An Inverse Power Method for Nonlinear Eigenproblems with Applications in 1-Spectral Clustering and Sparse PCA

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Abstract

Many problems in machine learning and statistics can be formulated as (generalized) eigenproblems. In terms of the associated optimization problem, computing linear eigenvectors amounts to finding critical points of a quadratic function subject to quadratic constraints. In this paper we show that a certain class of constrained optimization problems with nonquadratic objective and constraints can be understood as *nonlinear eigenproblems*. We derive a generalization of the inverse power method which is guaranteed to converge to a nonlinear eigenvector. We apply the inverse power method to 1-spectral clustering and sparse PCA which can naturally be formulated as nonlinear eigenproblems. In both applications we achieve state-of-the-art results in terms of solution quality and runtime. Moving beyond the standard eigenproblem should be useful also in many other applications and our inverse power method can be easily adapted to new problems.

1   Introduction

Eigenvalue problems associated to a symmetric and positive semi-definite matrix are quite abundant in machine learning and statistics. However, considering the eigenproblem from a variational point of view using Courant-Fischer-theory, the objective is a ratio of quadratic functions, which is quite restrictive from a modeling perspective. We show in this paper that using a ratio of p-homogeneous functions leads quite naturally to a *nonlinear* eigenvalue problem, associated to a certain nonlinear operator. Clearly, such a generalization is only interesting if certain properties of the standard problem are preserved and efficient algorithms for the computation of nonlinear eigenvectors are available. In this paper we present an efficient generalization of the inverse power method (IPM) to nonlinear eigenvalue problems and study the relation to the standard problem. While our IPM is a general purpose method, we show for two unsupervised learning problems that it can be easily adapted to a particular application.

The first application is spectral clustering [20]. In prior work [5] we proposed p-spectral clustering based on the graph p-Laplacian, a nonlinear operator on graphs which reduces to the standard graph Laplacian for $p = 2$. For p close to one, we obtained much better cuts than standard spectral clustering, at the cost of higher runtime. Using the new IPM, we efficiently compute eigenvectors of the 1-Laplacian for 1-spectral clustering. Similar to the recent work of [19], we improve considerably compared to [5] both in terms of runtime and the achieved Cheeger cuts. However, opposed to the suggested method in [19] our IPM is guaranteed to converge to an eigenvector of the 1-Laplacian.

The second application is sparse Principal Component Analysis (PCA). The motivation for sparse PCA is that the largest PCA component is difficult to interpret as usually all components are nonzero. In order to allow a direct interpretation it is therefore desirable to have only a few features with nonzero components but which still explain most of the variance. This kind of trade-off has been

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widely studied in recent years, see [15] and references therein. We show that also sparse PCA has a natural formulation as a nonlinear eigenvalue problem and can be efficiently solved with the IPM.

All proofs had to be omitted due to space restrictions and can be found in the supplementary material.

2 Nonlinear Eigenproblems

The standard eigenproblem for a symmetric matric $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is of the form

$$Af - \lambda f = 0, \tag{1}$$

where $f \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. It is a well-known result from linear algebra that for symmetric matrices A, the eigenvectors of A can be characterized as critical points of the functional

$$F_{\text{Standard}}(f) = \frac{\langle f, Af \rangle}{\|f\|_2^2}. \tag{2}$$

The eigenvectors of A can be computed using the Courant-Fischer Min-Max principle. While the ratio of quadratic functions is useful in several applications, it is a severe modeling restriction. This restriction however can be overcome using nonlinear eigenproblems. In this paper we consider functionals F of the form

$$F(f) = \frac{R(f)}{S(f)}, \tag{3}$$

where with $\mathbb{R}_+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \,|\, x \geq 0\}$ we assume $R : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}_+$, $S : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}_+$ to be convex, Lipschitz continuous, even and positively p-homogeneous[1] with $p \geq 1$. Moreover, we assume that $S(f) = 0$ if and only if $f = 0$. The condition that R and S are p-homogeneous and even will imply for any eigenvector v that also αv for $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ is an eigenvector. It is easy to see that the functional of the standard eigenvalue problem in Equation (2) is a special case of the general functional in (3).

To gain some intuition, let us first consider the case where R and S are differentiable. Then it holds for every critical point f^* of F,

$$\nabla F(f^*) = 0 \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad \nabla R(f^*) - \frac{R(f^*)}{S(f^*)} \cdot \nabla S(f^*) = 0 \,.$$

Let $r, s : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be the operators defined as $r(f) = \nabla R(f)$, $s(f) = \nabla S(f)$ and $\lambda^* = \frac{R(f^*)}{S(f^*)}$, we see that every critical point f^* of F satisfies the *nonlinear eigenproblem*

$$r(f^*) - \lambda^* s(f^*) = 0, \tag{4}$$

which is in general a system of nonlinear equations, as r and s are nonlinear operators. If R and S are both quadratic, r and s are linear operators and one gets back the standard eigenproblem (1).

Before we proceed to the general nondifferentiable case, we have to introduce some important concepts from nonsmooth analysis. Note that F is in general nonconvex and nondifferentiable. In the following we denote by $\partial F(f)$ the *generalized gradient* of F at f according to Clarke [9],

$$\partial F(f) = \{\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n \,\big|\, F^0(f, v) \geq \langle \xi, v \rangle, \quad \text{for all } v \in \mathbb{R}^n\},$$

where $F^0(f, v) = \lim_{g \to f, \, t \to 0} \sup \frac{F(g + tv) - F(g)}{t}$. In the case where F is convex, ∂F is the subdifferential of F and $F^0(f, v)$ the directional derivative for each $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$. A characterization of critical points of nonsmooth functionals is as follows.

Definition 2.1 ([7]) *A point $f \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a critical point of F, if $0 \in \partial F$.*

This generalizes the well-known fact that the gradient of a differentiable function vanishes at a critical point. We now show that the nonlinear eigenproblem (4) is a necessary condition for a critical point and in some cases even sufficient. A useful tool is the generalized Euler identity.

Theorem 2.1 ([21]) *Let $R : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be a positively p-homogeneous and convex continuous function. Then, for each $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $r^* \in \partial R(x)$ it holds that $\langle x, r^* \rangle = p\,R(x)$.*

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[1] A function $G : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is positively homogeneous of degree p if $G(\gamma x) = \gamma^p G(x)$ for all $\gamma \geq 0$.

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The next theorem characterizes the relation between nonlinear eigenvectors and critical points of F.

Theorem 2.2 *Suppose that R, S fulfill the stated conditions. Then a necessary condition for f^* being a critical point of F is*

$$0 \in \partial R(f^*) - \lambda^* \partial S(f^*), \qquad where \qquad \lambda^* = \frac{R(f^*)}{S(f^*)}. \tag{5}$$

If S is continuously differentiable at f^*, then this is also sufficient.

Finally, the definition of the associated nonlinear operators in the nonsmooth case is a bit tricky as r and s can be set-valued. However, as we assume R and S to be Lipschitz, the set where R and S are nondifferentiable has measure zero and thus r and s are single-valued almost everywhere.

3 The inverse power method for nonlinear Eigenproblems

A standard technique to obtain the smallest eigenvalue of a positive semi-definite symmetric matrix A is the inverse power method [12]. Its main building block is the fact that the iterative scheme

$$A f^{k+1} = f^k \tag{6}$$

converges to the smallest eigenvector of A. Transforming (6) into the optimization problem

$$f^{k+1} = \arg\min_u \frac{1}{2} \langle u, A\, u \rangle - \langle u, f^k \rangle \tag{7}$$

is the motivation for the general IPM. The direct generalization tries to solve

$$0 \in r(f^{k+1}) - s(f^k) \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad f^{k+1} = \arg\min_u R(u) - \langle u, s(f^k) \rangle, \tag{8}$$

where $r(f) \in \partial R(f)$ and $s(f) \in \partial S(f)$. For $p > 1$ this leads directly to Algorithm 2, however for $p = 1$ the direct generalization fails. In particular, the ball constraint has to be introduced in Algorithm 1 as the objective in the optimization problem (8) is otherwise unbounded from below. (Note that the 2-norm is only chosen for algorithmic convenience). Moreover, the introduction of λ_k in Algorithm 1 is necessary to guarantee descent whereas in Algorithm 2 it would just yield a rescaled solution of the problem in the inner loop (called inner problem in the following).

For both methods we show convergence to a solution of (4), which by Theorem 2.2 is a necessary condition for a critical point of F and often also sufficient. Interestingly, both applications are naturally formulated as 1-homogeneous problems so that we use in both cases Algorithm 1. Nevertheless, we state the second algorithm for completeness. Note that we cannot guarantee convergence to the smallest eigenvector even though our experiments suggest that we often do so. However, as the method is fast one can afford to run it multiple times with different initializations and use the eigenvector with smallest eigenvalue.

Algorithm 1 Computing a nonlinear eigenvector for convex positively p-homogeneous functions R and S with $p = 1$

1: **Initialization:** $f^0 = $ random with $\left\| f^0 \right\| = 1$, $\lambda^0 = F(f^0)$
2: **repeat**
3:    $f^{k+1} = \arg\min_{\|u\|_2 \leq 1} \left\{ R(u) - \lambda^k \langle u, s(f^k) \rangle \right\}$ where $s(f^k) \in \partial S(f^k)$
4:    $\lambda^{k+1} = R(f^{k+1})/S(f^{k+1})$
5: **until** $\frac{|\lambda^{k+1} - \lambda^k|}{\lambda^k} < \epsilon$
6: **Output:** eigenvalue λ^{k+1} and eigenvector f^{k+1}.

The inner optimization problem is convex for both algorithms. In turns out that both for 1-spectral clustering and sparse PCA the inner problem can be solved very efficiently, for sparse PCA it has even a closed form solution. While we do not yet have results about convergence speed, empirical observation shows that one usually converges quite quickly to an eigenvector.

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Algorithm 2 Computing a nonlinear eigenvector for convex positively p-homogeneous functions R and S with $p > 1$

1: **Initialization:** $f^0 = $ random, $\lambda^0 = F(f^0)$
2: **repeat**
3:     $g^{k+1} = \underset{u}{\arg\min} \left\{ R(u) - \langle u, s(f^k) \rangle \right\}$ where $s(f^k) \in \partial S(f^k)$
4:     $f^{k+1} = g^{k+1}/S(g^{k+1})^{1/p}$
5:     $\lambda^{k+1} = R(f^{k+1})/S(f^{k+1})$
6: **until** $\frac{|\lambda^{k+1} - \lambda^k|}{\lambda^k} < \epsilon$
7: **Output:** eigenvalue λ^{k+1} and eigenvector f^{k+1}.

To our best knowledge both suggested methods have not been considered before. In [4] they propose an inverse power method specially tailored towards the continuous p-Laplacian for $p > 1$, which can be seen as a special case of Algorithm 2. In [15] a generalized power method has been proposed which will be discussed in Section 5. Finally, both methods can be easily adapted to compute the largest nonlinear eigenvalue, which however we have to omit due to space constraints.

Lemma 3.1 *The sequences f^k produced by Alg. 1 and 2 satisfy $F(f^k) > F(f^{k+1})$ for all $k \geq 0$ or the sequences terminate.*

Theorem 3.1 *The sequences f^k produced by Algorithms 1 and 2 converge to an eigenvector f^* with eigenvalue $\lambda^* \in \left[0, F(f^0)\right]$ in the sense that it solves the nonlinear eigenproblem (5). If S is continuously differentiable at f^*, then F has a critical point at f^*.*

Practical implementation: By the proof of Lemma 3.1, descent in F is not only guaranteed for the optimal solution of the inner problem, but for any vector u which has inner objective value $\Phi_{f^k}(u) < 0 = \Phi_{f^k}(f^k)$ for Alg. 1 and $\Psi_{f^k}(u) < \Psi_{f^k}(F(f^k)^{\frac{1}{1-p}} f^k)$ in the case of Alg. 2. This has two important practical implications. First, for the convergence of the IPM, it is sufficient to use a vector u satisfying the above conditions instead of the optimal solution of the inner problem. In particular, in an early stage where one is far away from the limit, it makes no sense to invest much effort to solve the inner problem accurately. Second, if the inner problem is solved by a descent method, a good initialization for the inner problem at step $k + 1$ is given by f^k in the case of Alg. 1 and $F(f^k)^{\frac{1}{1-p}} f^k$ in the case of Alg. 2 as descent in F is guaranteed after one step.

4   Application 1: 1-spectral clustering and Cheeger cuts

Spectral clustering is a graph-based clustering method (see [20] for an overview) based on a relaxation of the NP-hard problem of finding the optimal balanced cut of an undirected graph. The spectral relaxation has as its solution the second eigenvector of the graph Laplacian and the final partition is found by optimal thresholding. While usually spectral clustering is understood as relaxation of the so called ratio/normalized cut, it can be equally seen as relaxation of the ratio/normalized Cheeger cut, see [5]. Given a weighted undirected graph with vertex set V and weight matrix W, the ratio Cheeger cut (RCC) of a partition $(C, \overline{C})$, where $C \subset V$ and $\overline{C} = V \backslash C$, is defined as

$$\mathrm{RCC}(C, \overline{C}) := \frac{\mathrm{cut}(C, \overline{C})}{\min\{|C|, |\overline{C}|\}}, \qquad \text{where} \qquad \mathrm{cut}(A, B) = \sum_{i \in A, j \in B} w_{ij},$$

where we assume in the following that the graph is connected. Due to limited space the normalized version is omitted, but the proposed IPM can be adapted to this case. In [5] we proposed p-spectral clustering, a generalization of spectral clustering based on the second eigenvector of the nonlinear graph p-Laplacian (the graph Laplacian is recovered for $p = 2$). The main motivation was the relation between the optimal Cheeger cut $h_{\mathrm{RCC}} = \min_{C \subset V} \mathrm{RCC}(C, \overline{C})$ and the Cheeger cut h^*_{RCC} obtained by optimal thresholding the second eigenvector of the p-Laplacian, see [5, 8],

$$\forall p > 1, \qquad \frac{h_{\mathrm{RCC}}}{\max_{i \in V} d_i} \leq \frac{h^*_{\mathrm{RCC}}}{\max_{i \in V} d_i} \leq p \left(\frac{h_{\mathrm{RCC}}}{\max_{i \in V} d_i} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}},$$

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where $d_i = \sum_{i \in V} w_{ij}$ denotes the degree of vertex i. While the inequality is quite loose for spectral clustering ($p = 2$), it becomes tight for $p \to 1$. Indeed in [5] much better cuts than standard spectral clustering were obtained, at the expense of higher runtime. In [19] the idea was taken up and they considered directly the variational characterization of the ratio Cheeger cut, see also [8],

$$h_{\mathrm{RCC}} = \min_{f \text{ nonconstant}} \frac{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n w_{ij} |f_i - f_j|}{\|f - \mathrm{median}(f)\mathbf{1}\|_1} = \min_{\substack{f \text{ nonconstant} \\ \mathrm{median(f)}=0}} \frac{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n w_{ij} |f_i - f_j|}{\|f\|_1}. \quad (9)$$

In [19] they proposed a minimization scheme based on the Split Bregman method [11]. Their method produces comparable cuts to the ones in [5], while being computationally much more efficient. However, they could not provide any convergence guarantee about their method.

In this paper we consider the functional associated to the 1-Laplacian Δ_1,

$$F_1(f) = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n w_{ij} |f_i - f_j|}{\|f\|_1} = \frac{\langle f, \Delta_1 f \rangle}{\|f\|_1}, \quad (10)$$

where

$$(\Delta_1 f)_i = \Big\{ \sum_{j=1}^n w_{ij} u_{ij} \,|\, u_{ij} = -u_{ji}, u_{ij} \in \mathrm{sign}(f_i - f_j) \Big\} \text{ and } \mathrm{sign}(x) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} -1, & x < 0, \\ [-1,1], & x = 0, \\ 1, & x > 0. \end{array} \right.$$

and study its associated nonlinear eigenproblem $0 \in \Delta_1 f - \lambda \, \mathrm{sign}(f)$.

Proposition 4.1 *Any non-constant eigenvector f^* of the 1-Laplacian has median zero. Moreover, let λ_2 be the second eigenvalue of the 1-Laplacian, then if G is connected it holds $\lambda_2 = h_{\mathrm{RCC}}$.*

For the computation of the second eigenvector we have to modify the IPM which is discussed in the next section.

4.1 Modification of the IPM for computing the second eigenvector of the 1-Laplacian

The direct minimization of (10) would be compatible with the IPM, but the global minimizer is the first eigenvector which is constant. For computing the second eigenvector note that, unlike in the case $p = 2$, we cannot simply project on the space orthogonal to the constant eigenvector, since mutual orthogonality of the eigenvectors does not hold in the nonlinear case.

Algorithm 3 is a modification of Algorithm 1 which computes a nonconstant eigenvector of the 1-Laplacian. The notation $|f_+^{k+1}|, |f_-^{k+1}|$ and $|f_0^{k+1}|$ refers to the cardinality of positive, negative and zero elements, respectively. Note that Algorithm 1 requires in each step the computation of *some* subgradient $s(f^k) \in \partial S(f^k)$, whereas in Algorithm 3 the subgradient v^k has to satisfy $\langle v^k, \mathbf{1} \rangle = 0$. This condition ensures that the inner objective is invariant under addition of a constant and thus not affected by the subtraction of the median. Opposite to [19] we can prove convergence to a nonconstant eigenvector of the 1-Laplacian. However, we cannot guarantee convergence to the *second* eigenvector. Thus we recommend to use multiple random initializations and use the result which achieves the best ratio Cheeger cut.

Theorem 4.1 *The sequence f^k produced by Algorithm 3 converges to an eigenvector f^* of the 1-Laplacian with eigenvalue $\lambda^* \in \big[h_{\mathrm{RCC}}, F_1(f^0)\big]$. Furthermore, $F_1(f^k) > F_1(f^{k+1})$ for all $k \geq 0$ or the sequence terminates.*

4.2 Quality guarantee for 1-spectral clustering

Even though we cannot guarantee that we obtain the optimal ratio Cheeger cut, we can guarantee that 1-spectral clustering always leads to a ratio Cheeger cut at least as good as the one found by standard spectral clustering. Let $(C_f^*, \overline{C_f^*})$ be the partition of V obtained by optimal thresholding of f, where $C_f^* = \arg \min_t \mathrm{RCC}(C_f^t, \overline{C_f^t})$, and for $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $C_f^t = \{i \in V \,|\, f_i > t\}$. Furthermore, $\mathbf{1}_C$ denotes the vector which is 1 on C and 0 else.

Lemma 4.1 *Let $C, \overline{C}$ be a partitioning of the vertex set V, and assume that $|C| \leq |\overline{C}|$. Then for any vector $f \in \mathbb{R}^n$ of the form $f = \alpha \mathbf{1}_C$, where $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, it holds that $F_1(f) = \mathrm{RCC}(C, \overline{C})$.*

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Algorithm 3 Computing a nonconstant 1-eigenvector of the graph 1-Laplacian

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1: **Input:** weight matrix W
2: **Initialization:** nonconstant f^0 with $\mathrm{median}(f^0) = 0$ and $\|f^0\|_1 = 1$, accuracy ϵ
3: **repeat**
4: $\quad g^{k+1} = \underset{\|f\|_2^2 \leq 1}{\arg\min} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n w_{ij} |f_i - f_j| - \lambda^k \langle f, v^k \rangle \right\}$
5: $\quad f^{k+1} = g^{k+1} - \mathrm{median}\left(g^{k+1}\right)$
6: $\quad v_i^{k+1} = \begin{cases} \mathrm{sign}(f_i^{k+1}), & \text{if } f_i^{k+1} \neq 0, \\ -\frac{|f_+^{k+1}| - |f_-^{k+1}|}{|f_0^{k+1}|}, & \text{if } f_i^{k+1} = 0. \end{cases}$,
7: $\quad \lambda^{k+1} = F_1(f^{k+1})$
8: **until** $\frac{|\lambda^{k+1} - \lambda^k|}{\lambda^k} < \epsilon$

Lemma 4.2 *Let $f \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $\mathrm{median}(f) = 0$, and $C = \arg\min\{|C_f^*|, |\overline{C_f^*}|\}$. Then the vector $f^* = \mathbf{1}_C$ satisfies $F_1(f) \geq F_1(f^*)$.*

Theorem 4.2 *Let u denote the second eigenvector of the standard graph Laplacian, and f denote the result of Algorithm 3 after initializing with the vector $\frac{1}{|C|} \mathbf{1}_C$, where $C = \arg\min\{|C_u^*|, |\overline{C_u^*}|\}$. Then $\mathrm{RCC}(C_u^*, \overline{C_u^*}) \geq \mathrm{RCC}(C_f^*, \overline{C_f^*})$.*

4.3 Solution of the inner problem

The inner problem is convex, thus a solution can be computed by any standard method for solving convex nonsmooth programs, e.g. subgradient methods [3]. However, in this particular case we can exploit the structure of the problem and use the equivalent dual formulation of the inner problem.

Lemma 4.3 *Let $E \subset V \times V$ denote the set of edges and $A : \mathbb{R}^E \to \mathbb{R}^V$ be defined as $(A\alpha)_i = \sum_{j \,|\, (i,j) \in E} w_{ij} \alpha_{ij}$. The inner problem is equivalent to*

$$\min_{\{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^E \,|\, \|\alpha\|_\infty \leq 1, \, \alpha_{ij} = -\alpha_{ji}\}} \Psi(\alpha) := \left\| A\alpha - F(f^k) v^k \right\|_2^2 .$$

The Lipschitz constant of the gradient of Ψ is upper bounded by $2 \max_r \sum_{s=1}^n w_{rs}^2$.

Compared to the primal problem, the objective of the dual problem is smooth. Moreover, it can be efficiently solved using FISTA ([2]), a two-step subgradient method with guaranteed convergence rate $O(\frac{1}{k^2})$ where k is the number of steps. The only input of FISTA is an upper bound on the Lipschitz constant of the gradient of the objective. FISTA provides a good solution in a few steps which guarantees descent in functional (9) and thus makes the modified IPM very fast. The implementation can be found in the supplementary material.

5 Application 2: Sparse PCA

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is a standard technique for dimensionality reduction and data analysis [13]. PCA finds the k-dimensional subspace of maximal variance in the data. For $k = 1$, given a data matrix $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ where each column has mean 0, in PCA one computes

$$f^* = \underset{f \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\arg\max} \frac{\langle f, X^T X f \rangle}{\|f\|_2^2} , \tag{11}$$

where the maximizer f^* is the largest eigenvector of the covariance matrix $\Sigma = X^T X \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$. The interpretation of the PCA component f^* is difficult as usually all components are nonzero. In sparse PCA one wants to get a small number of features which still capture most of the variance. For instance, in the case of gene expression data one would like the principal components to consist only of a few significant genes, making it easy to interpret by a human. Thus one needs to enforce sparsity of the PCA component, which yields a trade-off between explained variance and sparsity.

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While standard PCA leads to an eigenproblem, adding a constraint on the cardinality, i.e. the number of nonzero coefficients, makes the problem NP-hard. The first approaches performed simple thresholding of the principal components which was shown to be misleading [6]. Since then several methods have been proposed, mainly based on penalizing the L_1 norm of the principal components, including SCoTLASS [14] and SPCA [22]. D'Aspremont et al.[10] focused on the L_0-constrained formulation and proposed a greedy algorithm to compute a full set of good candidate solutions up to a specified target sparsity, and derived sufficient conditions for a vector to be globally optimal. Moghaddam et al. [16] used branch and bound to compute optimal solutions for small problem instances. Other approaches include D.C. [18] and EM-based methods [17]. Recently, Journee et al. [15] proposed two single unit (computation of one component only) and two block (simultaneous computation of multiple components) methods based on L_0-penalization and L_1-penalization.

Problem (11) is equivalent to

$$f^* = \arg\min_{f \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{\|f\|_2^2}{\langle f, \Sigma f \rangle} = \arg\min_{f \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{\|f\|_2}{\|Xf\|_2} \ .$$

In order to enforce sparsity we use instead of the L_2-norm a convex combination of an L_1 norm and L_2 norm in the enumerator, which yields the functional

$$F(f) = \frac{(1-\alpha)\|f\|_2 + \alpha\|f\|_1}{\|Xf\|_2} \ , \tag{12}$$

with sparsity controlling parameter $\alpha \in [0, 1]$. Standard PCA is recovered for $\alpha = 0$, whereas $\alpha = 1$ yields the sparsest non-trivial solution: the component with the maximal variance. One easily sees that the formulation (12) fits in our general framework, as both enumerator and denominator are 1-homogeneous functions. The inner problem of the IPM becomes

$$g^{k+1} = \arg\min_{\|f\|_2 \leq 1} (1-\alpha)\|f\|_2 + \alpha\|f\|_1 - \lambda^k \langle f, \mu^k \rangle \ , \quad \text{where} \quad \mu^k = \frac{\Sigma f^k}{\sqrt{\langle f^k, \Sigma f^k \rangle}}. \tag{13}$$

This problem has a closed form solution. In the following we use the notation $x_+ = \max\{0, x\}$.

Lemma 5.1 *The convex optimization problem* (13) *has the analytical solution*

$$g_i^{k+1} = \frac{1}{s} \text{sign}(\mu_i^k)(\lambda^k|\mu_i^k| - \alpha)_+, \quad \text{where} \quad s = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (\lambda^k|\mu_i^k| - \alpha)_+^2} \ .$$

As s is just a scaling factor, we can omit it and obtain the simple and efficient scheme to compute sparse principal components shown in Algorithm 4. While the derivation is quite different from [15], the resulting algorithms are very similar. The subtle difference is that in our formulation the thresholding parameter of the inner problem depends on the current eigenvalue estimate whereas it is fixed in [15]. Empirically, this leads to the fact that we need slightly less iterations to converge.

Algorithm 4 Sparse PCA

1: **Input:** data matrix X, sparsity controlling parameter α, accuracy ϵ
2: **Initialization:** f^0 = random with $S(f^k) = 1$, $\lambda^0 = F(f^k)$
3: **repeat**
4: $\quad g_i^{k+1} = \text{sign}(\mu_i^k)(\lambda^k|\mu_i^k| - \alpha)_+,$
5: $\quad f^{k+1} = \frac{g^{k+1}}{\|Xg^{k+1}\|_2}$
6: $\quad \lambda^{k+1} = (1-\alpha)\|f^{k+1}\|_2 + \alpha\|f^{k+1}\|_1$
7: $\quad \mu^{k+1} = \frac{\Sigma f^{k+1}}{\|Xf^{k+1}\|_2}$
8: **until** $\frac{|\lambda^{k+1} - \lambda^k|}{\lambda^k} < \epsilon$

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6   Experiments

1-Spectral Clustering: We compare our IPM with the total variation (TV) based algorithm by [19], p-spectral clustering with $p = 1.1$ [5] as well as standard spectral clustering with optimal

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thresholding the second eigenvector of the graph Laplacian ($p = 2$). The graph and the two-moons dataset is constructed as in [5]. The following table shows the average ratio Cheeger cut (RCC) and error (classification as in [5]) for 100 draws of a two-moons dataset with 2000 points. In the case of the IPM, we use the best result of 10 runs with random initializations and one run initialized with the second eigenvector of the unnormalized graph Laplacian. For [19] we initialize once with the second eigenvector of the normalized graph Laplacian as proposed in [19] and 10 times randomly. IPM and the TV-based method yield similar results, slightly better than 1.1-spectral and clearly outperforming standard spectral clustering. In terms of runtime, IPM and [19] are on the same level.

	Inverse Power Method	Szlam & Bresson [19]	1.1-spectral [5]	Standard spectral
Avg. RCC	0.0195 ($\pm$ 0.0015)	0.0195 ($\pm$ 0.0015)	0.0196 ($\pm$ 0.0016)	0.0247 ($\pm$ 0.0016)
Avg. error	0.0462 ($\pm$ 0.0161)	0.0491 ($\pm$ 0.0181)	0.0578 ($\pm$ 0.0285)	0.1685 ($\pm$ 0.0200)
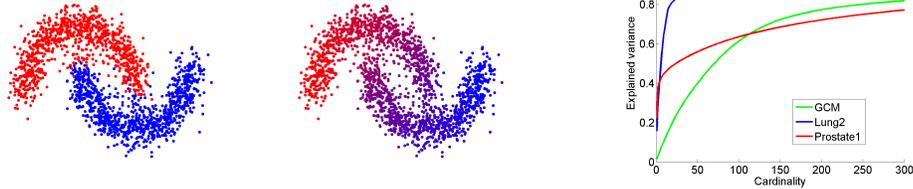
Figure 1: Left and middle: Second eigenvector of the 1-Laplacian and 2-Laplacian, respectively. Right: Relative Variance (relative to maximal possible variance) versus number of non-zero components for the three datasets Lung2, GCM and Prostate1.

Next we perform unnormalized 1-spectral clustering on the full USPS and MNIST-datasets (9298 resp. 70000 points). As clustering criterion we use the multicut version of RCut, given as

$$\text{RCut}(C_1, \ldots, C_K) = \sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{\text{cut}(C_i, \overline{C_i})}{|C_i|} \ .$$

We successively subdivide clusters until the desired number of clusters ($K = 10$) is reached. In each substep the eigenvector obtained on the subgraph is thresholded such that the multi-cut criterion is minimized. This recursive partitioning scheme is used for all methods. As in the previous experiment, we perform one run initialized with the thresholded second eigenvector of the unnormalized graph Laplacian in the case of the IPM and with the second eigenvector of the normalized graph Laplacian in the case of [19]. In both cases we add 100 runs with random initializations. The next table shows the obtained RCut and errors.

		Inverse Power Method	S.&B. [19]	1.1-spectral [5]	Standard spectral
MNIST	Rcut	0.1507	0.1545	0.1529	0.2252
	Error	0.1244	0.1318	0.1293	0.1883
USPS	Rcut	0.6661	0.6663	0.6676	0.8180
	Error	0.1349	0.1309	0.1308	0.1686

Again the three nonlinear eigenvector methods clearly outperform standard spectral clustering. Note that our method requires additional effort (100 runs) but we get better results. For both datasets our method achieves the best RCut. However, if one wants to do only a single run, by Theorem 4.2 for bi-partitions one achieves a cut at least as good as the one of standard spectral clustering if one initializes with the thresholded 2nd eigenvector of the 2-Laplacian.

Sparse PCA: We evaluate our IPM for sparse PCA on gene expression datasets obtained from [1]. We compare with two recent algorithms: the L_1 based single-unit power algorithm of [15] as well as the EM-based algorithm in [17]. For all considered datasets, the three methods achieve very similar performance in terms of the tradeoff between explained variance and sparsity of the solution, see Fig.1 (Right). In fact the results are so similar that for each dataset, the plots of all three methods coincide in one line. In [15] it also has been observed that the best state-of-the-art algorithms produce the same trade-off curve if one uses the same initialization strategy.

Acknowledgments: This work has been supported by the Excellence Cluster on Multimodal Computing and Interaction at Saarland University.

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