25th., 2022

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1 Background knowledge

Recall the formulation of Bayesian network and Markov network

• Given directed graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$, where $(s,t) \neq (t,s)$, the **directed graphical model** factorizes the joint distribution into a set of factors $\{p_s(x_s|x_{\pi(s)}): s \in \mathcal{V}\}$ according to the ancestor relations defined in \mathcal{G}

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_m) = \prod_{s \in \mathcal{V}} p_s(x_s | x_{\pi(s)}).$$
 (1)

This class of models are also referred as *Bayesian networks* [Koller and Friedman, 2009].

• Given undirected graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$, where (s,t) = (t,s), the joint distribution of **Markov** random fields (Markov network) factorize as

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_m) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} \psi_C(x_C), \tag{2}$$

where Z is a constant chosen to ensure that the distribution is normalized. The set C is often taken to be the set of all maximal cliques of the graph, i.e., the set of cliques that are not properly contained within any other clique. Note that any representation based on nonmaximal cliques can always be converted to one based on maximal cliques by redefining the compatibility function on a maximal clique to be the product over the compatibility functions on the subsets of that clique.

• The canonical representation of *exponential famility* of distribution has the following form

$$p(x_1, ..., x_m) = p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}) = \exp(\langle \boldsymbol{\eta}, \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) \rangle - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})) h(\mathbf{x}) \nu(d\mathbf{x})$$
$$= \exp\left(\sum_{\alpha} \eta_{\alpha} \phi_{\alpha}(\mathbf{x}) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right)$$
(3)

where ϕ is a feature map and $\phi(x)$ defines a set of *sufficient statistics* (or *potential functions*). The normalization factor is defined as

$$A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) := \log \int \exp\left(\langle \boldsymbol{\eta}, \, \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}) \rangle\right) h(\boldsymbol{x}) \nu(d\boldsymbol{x}) = \log Z(\boldsymbol{\eta})$$

 $A(\eta)$ is also referred as **log-partition function** or cumulant function. The parameters $\eta = (\eta_{\alpha})$ are called **natural parameters** or canonical parameters. The canonical parameter $\{\eta_{\alpha}\}$ forms a **natural (canonical) parameter space**

$$\Omega = \left\{ \boldsymbol{\eta} \in \mathbb{R}^d : A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) < \infty \right\}$$
 (4)

• The exponential family is the unique solution of *maximum entropy estimation* problem:

$$\min_{q \in \Delta} \quad \mathbb{KL}\left(q \parallel p_0\right) \tag{5}$$

s.t.
$$\mathbb{E}_q \left[\phi_{\alpha}(X) \right] = \mu_{\alpha} \quad \forall \, \alpha \in \mathcal{I}$$
 (6)

where $\mathbb{KL}(q \parallel p_0) = \int \log(\frac{q}{p_0})qdx = \mathbb{E}_q\left[\log\frac{q}{p_0}\right]$ is the relative entropy or the Kullback-Leibler divergence of q w.r.t. p_0 .

Here $\mu = (\mu_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in \mathcal{I}}$ is a set of **mean parameters**. The space of mean parameters \mathcal{M} is a convex polytope spanned by potential functions $\{\phi_{\alpha}\}$.

$$\mathcal{M} := \left\{ \boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^d : \exists q \text{ s.t. } \mathbb{E}_q \left[\phi_{\alpha}(X) \right] = \mu_{\alpha} \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathcal{I} \right\} = \operatorname{conv} \left\{ \phi_{\alpha}(x), \ x \in \mathcal{X}, \ \alpha \in \mathcal{I} \right\}$$
 (7)

• Note that $A(\eta)$ is a convex function and its gradient $\nabla A : \Omega \to \mathcal{M}^{\circ}$ is a bijection between the natural parameter space Ω and the <u>interior</u> of \mathcal{M} , \mathcal{M}° ; $\nabla A(\eta) = \mu$ based on the following equation

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial \eta_{\alpha}} = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \left[\phi_{\alpha}(X) \right] := \int_{\mathcal{X}^m} \phi_{\alpha}(\boldsymbol{x}) q(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}) d\boldsymbol{x} = \mu_{\alpha}$$
 (8)

• Moreover $A(\eta)$ has a variational form

$$A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \sup_{\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathcal{M}} \{ \langle \boldsymbol{\eta}, \boldsymbol{\mu} \rangle - A^*(\boldsymbol{\mu}) \}$$
 (9)

where $A^*(\mu)$ is the conjugate dual function of A and it is defined as

$$A^*(\boldsymbol{\mu}) := \sup_{\boldsymbol{\eta} \in \Omega} \left\{ \langle \boldsymbol{\mu} \,,\, \boldsymbol{\eta} \rangle - A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right\} \tag{10}$$

It is shown that $A^*(\mu) = -H(q_{\eta(\mu)})$ for $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^{\circ}$ which is the negative entropy. $A^*(\mu)$ is also the optimal value for the **maximum likelihood estimation** problem on p. The exponential family can be reparameterized according to its mean parameters μ via backward mapping $(\nabla A)^{-1}: \mathcal{M}^{\circ} \to \Omega$, called **mean parameterization**.

- We can formulate the **KL divergence** between two distributions in exponential family Ω using its primal and dual form
 - **Primal-form**: given $\eta_1, \eta_2 \in \Omega$

$$\mathbb{KL}\left(p_{\eta_1} \parallel p_{\eta_2}\right) \equiv \mathbb{KL}\left(\eta_1 \parallel \eta_2\right) = A(\eta_2) - A(\eta_1) - \langle \mu_1, \eta_2 - \eta_1 \rangle$$

$$\equiv A(\eta_2) - A(\eta_1) - \langle \nabla A(\eta_1), \eta_2 - \eta_1 \rangle$$
(11)

- Primal-dual form: given $\mu_1 \in \mathcal{M}, \eta_2 \in \Omega$

$$\mathbb{KL}\left(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{1} \parallel \boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}\right) = A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}) + A^{*}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{1}) - \langle \boldsymbol{\mu}_{1}, \boldsymbol{\eta}_{2} \rangle \tag{12}$$

- Dual-form: given $\mu_1, \mu_2 \in \mathcal{M}$

$$\mathbb{KL}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 \parallel \boldsymbol{\mu}_2) = A^*(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1) - A^*(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2) - \langle \boldsymbol{\eta}_2, \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 \rangle$$

$$\equiv A^*(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1) - A^*(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2) - \langle \nabla A^*(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2), \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 \rangle$$
(13)

• The exact inference on **tree-based models** makes use of the **decomposition** property of tree, $\mathcal{T} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{T}})$. Specifically, define the neighborhood of node s as

$$\mathcal{N}(s) = \{ t \in \mathcal{V} : (s, t) \in \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{T}} \}$$

For each $u \in \mathcal{N}(s)$, let $\mathcal{T}_u = (\mathcal{V}_u, \mathcal{E}_u)$ be the subgraph formed by the set of nodes (and edges joining them) that can be reached from u by **paths** that **do not pass** through node s. An **important property** for tree is that the subgraph \mathcal{T} is a tree and for any $u \neq t, \forall u, t \in \mathcal{N}(s)$, $\mathcal{T}_u \cap \mathcal{T}_t = \emptyset$. This means that we can **decompose** the tree \mathcal{T}_s rooted at s, by **removing** s from the tree. It then form a collection or non-overlapping subtrees $\{\mathcal{T}_t, t \in \mathcal{N}(s)\}$.

• The tree-based Markov random field is defined as

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_m; \mathcal{T}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{s \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_s(x_s) \prod_{(s,t) \in \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{T}}} \psi_{s,t}(x_s, x_t), \tag{14}$$

• The **Belief Propagation algorithm** is based on *dynamic programming*. The key is to pass *messages* from one node to its neighborhood carrying marginalized probability from other nodes. **Message** is a value function, which is defined as

$$M_{t\to s}^*(x_s) := M_{t,s}^*(x_s) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{x}_{\mathcal{V}_t}} p_t(\boldsymbol{x}_{\mathcal{V}_t}|x_s; \mathcal{T}_t) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{x}_{\mathcal{V}_t}} \psi_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) p(\boldsymbol{x}_{\mathcal{V}_t}; \mathcal{T}_t)$$
(15)

The target is to find marginal distribution at x_s

$$\mu_s(x_s) := \sum_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-s}} p(x_s, \boldsymbol{x}_{-s})$$

$$= \psi_s(x_s) \prod_{t \in \mathcal{N}(s)} M_{t,s}^*(x_s). \tag{16}$$

The sum-product algorithm is based on the following **Bellman equation**:

$$M_{t,s}^*(x_s) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{x}_{\mathcal{V}_t}} \psi_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) p(\boldsymbol{x}_{\mathcal{V}_t}; \mathcal{T}_t)$$

$$= \kappa \sum_{x_t \in \mathcal{X}} \left\{ \psi_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) \psi_t(x_t) \prod_{u \in \mathcal{N}(t) - \{s\}} M_{u,t}^*(x_t) \right\}, \, \forall t \in \mathcal{N}(s), s \in \mathcal{V}$$
(17)

where $\kappa > 0$ again denotes a normalization constant.

2 Approximate inference via variational methods

The message passing algorithms in (17) are mainly for tabular-based graphical model. For graphical model using function representation, such as those in exponential families, exact inference task is challenging. In these graphical models, two fundamental difficulties associated with:

- the nature of the **constraint set** \mathcal{M} , which is high dimensional with many facets and extreme points;
- the lack of an explicit form for the dual function A^* , esp. the negative entropy on joint distribution cannot be decomposed according to graph \mathcal{G} .

Therefore, we focus on **approximate Inference methods** of exponential family graphical model. There are two main branches:

- Monte Carlo sampling methods: Many graphical models have explicit function form for conditional probability (e.g. Gaussian graphical model, LDA, RBMs etc.). This allows us to apply sampling techiques such as importance sampling, Gibbs sampling, stimulated annealing, hybrid Monte Carlo etc. [Liu and Liu, 2001, Shapiro, 2003]. The key idea behind sampling based inference methods is that the high dimensional integration can be approximated via sample average of some statistics. Each factor can be used as a generator on a small number of variables based on local information. The drawbacks include randomness of solutions, slow convergence, high variance etc.
- Variational inference methods: Variational inference methods are based on the variational principle of log-partition function (9) and conjugate duality between A and A*. Unlike the stochastic methods above, these methods are deterministic. We mainly discuss two classes of methods
 - The belief propagation based on <u>Bethe variational problem (BVP)</u>. It relaxes the constraint set from $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ to a <u>convex polytope</u> $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$ and then approximates the entropy using <u>Bethe entropy approximation</u>. Both approximations allow the problem to be factorized according to graph topology.
 - The <u>mean field methods</u>. These methods limit the distributions within an non-convex set $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ on tractable graph \mathcal{F} , e.g. fully factorized. They find the closet tractable model in exponential family that satisfy the mean matching conditions.

These methods reach the *entropy decomposition* at the expense of *losing convexity* in the problem formulations. For BVP, the objective function is non-convex. For the mean field method, the feasible region is non-convex.

3 Belief propagation for exponential families

Unlike tabular methods, exponential families are defined *globally* by joint distributions. In order for the belief propagation to work, we need to break it down into a set of local factors and consider the local objective functions on each factor. In this section, we will

• Relax the constraint set from (global) marginal polytope $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ to $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$ as a set of **pseudo-marginal** distributions within each factors

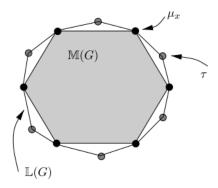


Fig. 4.2 Highly idealized illustration of the relation between the marginal polytope $\mathbb{M}(G)$ and the outer bound $\mathbb{L}(G)$. The set $\mathbb{L}(G)$ is always an outer bound on $\mathbb{M}(G)$, and the inclusion $\mathbb{M}(G) \subset \mathbb{L}(G)$ is strict whenever G has cycles. Both sets are polytopes and so can be represented either as the convex hull of a finite number of extreme points, or as the intersection of a finite number of half-spaces, known as facets.

Figure 1: The marginal polytope $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ and its outer bound relaxation $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$.

• Approximate the global entropy $-A^*(\tau)$ by Bethe entropy which can be decomposed into entropies on each local factors

3.1 Approximate $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ via pseudo-marginal distributions

Consider the pairwise Markov random fields with binary indicator potential functions:

$$\phi_{s;j}(x_s) = 1 \{x_s = j\} \tag{18}$$

Moreover, for each edge (s,t) and pair of values $(j,k) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}$, define the sufficient statistics

$$\phi_{st:jk}(x_s, x_t) = 1 \{ x_s = j \land x_t = k \}$$
 (19)

The joint distribution is

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_m; \boldsymbol{\eta}) = \exp\left(\sum_{s \in \mathcal{V}} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{X}} \eta_{s;j} \,\phi_{s;j}(x_s) + \sum_{(s,t) \in \mathcal{E}} \sum_{(j,k) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}} \eta_{st;jk} \,\phi_{st;jk}(x_s, x_t) - Z(\boldsymbol{w})\right), \quad (20)$$

As discussed before, the mean parameter space $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ is the **marginal polytope** over \mathcal{G} since

$$\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G}) := \left\{ \boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^d : \exists q \text{ s.t. } \mathbb{E}_q \left[\phi_{\alpha}(X) \right] = \mu_{\alpha} \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathcal{I} \right\}$$
where $\mathbb{E}_p \left[\mathbb{1} \left\{ x_s = j \land x_t = k \right\} \right] = \mu_{st;jk} = \mathbb{P}(X_s = j \land X_t = k), \quad \forall s, t, j, k$

$$\mathbb{E}_p \left[\mathbb{1} \left\{ x_s = j \right\} \right] = \mu_{s;j} = \mathbb{P}(X_s = j), \quad \forall s, j$$

defines a set of matching constraints on the marginal distribution of p within each factor.

As a convex set, $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ can be represented as intersection of a finite number of half spaces, which usually does not have explicit form. Therefore we consider an **outer bound set** $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$ as its **relaxation**:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G}) = \{ \tau > 0 : \tau_s \text{ satisfies (22) } \forall s \in \mathcal{V}, \ \tau_{s,t} \text{ satisfies (23) } \forall (s,t) \in \mathcal{E} \}$$
 (21)

$$\sum_{x_s \in \mathcal{X}} \tau_s(x_s) = 1, \quad \forall s \in \mathcal{V}$$
 (22)

$$\sum_{x_t' \in \mathcal{X}} \tau_{s,t}(x_s, x_t') = \tau_s(x_s), \quad \forall x_s, x_t \in \mathcal{X}, (s, t) \in \mathcal{E}$$
(23)

$$\sum_{x_s' \in \mathcal{X}} \tau_{s,t}(x_s', x_t) = \tau_t(x_t).$$

The $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$ are set of marginal distributions that fit the **local consistent requirement** since they only consider the distribution **within each factor** but the entire joint distribution. Note that $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$ is defined by $O(|\mathcal{V}| + |\mathcal{E}|)$ linear constraints. On the other hand, $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ has a total of $|\mathcal{X}^m|$ extreme points.

The construction of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$ follows a <u>bottom-up</u> approach, i.e. focusing on finding consistent marginal distributions just within each local factor. On the other hand, the marginal polytope $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ is constructed via a top-down approach, i.e. it begins with joint distribution p and then marginalize over other variables to obtain the marginal distribution within each factor. It is easy to see that \mathcal{M} follows the local consistency conditions in \mathcal{L} but not vice versa.

Proposition 3.1 The inclusion $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$ holds for any graph. For a tree-structured graph \mathcal{T} , the marginal polytope $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{T})$ is equal to $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T})$.

For tree structures $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$, $\tau \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$ defined a valid marginal distribution. But for graphs with circles, they are not *valid* marginal distribution, i.e. $\tau_{s,t} \neq \sum_{-\{s,t\}} p(x)$. In this case, they are called **pseudo-marginals**.

3.2 Bethe entropy approximation

The entropy $-A^*$ usually does not have closed-form expression. One exception is tree-structured graph \mathcal{T} .

$$-A^*(\boldsymbol{\mu}) = H(p_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \left[-\log p_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(X) \right]$$
$$= \sum_{s \in \mathcal{V}} H_s(\mu_s) - \sum_{(s,t) \in \mathcal{E}} I(\mu_{s,t})$$
(24)

where μ_s and $\mu_{s,t}$ are set of marginal distributions defined in $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{T})$. The total entropy $-A^*$ is decomposed into **node entropies** and **edge mutual information** within each factor. These quantities are defined as below:

$$H_s(\mu_s) = \mathbb{E}_{\mu_s} \left[-\log \mu_s \right] = \int_{\mathcal{X}} -\mu_s(x_s) \log \mu_s(x_s) dx_s, \quad \forall s \in \mathcal{V}$$
 (25)

$$I(\mu_{s,t}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mu_{s,t}} \left[\log \frac{\mu_{s,t}}{\mu_s \mu_t} \right] = \int_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}} \mu_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) \log \left(\frac{\mu_{s,t}(x_s, x_t)}{\mu_s(x_s) \mu_t(x_t)} \right) dx_s dx_t, \ \forall (s,t) \in \mathcal{E}$$
 (26)

For graphs with cycles, the decomposition (24) is seen as an approximation of $H(p_{\mu})$, called **Bethe** entropy approximation, i.e.

$$H(\tau) \approx H_{Bethe}(\tau) := \sum_{s \in \mathcal{V}} H_s(\tau_s) - \sum_{(s,t) \in \mathcal{E}} I(\tau_{s,t})$$
 (27)

An important fact, **central** in the derivation of the sum-product algorithm, is that this approximation (27) can be evaluated for any set of **pseudomarginals** $\{\tau_s, s \in \mathcal{V}\}$ and $\{\tau_{s,t}, (s,t) \in \mathcal{E}\}$ that belong to $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$.

Now we can formulate the **Bethe variational problem** (BVP):

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\tau} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})} \langle \boldsymbol{\tau} , \boldsymbol{\eta} \rangle + \sum_{s \in \mathcal{V}} H_s(\tau_s) - \sum_{(s,t) \in \mathcal{E}} I(\tau_{s,t})$$
 (28)

The objective function is called **Bethe free energy**. This problem has a very simple structure: the cost function is given in **closed form**, it is **differentiable**, and the constraint set $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$ is a polytope specified by a *small number of constraints*. Due to its simple form and the fact that $H_{Bethe}(\tau)$ factorizes over \mathcal{G} , we can solve (28) efficiently via **belief propagation** (sum-product algorithm).

3.3 Sum-product for Bethe variational problem

Let us formulate the (partial) Lagrangian function for BVP:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}; \boldsymbol{\eta}) := \langle \boldsymbol{\tau}, \boldsymbol{\eta} \rangle + \sum_{s \in \mathcal{V}} H_s(\tau_s) - \sum_{(s,t) \in \mathcal{E}} I(\tau_{s,t}) + \sum_{s \in \mathcal{V}} \lambda_{ss} \left[\sum_{x_s \in \mathcal{X}} \tau_s(x_s) - 1 \right]$$

$$+ \sum_{(s,t) \in \mathcal{E}} \left\{ \sum_{x_s} \lambda_{t,s}(x_s) \left[\tau_s(x_s) - \sum_{x_t \in \mathcal{X}} \tau_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) \right] + \sum_{x_t} \lambda_{s,t}(x_t) \left[\tau_t(x_t) - \sum_{x_s \in \mathcal{X}} \tau_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) \right] \right\}$$

$$(29)$$

We have the following theorem which tells that sum-product is the algorithm to solve (29).

Theorem 3.2 (Sum-Product and the Bethe Problem) [Wainwright et al., 2008].

The <u>sum-product updates</u> are a Lagrangian method for attempting to solve the Bethe variational problem:

1. For any graph \mathcal{G} , any fixed point of the sum-product updates specifies a pair $(\boldsymbol{\tau}^*, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*)$ such that

$$\nabla_{\tau} \mathcal{L}(\tau^*, \lambda^*; \eta) = 0 \quad and \quad \nabla_{\lambda} \mathcal{L}(\tau^*, \lambda^*; \eta) = 0. \tag{30}$$

2. For a <u>tree-structured</u> Markov random field (MRF), the Lagrangian Equations (30) have a unique solution (τ^*, λ^*) , where the elements of τ^* correspond to the exact singleton and pairwise marginal distributions of the MRF. Moreover, the optimal value of the BVP is equal to the cumulant function $A(\eta)$.

Proof: We just prove the first part. The second part see [Wainwright et al., 2008]. Computing $\nabla_{\lambda} \mathcal{L}(\tau^*, \lambda^*; \eta) = \mathbf{0}$ results in the marginalization and normalization constraint (23) and (22). Computing $\nabla_{\tau} \mathcal{L}(\tau^*, \lambda^*; \eta) = \mathbf{0}$ results in

$$0 = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\tau}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\tau}^*, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*; \boldsymbol{\eta})\big|_{s, x_s} = \eta_s(x_s) - \log \tau_s(x_s) + \lambda_{ss} + \sum_{t \in \mathcal{N}(s)} \lambda_{t, s}(x_s)$$
$$0 = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\tau}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\tau}^*, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*; \boldsymbol{\eta})\big|_{(s, t), x_s, x_t} = \eta_{s, t}(x_s, x_t) - \log \tau_{s, t}(x_s, x_t)$$

$$+\log \tau_s(x_s) + \log \tau_t(x_t) - \lambda_{t,s}(x_s) - \lambda_{s,t}(x_t)$$

Note that constant terms are absorbed by the slack variable for the positiveness constraint. Thus

$$\log \tau_s(x_s) = \eta_s(x_s) + \lambda_{ss} + \sum_{t \in \mathcal{N}(s)} \lambda_{t,s}(x_s)$$
(31)

$$\log \tau_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) = \eta_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) + \log \tau_s(x_s) + \log \tau_t(x_t) - \lambda_{t,s}(x_s) - \lambda_{s,t}(x_t)$$
(32)

Substitute (31) into (32), we have

$$\log \tau_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) = \eta_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) + \eta_s(x_s) + \eta_t(x_t) + \lambda_{ss} + \lambda_{tt} + \sum_{u \in \mathcal{N}(s) - \{t\}} \lambda_{u,s}(x_s) + \sum_{u \in \mathcal{N}(t) - \{s\}} \lambda_{u,t}(x_t)$$
(33)

Let us define, for each directed edge $t \to s$, an r_s -vector of **messages**

$$M_{t\to s}(x_s) := M_{t,s}(x_s) = \exp\left(\lambda_{t,s}(x_s)\right), \quad (s,t) \in \mathcal{E}, s \in \mathcal{V}, x_s \in \mathcal{X}$$
(34)

Then from (31), we have

$$\tau_s(x_s) = \kappa \exp\left(\eta_s(x_s)\right) \prod_{t \in \mathcal{N}(s)} M_{t \to s}(x_s)$$
(35)

$$\tau_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) = \kappa' \exp\left(\eta_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) + \eta_s(x_s) + \eta_t(x_t)\right) \times \prod_{u \in \mathcal{N}(s) - \{t\}} M_{u \to s}(x_s) \times \prod_{u \in \mathcal{N}(t) - \{s\}} M_{u \to t}(x_t)$$
(36)

Here κ and κ' are positive constants dependent on λ_{ss}^* and λ_{tt}^* so that the pseudo-marginals satisfy normalization conditions. Note that τ_s and $\tau_{s,t}$ so defined are nonnegative.

To conclude, we need to adjust the Lagrange multipliers or messages so that the constraint $\tau_s(x_s) = \sum_{x_t \in \mathcal{X}} \tau_{s,t}(x_s, x_t)$ is satisfied for every edge. Combining (35) and (36) into the marginalization conditions, we can obtain the **Bellman equation** under Bethe variational problem

$$M_{t\to s}(x_s) = \kappa'' \sum_{x_t \in \mathcal{X}} \left\{ \exp\left(\eta_{s,t}(x_s, x_t) + \eta_t(x_t)\right) \prod_{u \in \mathcal{N}(t) \setminus \{s\}} M_{u\to t}(x_t) \right\}$$
(37)

Note that (37) is equivalent to (17).

From equation (34), we can see that the role of **message** in the belief propagation is to **enforce** the **local consistency** in the marginal distribution x_s among all pairwise potentials that cover x_s . This can be seen from the Lagrangian multiplier $\lambda_{t,s}$ on local consistency contraint (23).

It should be noted, however, that the above connection between sum-product and the Bethe problem in itself provides **no guarantees on the convergence** of the sum-product updates on graphs with cycles. On the other hand, it provides a principled basis for applying the sum-product algorithm for graphs with cycles, namely as a particular type of *iterative method* for attempting to satisfy *Lagrangian conditions*. The convergence of the algorithm is determined by the **potential strengths** as well as the **topology** of network. In the standard scheduling of the messages, each node applies Equation (37) *in parallel*. With the exception of trees and other special cases, the Bethe variational problem (??) is usually a **nonconvex problem**, in that $H_{Bethe}(\tau)$ fails to be concave. As a consequence, there are frequently local optima, so that even when using a convergent algorithm, there are no guarantees that it will find the global optimum. For **convexified** Bethe variational problem, see [Wainwright et al., 2008] chapter 7 which introduced the **tree-reweighted** Bethe and corresponding sum-product algorithm.

3.4 Reparameterization

Proposition 3.3 (Reparameterization Properties of Bethe Approximation) [Wainwright et al., 2008].

Let $\boldsymbol{\tau}^* = \{\tau_s^*, s \in \mathcal{V}, \tau_{s,t}^*, (s,t) \in \mathcal{E}\}$ denote any optimum of the Bethe variational principle defined by the distribution $p_{\boldsymbol{\eta}}$. Then the distribution defined by the fixed point as

$$p_{\tau^*}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z(\tau^*)} \prod_{s \in \mathcal{V}} \tau_s^*(x_s) \prod_{(s,t) \in \mathcal{E}} \frac{\tau_{s,t}^*(x_s, x_t)}{\tau_s^*(x_s) \tau_t^*(x_t)}$$
(38)

is a reparameterization of the original distribution p_{η} - that is, $p_{\tau^*}(x) = p_{\eta}(x)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}^m$.

Note that this type of reparameterization is possible only because the exponential family is defined by an *overcomplete* set of sufficient statistics, involving the indicator functions (18) and (19). Moreover, the reparameterization viewpoint provides some insight into the *approximation error*: that is, the difference between the exact marginals μ_s of $p_{\eta}(x)$ and the approximations τ_s^* computed by the sum-product algorithm.

We can show that the reparameterization characterization (38) enables us to specify, for **any pseudo-marginal** τ in the interior of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$, a distribution $p_{\eta}(x)$ for which τ is a fixed point of the sum-product algorithm.

4 Expectation propagation

Expectation Propagation (EP) [Seeger, 2005, Wainwright et al., 2008, Koller and Friedman, 2009] provides a general-purpose framework for approximating *posterior beliefs* by exponential family distributions.

The idea of expectation propagation is close to a mixture of belief propagation and mean field methods. Expectation propagation approximates the entropy $-A^*$ based on term decoupling. It split the factors in graphical model into tractable and intractable parts. For tractable parts, it is all singletons which is close to mean field method settings, while for the intractable part it is learned via message passing. During the message passing, the moment matching conditions in \mathcal{M} are always satisfied, hence called expectation propagation.

See [Seeger, 2005, Wainwright et al., 2008, Koller and Friedman, 2009] for detailed discussions. Also see [Minka, 2013] on the expectation propagation for approximate Bayesian Inference.

5 Mean field approximation

As discussed in Section 3, there are two fundamental difficulties associated with the **variational principle** (9):

- the nature of the constraint set \mathcal{M}
- the lack of an explicit form for the dual function A^* .

The **core idea** of **mean field approaches** is simple: let us limit the optimization to a subset of distributions for which both \mathcal{M} and A^* are relatively easy to characterize; e.g., perhaps they correspond to a graph with small treewidth. Throughout this section, we refer to any such distribution as "**tractable**." The simplest choice is the family of *product* distributions, which gives rise to the naive mean field method.

5.1 Tractable families

We formally define the tractable family: consider an exponential family with a collection $\phi = (\phi_{\alpha}, \alpha \in \mathcal{I})$ of sufficient statistics associated with the cliques of $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$. Given a subgraph \mathcal{F} , let $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{F}) \subseteq \mathcal{I}$ be the subset of sufficient statistics associated with cliques of \mathcal{F} . The set of all distributions that are *Markov with respect to* \mathcal{F} is a *sub-family* of the full ϕ -exponential family; it is parameterized by the *subspace* of canonical parameters

$$\Omega(\mathcal{F}) := \{ \boldsymbol{\eta} \in \Omega : \eta_{\alpha} = 0, \ \forall \, \alpha \in \mathcal{I} \setminus \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{F}) \}.$$
(39)

By definition, the exponential family in tractable family has some of cliques removed. Given the ϕ -exponential family on graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$, we can find some of examples of **tractable families**:

• The <u>fully factorized</u> or <u>product form</u> distributions on the sub-graph $\mathcal{F}_0 = (\mathcal{V}, \emptyset)$ with all nodes but **no edges**.

$$p_{\mathcal{F}_0}(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \prod_{s \in \mathcal{V}} p(x_s; \eta_s). \tag{40}$$

The parameter space of this family of distributions is

$$\Omega(\mathcal{F}_0) := \{ \boldsymbol{\eta} \in \Omega : \eta_{s,t} = 0, \ \forall (s,t) \in \mathcal{E} \}, \tag{41}$$

This model is the basis for naive mean field algorithm.

• The *tree-structured* distributions on *spanning tree* of $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{G}) = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{T}))$:

$$p_{\mathcal{T}}(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \prod_{s \in \mathcal{V}} p(x_s; \eta_s) \prod_{(s,t) \in \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{T})} p(x_s, x_t; \eta_{s,t}). \tag{42}$$

The parameter space of this family of distributions is

$$\Omega(\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{G})) := \{ \boldsymbol{\eta} \in \Omega : \eta_{s,t} = 0, \ \forall (s,t) \in \mathcal{E} \setminus \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{T}) \}, \tag{43}$$

which set the canonical parameters to be zero for any edge not in the tree.

Denote the mean parameter space $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G}) := \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G}; \phi)$ for ϕ -exponential family on graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$. Given the tractable sub-graph \mathcal{F} , these mean field methods are based on optimizing over the **subset** of mean parameters that can be obtained by the **subset** of exponential family densities

$$\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G}) := \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G}; \boldsymbol{\phi}) := \left\{ \boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^d, \ \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \left[\boldsymbol{\phi}(X) \right] = \boldsymbol{\mu}, \text{ for some } \boldsymbol{\eta} \in \Omega(\mathcal{F}) \right\}$$
(44)

$$= \nabla A(\Omega(\mathcal{F})) \tag{45}$$

The interior of $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{F}; \phi)$ is a subset of interior of $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G}; \phi)$:

$$\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G}; \phi)^{\circ} \subseteq \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G}; \phi)^{\circ}, \quad \forall \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{G}.$$

 $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}$ is an *inner approximation* to the set \mathcal{M} of realizable mean parameters.

5.2 Mean field lower bound and the problem formulation

By Fenchels inequality for conjugate duals, we have the following propositions

Proposition 5.1 (Mean Field Lower Bound).

Any mean parameter $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^{\circ}$ yields a **lower bound** on the cumulant function:

$$A(\eta) \ge \langle \eta, \mu \rangle - A^*(\mu) \tag{46}$$

Moreover, equality holds if and only if η and μ are dually coupled (i.e., $\mu = \mathbb{E}_{\eta} [\phi(X)]$).

Normally, A^* is not tractable and lacks explicit form. But restricting to mean field distribution A^* can be factorized by the graph and has explicit form. Define $A^*_{\mathcal{F}} := A^*|_{\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G})}$ corresponding to the dual function restricted to the set $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G})$. This way we can compute the lower bound of log-partition function.

Thus the optimization of *mean field method* is to *maximize the lower bound*:

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G})} \langle \boldsymbol{\eta}, \boldsymbol{\mu} \rangle - A_{\mathcal{F}}^*(\boldsymbol{\mu})$$
 (47)

The corresponding value of $\mu \in \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G})$ is defined to be the **mean field approximation** to the true mean parameters.

Unlike the distribution from Bethe variation problem (28), the distribution obtained from (47) still satisfies the moment matching conditions, hence called "mean" field.

5.3 Variational representation of mean field

We can reformulate the mean field optimization (47) using KL divergence

$$\min_{q_{\mu} \in \Delta, \mu \in \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G})} \mathbb{KL} (q_{\mu} \parallel p_{\eta})$$
(48)

As compared to (5), the mean field approximation $\underline{projects}$ the prior distribution p_{η} in exponential families *into the tractable family* $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G})$ by minimizing the KL divergence.

Recall the primal-dual formulation of KL divergence (12), we have the $\underline{variational\ representation}$ of mean field

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G})} A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) + A_{\mathcal{F}}^*(\boldsymbol{\mu}) - \langle \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\eta} \rangle.$$
 (49)

5.4 Naive mean field algorithms

In naive mean field algorithm, we focuse on fully factorized *product model* (40) on two graphical models: the Ising model and the Gaussian graphical model.

• The **Ising model** is a pariwise Markov random field

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_m; \boldsymbol{\eta}) = \exp\left(\sum_{s \in \mathcal{V}} \eta_s \, x_s + \sum_{(s,t) \in \mathcal{E}} \eta_{s,t} \, x_s \, x_t - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right) \nu(d\boldsymbol{x}), \tag{50}$$

where the base measure ν is the counting measure restricted to binary variables $\{0,1\}^m$.

The potentials are indicators

$$\phi_{s;j}(x_s) = \mathbb{1} \{x_s = j\}, \forall s \in \mathcal{V}, j \in \{0, 1\}$$
$$\phi_{st;jk}(x_s, x_t) = \mathbb{1} \{x_s = j \land x_t = k\}, \forall (s, t) \in \mathcal{E}, j, k \in \{0, 1\}$$

so mean parameters are marginals

$$\mu_{st} = \mathbb{P}(X_s = 1 \land X_t = 1) = \mathbb{E}\left[X_s = 1, X_t = 1\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[X_s X_t\right], \quad \forall s, t$$

$$\mu_s = \mathbb{P}(X_s = 1) = \mathbb{E}\left[X_s\right], \quad \forall s$$

and $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ is the marginal polytope. Let \mathcal{F}_0 be the fully disconnected subgraph so the tractable space

$$\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}_0}(\mathcal{G}) = \left\{ \boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{V}| + |\mathcal{E}|} : \mu_s \in [0, 1], \forall s \in \mathcal{V}, \text{ and } \mu_{st} = \mu_t \mu_t, \forall (s, t) \in \mathcal{E} \right\},$$
 (51)

where the constraints $\mu_{st} = \mu_t \mu_t$ arise from the **product** nature of any distribution that is Markov with respect to \mathcal{F}_0 .

For any product distributions, the dual function (i.e. the negative entropy) $A_{\mathcal{F}}^*$ are fully decomposed into entropies in singletons $\{\mu_s, s \in \mathcal{V}\}.$

$$-A_{\mathcal{F}}^* = -\sum_{s \in \mathcal{V}} \left[\mu_s \log \mu_s + (1 - \mu_s) \log(1 - \mu_s) \right]$$

$$= \sum_{s \in \mathcal{V}} H(\mu_s)$$
(52)

Combining (51) and (52), we have the **naive mean field** problem

$$A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \ge \max_{\boldsymbol{\mu} \in [0,1]^m} \sum_{s \in \mathcal{V}} \eta_s \,\mu_s + \sum_{(s,t) \in \mathcal{E}} \eta_{s,t} \,\mu_s \,\mu_t + \sum_{s \in \mathcal{V}} H(\mu_s) \tag{53}$$

For any $s \in \mathcal{V}$, when all other $\mu_t, t \neq s$ are fixed, this objective function is **strictly concave** w.r.t. μ_s . Moreover, the optimal solution $\mu_s^* \in (0,1)$. Take the derivative of the objective function w.r.t. μ_s equal to zero yields the **update**:

$$\mu_s \leftarrow \sigma \left(\eta_s + \sum_{t \in \mathcal{N}(s)} \eta_{s,t} \, \mu_t \right), \forall s \in \mathcal{V}$$
 (54)

where $\sigma(x) = (1 + \exp(-x))^{-1}$ is the logistic function. We can apply **coordinate ascent** for each $s \in \mathcal{V}$. It can be shown that any sequence $\{\mu_0, \mu_1, \ldots\}$ generated by the updates (54) is guaranteed to converge to a **local optimum** of the naive mean field problem.

• The Gaussian graphical model under mean parameterization (μ, Σ) where $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X] \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $\Sigma = \mathbb{E}[XX^T] \in \mathcal{S}^m_+$ is

$$\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^m}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \left(\boldsymbol{\Sigma} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\boldsymbol{\mu}^T\right)^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) - \frac{1}{2} \log \det \left|\boldsymbol{\Sigma} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\boldsymbol{\mu}^T\right|\right)$$
(55)

$$\Leftrightarrow p(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\theta},\boldsymbol{\Theta}) = \exp\left(\langle \boldsymbol{\theta}, \, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \langle \boldsymbol{\Theta}, \, \boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{x}^T \rangle - A(\boldsymbol{\theta},\boldsymbol{\Theta})\right)$$
(56)

Under native mean field approximation, all variables are independent. This is equivalent to say that the covariance matrix $\Sigma - \mu \mu^T$ is a diagonal matrix.

$$\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}_0}(\mathcal{G}) = \left\{ (\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \in \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathcal{S}_+^m : (\boldsymbol{\Sigma} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}^T) = \operatorname{diag} \left(\boldsymbol{\Sigma} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}^T \right) \succeq \mathbf{0} \right\}, \tag{57}$$

For any such product distribution, the entropy (negative dual function) has the form:

$$-A_{\mathcal{F}}^{*} = \frac{m}{2} \log(2\pi e) + \frac{1}{2} \log \det \left| \mathbf{\Sigma} - \mu \mu^{T} \right|$$
$$= \frac{m}{2} \log(2\pi e) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{s=1}^{m} \log(\Sigma_{s,s} - \mu_{s}^{2})$$
(58)

Combining (57) and (58), we have the **native mean field** for GGM

$$A(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\Theta}) \ge \max_{(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \in \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathcal{S}_+^m} \langle \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\mu} \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \langle \boldsymbol{\Theta}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{s=1}^m \log(\Sigma_{s,s} - \mu_s^2) + \frac{m}{2} \log(2\pi e)$$

$$\text{s.t. } \Sigma_{s,s} - \mu_s^2 > 0, \quad s \in \mathcal{V}$$

$$\Sigma_{s,t} = \mu_s \mu_t, \quad (s,t) \in \mathcal{E}$$

$$(59)$$

Substituting the condition $\Sigma_{s,t} = \mu_s \mu_t$ into the inner product $\langle \Theta, \Sigma \rangle = \sum_{s,t} \Theta_{s,t} \Sigma_{s,t}$ and taking the derivative of the objective function w.r.t. μ_s and $\Sigma_{s,s}$ to zero, we have equations

$$\frac{1}{2(\Sigma_{s,s} - \mu_s^2)} = \Theta_{s,s}$$

$$\frac{\mu_s}{2(\Sigma_{s,s} - \mu_s^2)} = \theta_s - \sum_{t \in \mathcal{N}(s)} \Theta_{s,t} \mu_t$$
(60)

Thus we have the **naive mean field updates** for Gaussian graphical model:

$$\mu_s \leftarrow \frac{1}{\Theta_{s,s}} \left(\theta_s - \sum_{t \in \mathcal{N}(s)} \Theta_{s,t} \mu_t \right), \forall s \in \mathcal{V}$$
 (61)

The updates (61) are equivalent, depending on the particular ordering used, to either the Gauss-Jacobi or the Gauss- $Seidel\ methods$ [Golub and Van Loan, 2013] for solving the normal equations $\mu = \Theta^{-1}\theta$.

Note that the actual condition mean based on the Gaussian graphical model (56) on \mathcal{G} :

$$oldsymbol{\mu}_{S|oldsymbol{x}_{\mathcal{N}}} = oldsymbol{\Theta}_{S}^{-1} \left(oldsymbol{ heta}_{S} - oldsymbol{\Theta}_{S,\mathcal{N}} oldsymbol{x}_{\mathcal{N}}
ight),$$

which is the similar as above.

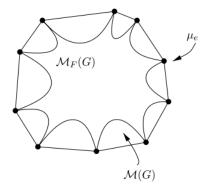


Fig. 5.3 Cartoon illustration of the set $\mathcal{M}_F(G)$ of mean parameters that arise from tractable distributions is a nonconvex inner bound on $\mathcal{M}(G)$. Illustrated here is the case of discrete random variables where $\mathcal{M}(G)$ is a polytope. The circles correspond to mean parameters that arise from delta distributions, and belong to both $\mathcal{M}(G)$ and $\mathcal{M}_F(G)$.

Figure 2: The mean field parameter space $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G})$ is an non-convex inner bound for $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$.

5.5 Nonconvexity of mean field

An important fact about the **mean field** approach is that the variational problem (47) may be **nonconvex**, so that there may be **local minima**, and the mean field updates can have multiple solutions. The source of this nonconvexity can be understood in different ways, depending on the formulation of the problem. See [Wainwright et al., 2008] for detailed discussions.

The geometric perspective on the set $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ and its inner approximation $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G})$ reveals that more generally, mean field optimization is <u>always nonconvex</u> for <u>any exponential family</u> in which the state space \mathcal{X}^m is finite. This is becase $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G}) = \text{conv}(\phi_\alpha, \alpha \in \mathcal{I})$ is a **convex hull** spanned by potentials and $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{G}) \subset \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ is a strict subset of $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$. So it must be a nonconvex set. Figure 2 illustrates their relationship.

Consequently, nonconvexity is an intrinsic property of mean field approximations.

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