



GENERALIZATION OF THE MEAN-FIELD METHOD FOR POWER-LAW DISTRIBUTIONS

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Recently much attention has been paid to the nonextensive canonical distributions: the α -families. Such distributions have been found in many real-world systems such as fully developed turbulence and financial markets. In this paper, a generalized mean-field method to approximate the expectations of the α -families is proposed. We calculate the α' -projection of a probability distribution to find that the computational complexity to approximate the expectations is greatly reduced with a proper choice of the projection-index α' . We apply this method to a simple binary-state system and compare the results with direct numerical calculations.¹

Keywords: Information geometry; generalized statistical mechanics; α -divergence.

1. Introduction

During the last decade, Generalized Statistical Mechanics (GSM) has been intensively studied [Abe & Okamoto, 2001]. Adding one parameter, Tsallis [1988] proposed a generalized version of Shannon entropy, $S_q = -k[1 - \sum_{\mathbf{x}} p^q(\mathbf{x})]/(1 - q)$, where q is the entropic index and $p(\mathbf{x})$ is the microscopic probability of a state \mathbf{x} . As the limit of $q \rightarrow 1$, the ordinary Shannon entropy is derived. Maximization of this entropy under an energy constraint yields the GSM canonical distribution [Tsallis, 1988], i.e.

$p(\mathbf{x}) = (1/Z)[1 - (1 - q)\beta\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x})]^{1/(1-q)}$. GSM describes a large number of important real-world phenomena with this single-parameter generalization such as self-gravitating systems [Taruya & Sakagami, 2002], long-range classical Hamiltonian systems [Latora *et al.*, 1998; Latora *et al.*, 2001; Latora & Tsallis, 2001], fully developed turbulence [Beck, 2001, 2002], financial markets [Ghashghaie *et al.*, 1996], and one-dimensional nonlinear maps [Baldovin & Rovledo, 2002] (see [Abe & Okamoto, 2001] for a summary). The more the importance of

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GSM is recognized, the greater the need for tools to analyze the GSM canonical distribution. Because of the correlations among the variables \mathbf{x} of the GSM canonical distribution, it is computationally hard to elucidate statistical properties of a large-size system. In this respect some methods, for example, the mean-field method and the variational method have been arranged for GSM [Plastino & Tsallis, 1993; Lenzi *et al.*, 1998; Mendes *et al.*, 1999].

On the other hand, the mean-field method is now not only of interest to physicists but also used in the fields of information theory [Kabashima & Saad, 1998] and machine learning [Peterson & Anderson, 1987; Oppor & Winther, 2000]. That is why the mean-field method is intensively studied in the framework of the information geometry [Tanaka, 2000; Bhattacharyya & Keerthi, 2000]. Amari *et al.* proposed the α -projection of the Boltzmann–Gibbs distribution as a generalization of the mean-field method [Amari *et al.*, 2001]. In this paper, however, we apply this method to power-law distributions that are known as α -families in the field of information geometry [Amari & Nagaoka, 2000]. We show that the particular selection of a projection enables us to approximate the expectations of a distribution with less computational complexity compared with the exhaustive exact calculation.

The main purpose of this paper is to compute the expectation $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ of an α -family:

$$p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{Z(\boldsymbol{\theta})} \exp\left(\sum_{\nu=1}^{\tilde{N}} \theta^\nu f_\nu(\mathbf{x})\right), & \alpha = 1 \\ \frac{1}{Z(\boldsymbol{\theta})} \left[\frac{1-\alpha}{2} \sum_{\nu=0}^{\tilde{N}} \theta^\nu f_\nu(\mathbf{x})\right]^{2/(1-\alpha)}, & \alpha \neq 1 \end{cases}, \quad (1)$$

where $\{f_\nu\}_{\nu=0}^{\tilde{N}}$ is a set of linear independent functions of the state vector $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$, $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\theta^\nu\}_{\nu=0}^{\tilde{N}}$ is a coordinate system of the α -family, and $Z(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is the normalization constant.

We assume $f_0 = 1$, $\theta^0 = 2/(1-\alpha)$, and $[(1-\alpha)/2] \sum_{\nu=0}^{\tilde{N}} \theta^\nu f_\nu(\mathbf{x}) > 0$ for all \mathbf{x} throughout this paper for simplicity. The expectations of $p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ are given as

$$\eta_\nu \equiv E_p[f_\nu] = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} f_\nu(\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \quad (2)$$

for $\nu = 1, \dots, \tilde{N}$. When $\sum_{\nu=1}^{\tilde{N}} \theta^\nu f_\nu(\mathbf{x}) = -\beta \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x})$ and $(1-\alpha)/2 = (1-q)$, $p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ of Eq. (1) is the GSM canonical distribution.

Due to the nonlinear terms of $\{f_\nu\}$ in Eq. (1) for $\alpha \neq -1$, it is computationally hard to calculate $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ for large N systems. It takes $O(Nk^N)$ of computation for general α , where k is the number of discrete states that x_i can take. Therefore, we usually apply the mean-field method to approximate $\boldsymbol{\eta}$. In the following, we propose a generalization of the mean-field method, that is the α -projection [Amari & Nagaoka, 2000; Amari *et al.*, 2001] of the α -family.

2. The α -Projections of Power-Law Distributions

Let $\mathbf{x} = \{x_i | x_i \in \{1, \dots, k\}, i = 1, \dots, N\}$ be a state vector, \mathcal{S} be the family of probability distributions on \mathbf{x} , and \mathcal{M} be the family of factorizable probability distributions on \mathbf{x} . A probability distribution on \mathcal{M} is represented as $p_0(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{h}) = \prod_{i=1}^N p_{0i}(x_i; h^i)$, where $\mathbf{h} = \{h^i\}_{i=1}^N$ is a coordinate system of \mathcal{M} . In this section, we approximate $p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) (\in \mathcal{S})$ of Eq. (1) by its α' -projection onto \mathcal{M} .

We will show in the following that a proper selection of the projection-index α' can considerably reduce the computation of the α' -projection of p onto \mathcal{M} [Toyozumi & Aihara, 2003]. Then we will approximate the expectation $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ by $\boldsymbol{\eta}_0 \equiv \{E_{p_0}[f_i]\}_{i=1}^N$. We will discuss the properties of the α' -projection and explain that this method is a one-parameter generalization of the naive mean-field method.

Let us calculate the α' -divergence $D_{\alpha'}$ between p and p_0 to find the α' -projection of p onto \mathcal{M} . Since it is given by $\arg \min_{p_0 \in \mathcal{M}} D_{\alpha'}(p||p_0)$ (See Appendix for properties of α' -projection.), the α' -divergence between p and p_0 is expressed as,

$$D_{\alpha'}(p||p_0) = \frac{4}{1-\alpha'^2} \left[1 - \sum_{\mathbf{x}} p^{(1-\alpha')/2} p_0^{(1+\alpha')/2} \right] = \frac{4}{1-\alpha'^2} \left[1 - e^{-\frac{1-\alpha'}{2}(\psi + \frac{1+\alpha'}{2} G_{\alpha'})} \right], \quad (3)$$

where $\psi = \log Z$ and

$$\frac{1+\alpha'}{2} G_{\alpha'} \equiv -\log Z + \frac{2}{\alpha' - 1} \times \log \sum_{\mathbf{x}} p^{(1-\alpha')/2} p_0^{(1+\alpha')/2}. \quad (4)$$

Note that the second term of (4) is Rényi's G-divergence [Arndt, 2001]. It is easy to check that $G_{\alpha'}$ is a monotonic increasing function of $D_{\alpha'}$ from Eq. (3), therefore $\arg \min_{p_0 \in \mathcal{M}} D_{\alpha'}(p||p_0) = \arg \min_{p_0 \in \mathcal{M}} G_{\alpha'}(p||p_0)$. We minimize $G_{\alpha'}$ instead of $D_{\alpha'}$ hereafter.

Then what α' should we choose to approximate $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ by $\boldsymbol{\eta}_0$? If \mathcal{M} is a 1-autoparallel submanifold of \mathcal{S} , we have to calculate the (-1) -projection of p for the exact expectations. However, the calculation of (-1) -projection is as computationally hard as that of direct calculation [Amari *et al.*, 2001]. Thus we should choose a proper α' taking account of the computational complexity.

Because p is a distribution of the α -family, it is represented as $p^{(1-\alpha)/2} = c_1 \sum_{\nu=0}^{\tilde{N}} \theta^\nu f_\nu + c_2$ with some constants c_1 and c_2 . Suppose we choose α' such that the α' -divergence is a linear function of $p^{(1-\alpha)/2}$, we do not have to deal with any nonlinear functions of $\{f_\nu\}$ to calculate the value of $D_{\alpha'}(p||p_0)$. Because of this reason, we choose $\alpha = \alpha'$ here. In this case, $G_\alpha = -(4/(1-\alpha^2)) \log(((1-\alpha)/2) \sum_{\nu=0}^{\tilde{N}} \theta^\nu \langle f_\nu \rangle_\alpha^0)$, with $\langle f_\nu \rangle_\alpha^0 \equiv \sum_{\mathbf{x}} f_\nu(\mathbf{x}) p_0^{(1+\alpha)/2}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{h})$. If $f_\nu(\mathbf{x})$ ($\nu = 0, 1, \dots, \tilde{N}$) are functions of l variables, it takes $O(\tilde{N}k^l)$ steps to calculate G_α . In addition, we can also calculate

$$\frac{\partial G_\alpha}{\partial h^i} = -\frac{4}{1-\alpha^2} \frac{\sum_{\nu} \theta^\nu \frac{\partial}{\partial h^i} \langle f_\nu \rangle_\alpha^0}{\sum_{\nu} \theta^\nu \langle f_\nu \rangle_\alpha^0} \quad (5)$$

for $i = 1, \dots, N$ at the same orders. One can easily find \mathbf{h} that gives a local minimum of G_α by applying an optimization algorithm.

In this way, this approximation greatly reduces the number of operations for systems with large N , while the exact calculation of $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ requires $O(Nk^N)$ operations in general.

3. Application to a Binary-State Model

In this section we calculate the α -projection of a binary-state distribution: the distribution of Eq. (1) with $\mathbf{x} = \{x_i | x_i \in \{+1, -1\}, i = 1, \dots, N\}$ and $\sum_{\nu=1}^{\tilde{N}} \theta^\nu f_\nu(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j>i} \theta^{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^N \theta^i x_i$. Here we assume that $\min_{\mathbf{x}} [((1-\alpha)/2) \sum_{\nu} \theta^\nu f_\nu] = c (> 0)$. We approximate p by a p_0 that minimizes the α -divergence between them. Because \mathbf{x} is a binary vector here, p_0 is generally represented in

the following exponential form:

$$p_0 = \frac{1}{Z_0(\mathbf{h})} \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^N h^i x_i\right). \quad (6)$$

Let us introduce the following expectations,

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_{0\nu}^{(\alpha)} &\equiv \sum_{\mathbf{x}} f_\nu(\mathbf{x}) p_0\left(\mathbf{x}; \frac{1+\alpha}{2} \mathbf{h}\right) \\ &= \begin{cases} \tanh\left(\frac{1+\alpha}{2} h^i\right) \tanh\left(\frac{1+\alpha}{2} h^j\right), & f_\nu = x_i x_j \\ \tanh\left(\frac{1+\alpha}{2} h^i\right), & f_\nu = x_i \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

for $\nu = 1, \dots, \tilde{N}$. Then we find the gradient of Eq. (5) to be

$$\frac{\partial G_\alpha}{\partial h^i} = \frac{2}{1-\alpha} \left[\eta_{0i} - \eta_{0i}^{(\alpha)} - g_{0ii}^{(\alpha)} \frac{\sum_{j=1}^N \theta^{ij} \eta_{0j}^{(\alpha)} + \theta^i}{\sum_{\nu=1}^{\tilde{N}} \theta^\nu \eta_{0\nu}^{(\alpha)}} \right] \quad (8)$$

with $g_{0ii}^{(\alpha)} = [1 - (\eta_{0i}^{(\alpha)})^2]$. We employ the gradient descent algorithm to search for a local minimum of G_α (Algorithm A in Table 1).

As the stationary condition of Algorithm A for $\alpha \rightarrow 1$, we can derive the usual self-consistent equations of the naive mean-field method: $\eta_i = \tanh(\sum_j \theta^{ij} \eta_j + \theta^i)$ for $i = 1, \dots, N$. The reason is that the naive mean-field equation is derived from the saddle point condition of the 1-divergence. Therefore, in this case, the α -projection is a generalization of the naive mean-field method for α -families.

3.1. Numerical results

In this section we apply the method introduced in Sec. 3 to a system with small N and compare

Table 1. Algorithm A.

1. Initialize \mathbf{h} to small random values.
2. Calculate $\eta_{0\nu}^{(\alpha)}$, $g_{0i\nu}^{(\alpha)}$, and $\partial G_\alpha / \partial h^i$.
3. Update \mathbf{h} according to
$h_{\text{new}}^i = h_{\text{old}}^i - \delta \frac{\partial G_\alpha}{\partial h^i}$,
where δ is a step size.
4. Return to step 2; stop after finite steps n^* .

the results with direct numerical calculations. We also compare the results with another method that could be applied: the mean-field approximation of the Callen identity [Sarmiento, 1995].

Let us first derive the mean-field approximation of the Callen identity here. The single-site Callen identity is $\eta_i = E_p[(p(x_i = 1, \mathbf{x}_{\setminus i}) - p(x_i = -1, \mathbf{x}_{\setminus i})) / (p(x_i = 1, \mathbf{x}_{\setminus i}) + p(x_i = -1, \mathbf{x}_{\setminus i}))]$, where $\mathbf{x}_{\setminus i} \equiv \{x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_N\}$. Employing the naive mean-field approximation of the above equation, we obtain the self-consistent equations for η :

$$\eta_i \approx \frac{p(x_i = 1, \boldsymbol{\eta}_{\setminus i}) - p(x_i = -1, \boldsymbol{\eta}_{\setminus i})}{p(x_i = 1, \boldsymbol{\eta}_{\setminus i}) + p(x_i = -1, \boldsymbol{\eta}_{\setminus i})}, \quad (9)$$

for all i . We can compute the approximation of η by calculating Eq. (9) repeatedly (Algorithm B in Table 2).

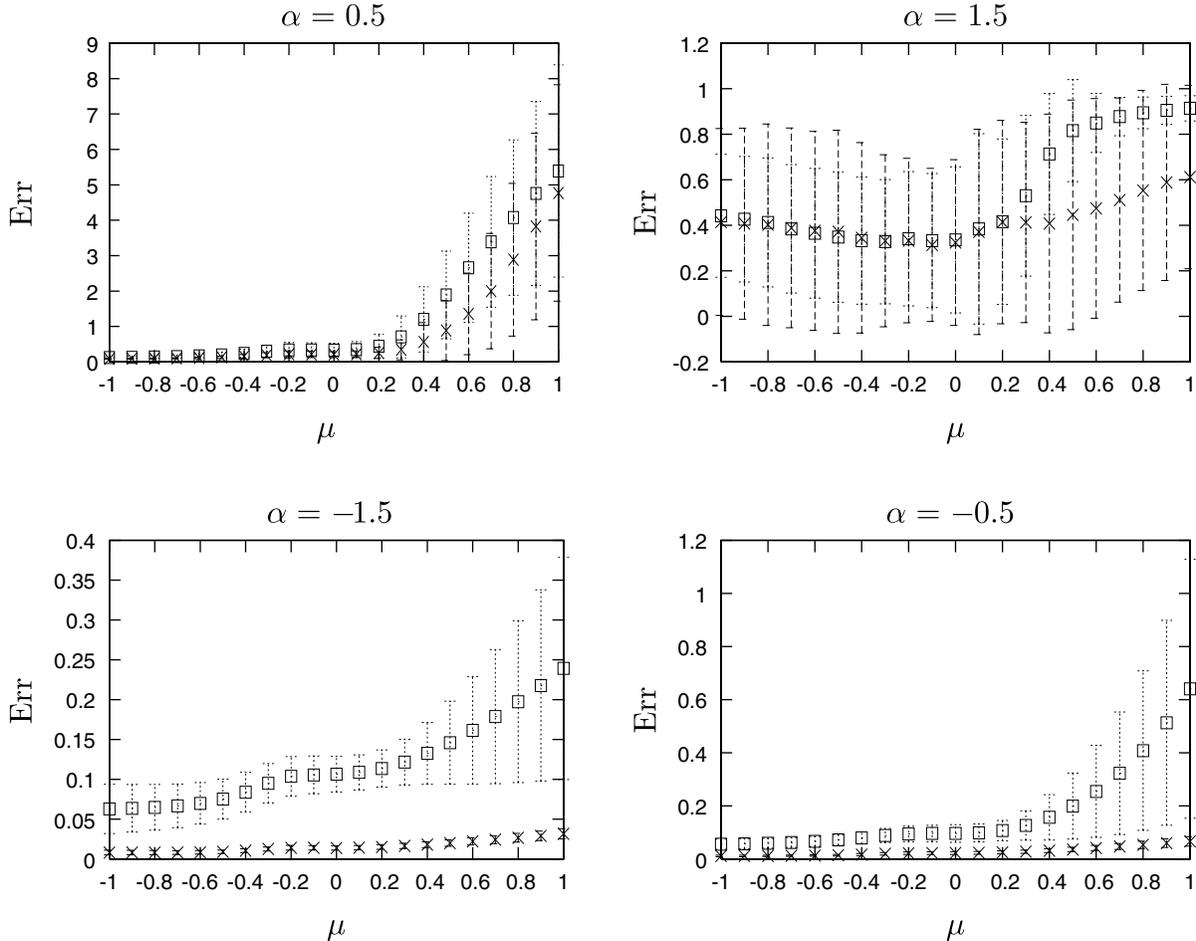
Note that Algorithm B also has the same stationary condition as the naive mean-field method when $\alpha \rightarrow 1$. Therefore for $\alpha \approx 1$, their differences

Table 2. Algorithm B.

-
1. Initialize $\boldsymbol{\eta}_0$ to small random values.
 2. Update $\boldsymbol{\eta}_0$ using Eq. (9).
 3. Return to step 2; stop after finite steps n^{**} .
-

only come from the optimization algorithms that we apply.

Figure 1 shows the average of normalized error: $\text{Err} \equiv (\sum_{i=1}^N |\eta_i - \eta_{0i}| / \sum_{i=1}^N |\eta_i|)$ and its standard deviation obtained from Algorithms A (cross) and B (square) for $N = 10$ and $c = 1$. $\{\theta^{ij}\}$ and $\{\theta^i\}$ are generated from the Gauss distributions $\mathcal{N}(\mu, 0.5)$ and $\mathcal{N}(0.0, 1.0)$, respectively. We generate 100 samples here. Since it is generally difficult to find the step size δ of Algorithm A, we repeat this algorithm five times over different $\delta = \{1.0, 6.0, 11.0\}$ and choose the $\boldsymbol{\eta}_0$ that minimizes D_α after $n^* = 30$ iterative steps. We carry out just one series ($n^{**} = 90$ iterative steps) for Algorithm B. We show in Fig. 1 that Algorithm A gives better results for every α

Fig. 1. The averaged normalized errors versus the mean of coupling coefficient μ .

that are shown here. If $\alpha = -1$, D_α have a unique minimum at which $\boldsymbol{\eta} = \boldsymbol{\eta}_0$ holds [Amari *et al.*, 2001]. Thus Algorithm A finds the exact expectations in this case, with a sufficiently small step size δ and many iterations. On the other hand, since the α -divergence of Eq. (3) may take extremely large values at $p \approx 0$ (resp. $p_0 \approx 0$) for $\alpha > 1$ (resp. $\alpha < -1$), it is possible that Algorithm A extracts poor results in these cases.

4. The Choice of Projections

What is important for the approximation of Sec. 2 is a proper choice of the projection. We have previously chosen the projection-index α' that most alleviate the computational cost to approximate $\boldsymbol{\eta}$. As we will see, there is a tradeoff between the computational complexity and the accuracy of the approximation.

If $p(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$ is a distribution of the 1-family, i.e. $\alpha = 1$, the 1-projection is computationally the easiest, while the (-1) -projection yields the exact expectations [Amari *et al.*, 2001]. As it is generally difficult to estimate to what extent the choice of the projection-index affects the approximation of $\boldsymbol{\eta}$, we take here the simplest model to compare several projections.

Now we consider the α -family ($|\alpha| < 1$) of Eq. (1) with $\mathbf{x} = \{x_i | x_i \in \{+1, -1\}, i = 1, 2\}$ and $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}) = \theta^{12}x_1x_2 + \theta^1x_1 + \theta^2x_2$, where $\theta^{12} = (2/(1-\alpha))J$ and $\theta^1 = \theta^2 = (2/(1-\alpha))H$.

First, a direct calculation gives the expectation as in Eq. (13).

$$\eta = \frac{[1 + 2H + J]^{2/(1-\alpha)} - [1 - 2H + J]^{2/(1-\alpha)}}{[1 + 2H + J]^{2/(1-\alpha)} + 2[1 - J]^{2/(1-\alpha)} + [1 - 2H + J]^{2/(1-\alpha)}}, \quad (13)$$

$$\eta_{\text{MF}} = \frac{[1 + H(\eta_{\text{MF}} + 1) + J\eta_{\text{MF}}]^{2/(1-\alpha)} - [1 + H(\eta_{\text{MF}} - 1) - J\eta_{\text{MF}}]^{2/(1-\alpha)}}{[1 + H(\eta_{\text{MF}} + 1) + J\eta_{\text{MF}}]^{2/(1-\alpha)} + [1 + H(\eta_{\text{MF}} - 1) - J\eta_{\text{MF}}]^{2/(1-\alpha)}}, \quad (14)$$

$$G_{\alpha'_n} = -\frac{4}{1-\alpha'^2} \left[\log(c_n + 2H_n\eta_0^{(\alpha')} + J_n(\eta_0^{(\alpha')})^2) - (1+\alpha') \log(2 \cosh h) + 2 \log \left(2 \cosh \frac{1+\alpha'}{2} h \right) \right]. \quad (15)$$

When $\alpha \approx 1$, a larger n provides a better approximation of $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ (as long as \mathcal{M} is a 1-autoparallel submanifold of \mathcal{S}). Thus in this case there is a tradeoff between the computational complexity and the precision of the approximation. The method of the α' -projection provides a parameter α' that controls this tradeoff.

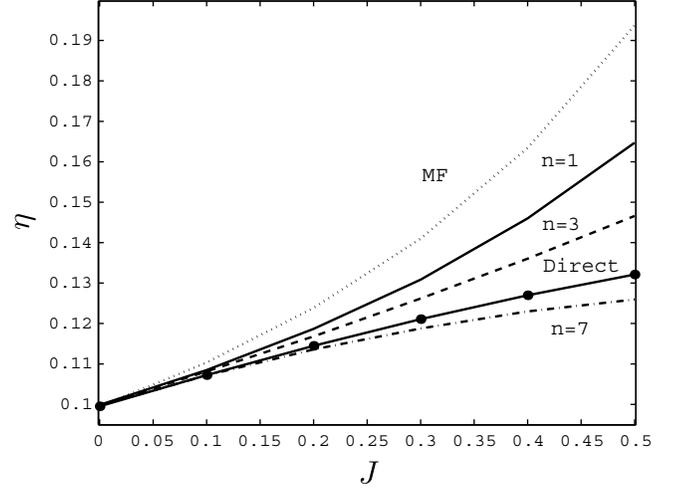


Fig. 2. Approximations of η versus J .

Second, the naive mean-field approximation of Callen identity, i.e. Eq. (9), is calculated to be Eq. (14).

Finally, for an integer n and $\alpha'_n = 1 - (1 - \alpha)n$, we can also calculate the $G_{\alpha'_n}$ of Eq. (4) to be Eq. (15), where $\eta_0^{(\alpha')} = \tanh(((1 + \alpha')/2)h)$, $(c_1, H_1, J_1) = (1, H, J)$, and

$$c_n = c_{n-1} + 2HH_{n-1} + JJ_{n-1}, \quad (10)$$

$$H_n = H(c_{n-1} + J_{n-1}) + (1 + J)H_{n-1}, \quad (11)$$

$$J_n = J_{n-1} + c_{n-1}J + 2HH_{n-1}, \quad (12)$$

for $n > 2$; we choose the η_0 that minimizes Eq. (15).

In Fig. 2 we show the expectations derived from Eq. (13) (Direct), from Eq. (14) (MF), and from Eq. (15) with $n = \{1, 3, 7\}$ for $\alpha = 0.6$ and $H = 0.1$. Since $\alpha'_5 = -1$ in this case, the α'_n -projection gives a good approximation when $n \approx 5$.

5. Conclusion

We have shown that it is possible to realize a generalization of the mean-field method by calculating the α -projection of power-law distributions. The number of operations needed to approximate the

expectations is greatly reduced with a proper choice of the projection. We have applied this method to a simple binary-state α -family and compared the method with the mean-field approximation of the Callen identity. As a result of numerical calculations, the generalized mean-field method provides less errors for the expectations compared with the other method, especially when it is applied to α -families with $\alpha \approx -1$.

Although we have only considered factorizable distributions to approximate the true distribution, it is possible to obtain better approximation by considering a wider class of distributions. Since there are a lot of useful techniques to deal with such structured distributions in the field of information theory, this is an important problem for future study.

As α -families are attracting more and more attention in fields such as fully developed turbulence, economics and self-organized criticality, it is important to study the applications of this method to such complex systems.

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Appendix

A.1. Information Geometry

In this Appendix, we briefly review the framework of information geometry. Information geometry describes the way to introduce a geometrical

structure into a space of probability distributions once a divergence is given [Amari & Nagaoka, 2000]. Let $\mathcal{S} = \{p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})\}$ be an α -family. The α -divergence between two probability distributions $p = p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ and $p' = p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}')$ is defined as

$$D_\alpha(p||p') \equiv \frac{4}{1-\alpha^2} \left[1 - \sum_{\mathbf{x}} p^{(1-\alpha)/2} p'^{(1+\alpha)/2} \right] \quad (\text{A.1})$$

for $\alpha \neq \pm 1$, and $D_{\pm 1}(p||p') \equiv \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow \pm 1} D_\alpha(p||p')$ for $\alpha = \pm 1$. Note that D_{-1} is equivalent to the well-known Kullback–Leibler divergence. The non-negative property of the α -divergence, $D_\alpha(p||p') \geq 0$, is directly derived from Jensen’s inequality, where the equality holds if and only if $p = p'$. It is not symmetric except for $\alpha = 0$ and satisfies $D_\alpha(p||p') = D_{-\alpha}(p'||p)$. The α -divergence is a distance-like measure representing the difference between two probability distributions.

When p and p' are close enough, i.e. $\boldsymbol{\theta}' = \boldsymbol{\theta} + d\boldsymbol{\theta}$, we can expand the α -divergence between these points as $D_\alpha(p(\boldsymbol{\theta})||p(\boldsymbol{\theta} + d\boldsymbol{\theta})) = (1/2) \sum_{\nu, \lambda} g_{\nu\lambda}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) d\theta^\nu d\theta^\lambda + o((d\boldsymbol{\theta})^2)$, where the

Fisher metric $g_{\nu\lambda}|_p \equiv \lim_{p' \rightarrow p} \partial_\nu \partial_\lambda D_\alpha(p||p')$. $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is the coordinate system of \mathcal{S} and $\partial_\nu \equiv (\partial/\partial\theta^\nu)$ is the natural basis of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. Note that $[g_{\nu\lambda}]$ is a symmetric and positive definite matrix, invariant to the value of α [Amari & Nagaoka, 2000]. We define the inner product of two basis at $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ as $\langle \partial_\nu, \partial_\lambda \rangle \equiv g_{\nu\lambda}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$. Then we can show the following two theorems (see [Amari & Nagaoka, 2000] for proofs):

Theorem 1. *Let \mathcal{S} be an α -family, p , q and r be three points in \mathcal{S} , γ_1 be an α -geodesic connecting p and q and γ_2 be an $(-\alpha)$ -geodesic connecting q and r in \mathcal{S} . If the curves γ_1 and γ_2 are orthogonal at the intersection q , then the following equality holds: $D_\alpha(p||r) = D_\alpha(p||q) + D_\alpha(q||r) - ((1-\alpha^2)/4)D_\alpha(p||q)D_\alpha(q||r)$.*

Theorem 2. *Let \mathcal{S} be an α -family, \mathcal{M} a submanifold of \mathcal{S} , and p a point in \mathcal{S} . A necessary and sufficient condition for a point $q \in \mathcal{M}$ to be a stationary point of the function $r \mapsto D_\alpha(p||r)$ restricted on \mathcal{M} is that the α -geodesic connecting p and q to be orthogonal to \mathcal{M} at q . We call such q as an α -projection of p onto \mathcal{M} .*