

MAILMAN SCHOOL  
of PUBLIC HEALTH

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# Principal Component Pursuit for Pattern Recognition from Incomplete Environmental Data

*ENAR 2022 Spring Meeting*  
March 28, 2022

# Outline

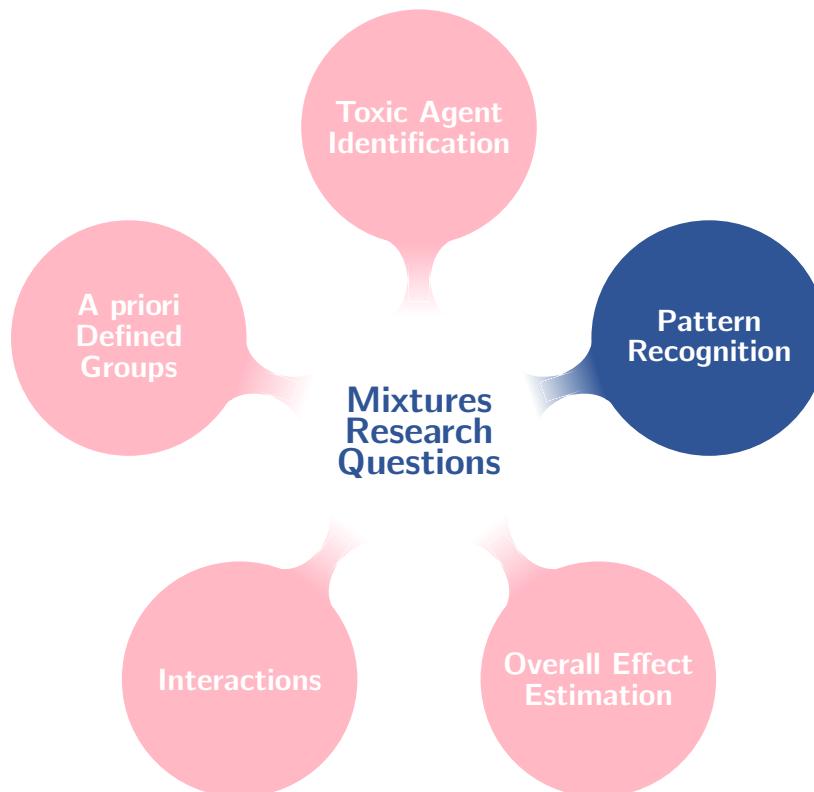
1. Background & motivation: mixtures, pattern recognition
2. Principal Component Pursuit (PCP) introduction
3. Block Missingness problem formulation
4. Extensions addressing block missingness
5. Results from simulated & applied analyses
6. Conclusion

# Why study mixtures?

- Traditionally, health studies have focused on single-chemical analyses
  - E.g. lead exposure & brain development
  - This is unrealistic
- In reality, we are exposed to hundreds (thousands?) of chemicals
- The combination of exposures likely induces different responses



# Why exposure pattern recognition?



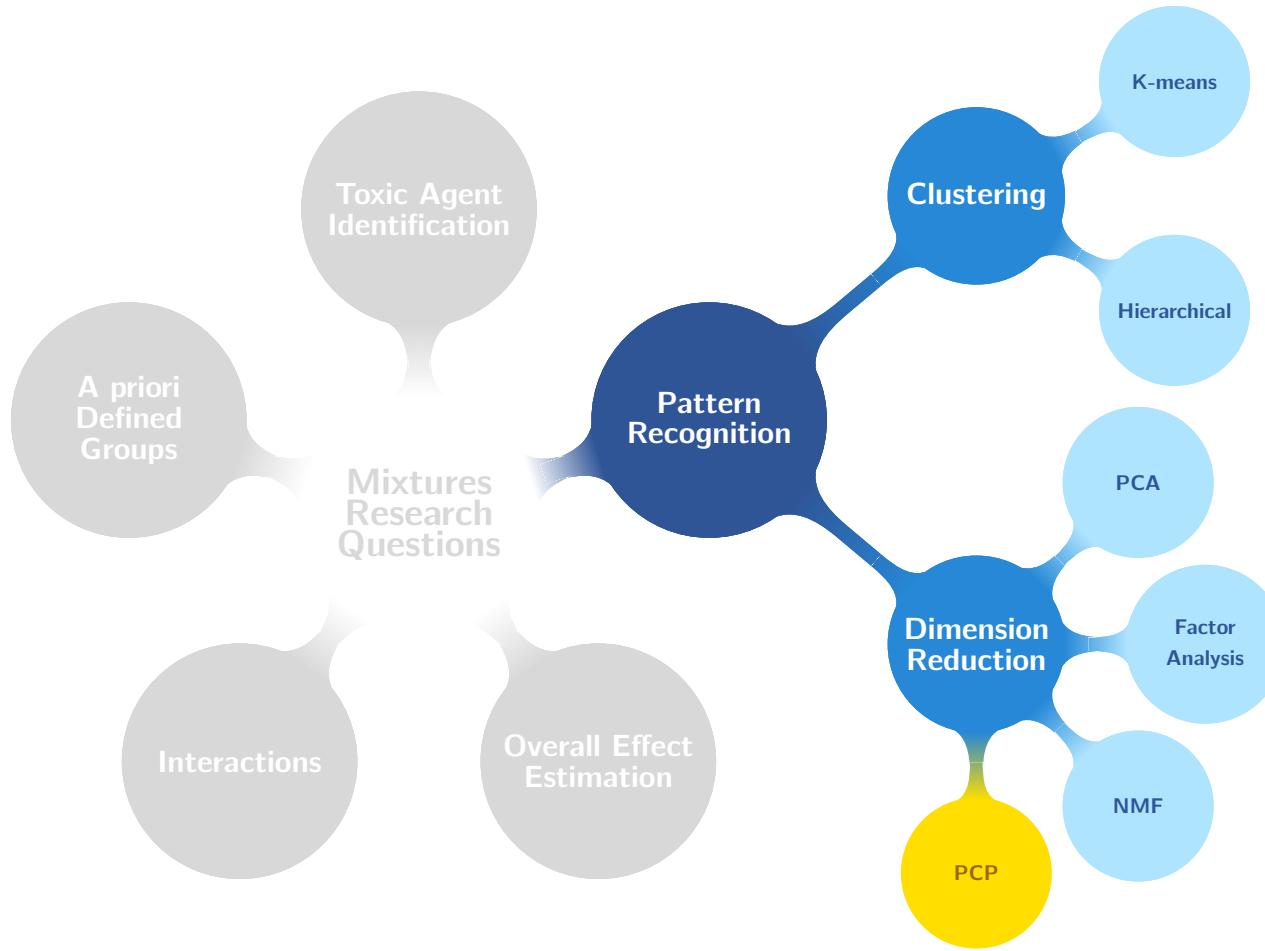
We'd like to identify:

- Sources of exposure
- Behaviors leading to exposure

Linking patterns associated with  
adverse health outcomes could yield:

- Efficient policy & public health regulations
- Targeted interventions

# Existing pattern recognition techniques:



## Limitations include:

- Choice of  $k$  patterns subjective
- Outliers may affect solution
- No standard for handling structured (block) missingness

## Proposed solution:

- Principal Component Pursuit

# Mixtures modeling

$$\text{Data } (D) = \text{Low rank } (L_0) + \text{Sparse } (S_0) + \text{Noise } (Z_0)$$

# Principal Component Pursuit (PCP)

- Convex optimization algorithm from computer vision
- Performs dimension reduction by decomposing data matrix into:
  1. Low-rank ( $L$ ) → consistent patterns
  2. Sparse ( $S$ ) → unique or outlying events

$$\sqrt{PCP} := \min_{L,S} ||L||_* + \lambda ||S||_1 + \mu ||L + S - D||_F$$

(Zhang et al., 2021)



Low-rank ( $L$ )

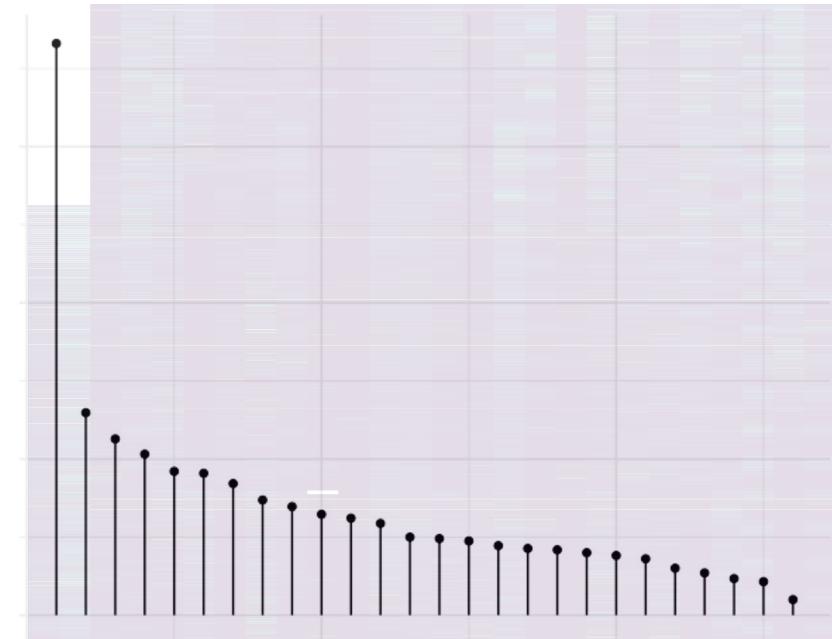


Sparse ( $S$ )

# Benefits of PCP

- Robust to noisy data
- Researcher does not need to choose  $k$
- Extreme events not discarded & do not influence patterns
- Improved predictive accuracy over PCA

# Adapting PCP for use in environmental health

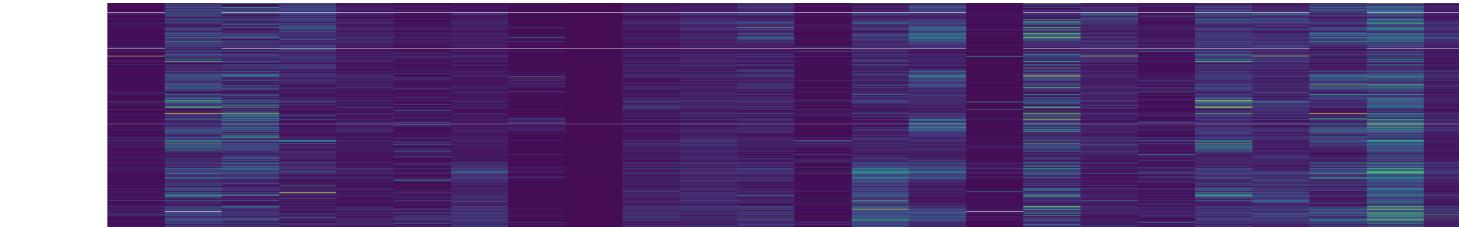


$$\min_{L, S} \text{rank}(L) + \lambda ||S||_1 + \mu ||L + S - D||_F$$

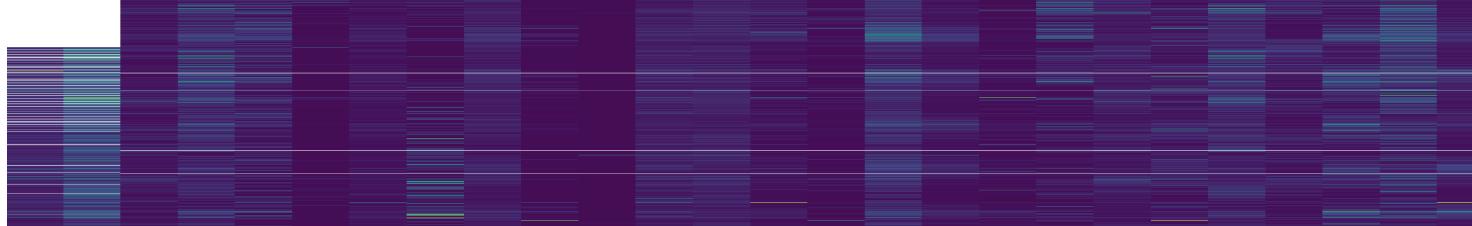
(Gibson et al., 2021)

# EPA AQS PM<sub>2.5</sub> data: NYC, 2001 - 2020

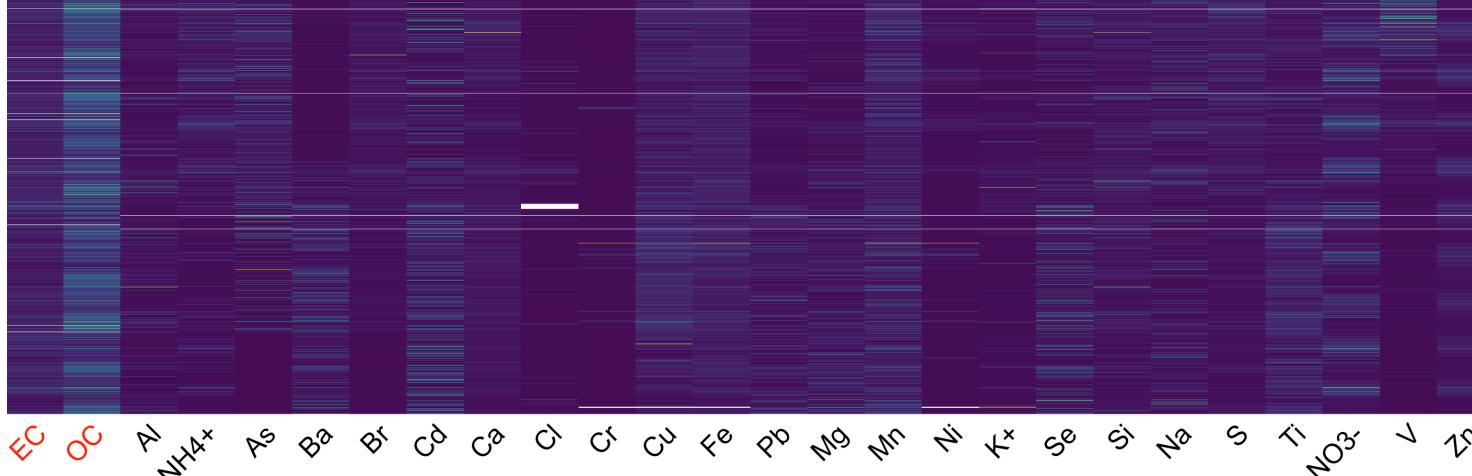
Jan. 28, 2001 →



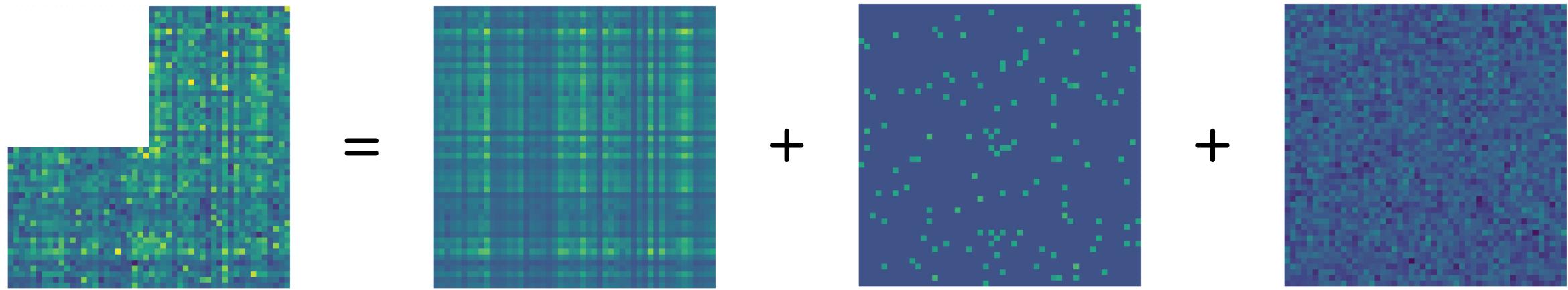
Apr. 30, 2007 →



Aug. 28, 2020 →



# The block missingness problem

$$\text{Data } (\tilde{D}) = \text{Low rank } (L_o) + \text{Sparse } (S_o) + \text{Noise } (Z_o)$$


The problem: can we recover  $L_o$  from  $\tilde{D}$ ?



# How does PCP handle block missingness?

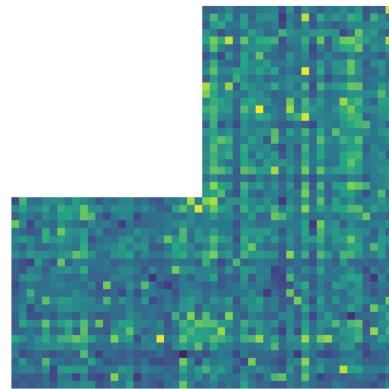
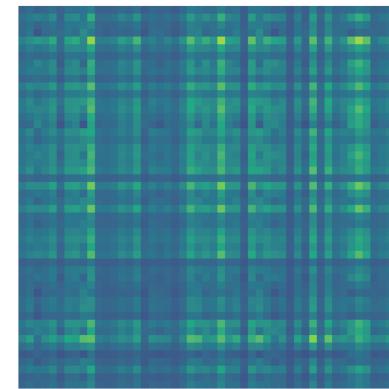
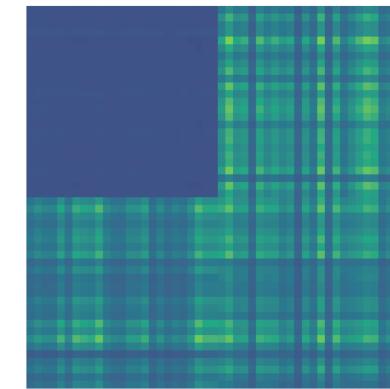
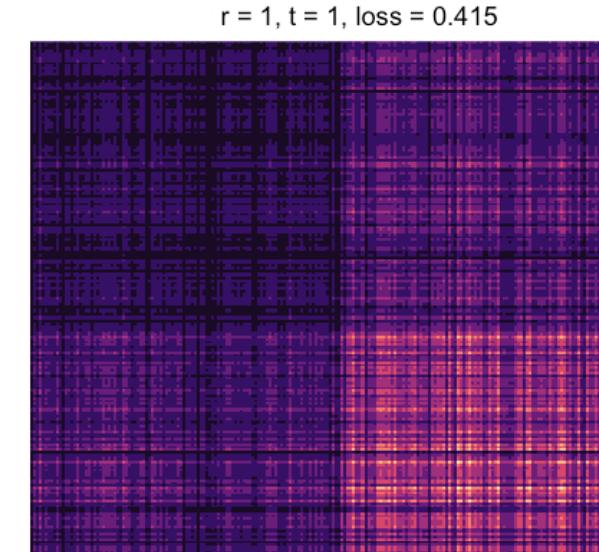
A key operation in PCP is taking a projected gradient step on the rank- $r$  matrix  $L$ . Formally,

$$L_{k+1} = \mathcal{P}_r \left[ L_k - t \mathcal{P}_{\Omega}(L_k + S_k - D) \right]$$

where  $\mathcal{P}_r$  finds the closest rank- $r$  approximation to a given input matrix.

→ This is just a truncated SVD / PCA

# $\mathcal{P}_r$ struggles with block missingness...

Data  $(\tilde{D})$ Target  $L_0$  $\mathcal{P}_r(\tilde{D}) = \hat{L}$ 

PCP

...so PCP will struggle with it as well

$$\mathbf{L}_{k+1} \leftarrow_{k=1}^{\text{Nyström}} \left[ \mathbf{L}_k - t \mathcal{P}_\Omega (\mathbf{L}_k + \mathbf{S}_k - \mathbf{D}) \right]$$

# Structure-aware Nystrom extension to $\mathcal{P}_r$

$\mathcal{P}_{nystrom}(\mathbf{W}) :$

$$\widehat{\mathbf{W}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{W}_{12} [\mathcal{P}_r(\mathbf{W}_{22})]^\dagger \mathbf{W}_{21} & \mathbf{W}_{12} \\ \mathbf{W}_{21} & \mathbf{W}_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

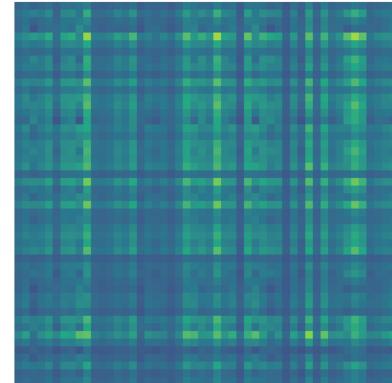
$$\mathcal{P}_r(\widehat{\mathbf{W}})$$

Main idea:  $\mathbf{W}_{11} = \mathbf{W}_{12} [\mathcal{P}_r(\mathbf{W}_{22})]^\dagger \mathbf{W}_{21}$

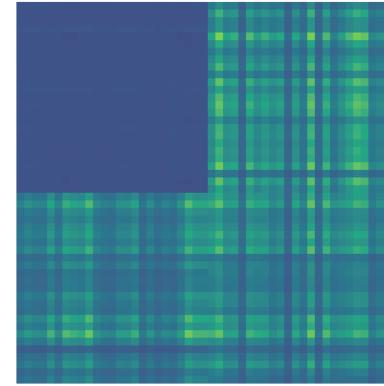
# Key takeaways from $\mathcal{P}_{nystrom}$

- We are reconstructing the missing block from observed data
- This formulation is **exact** in no-noise conditions
  - As noise levels increase it becomes harder to recover missing block
- **Main assumption:** The missing block is characterized by the same patterns governing the observed blocks

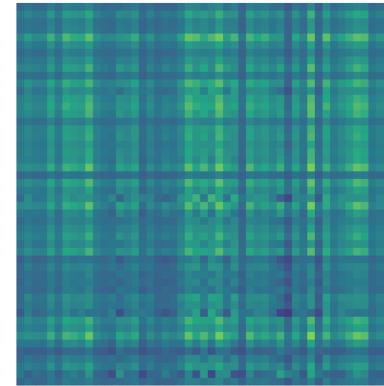
# Simulation results



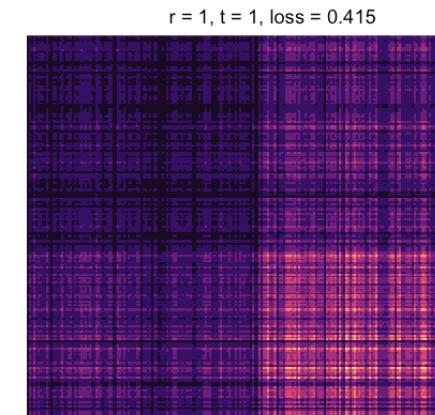
Target  $L_0$



$\mathcal{P}_r(\tilde{D})$



$\mathcal{P}_{nystrom}(\tilde{D})$



← PCP w/ $\mathcal{P}_r$

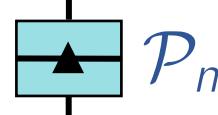


← PCP w/ $\mathcal{P}_{nystrom}$

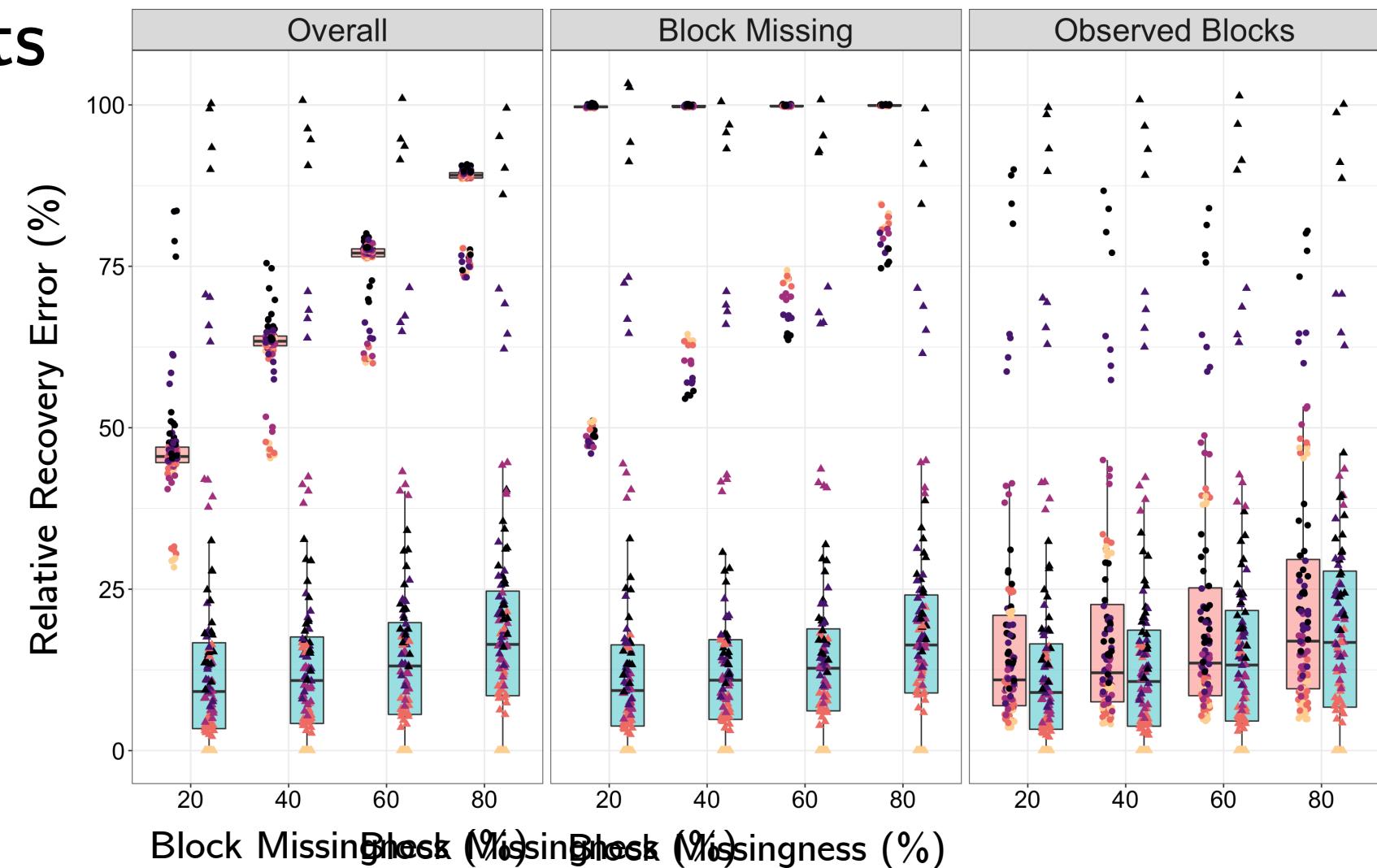
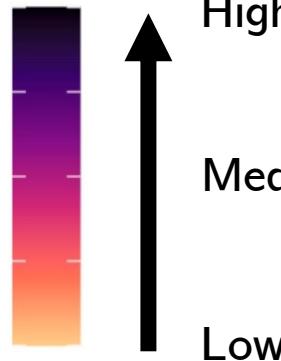


# Simulation results

Method

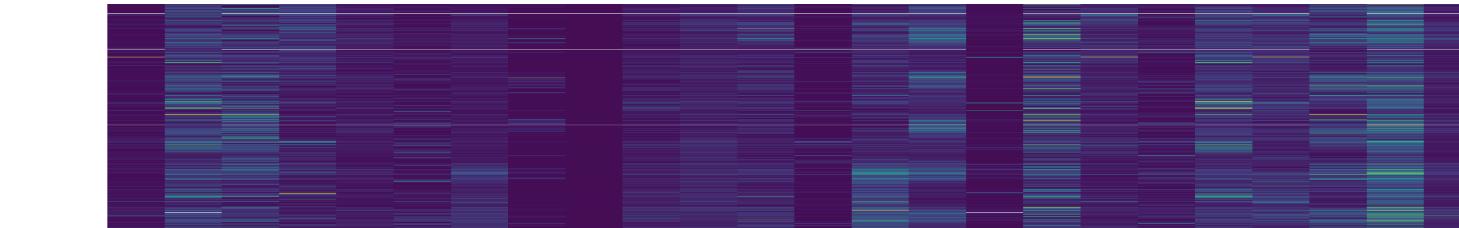
 $\mathcal{P}_r$  $\mathcal{P}_{nystrom}$ 

Noise

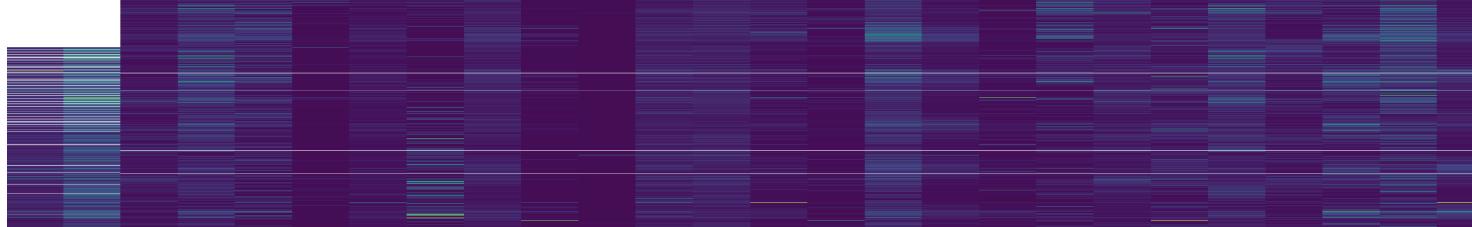


# EPA AQS PM<sub>2.5</sub> data: NYC, 2001 - 2020

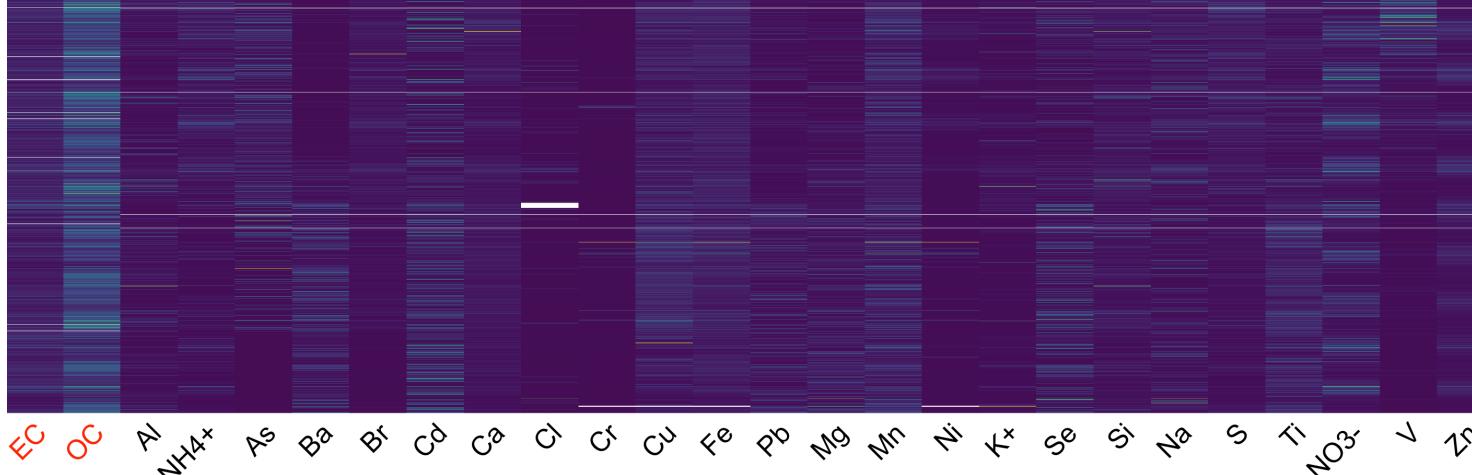
Jan. 28, 2001 →



Apr. 30, 2007 →

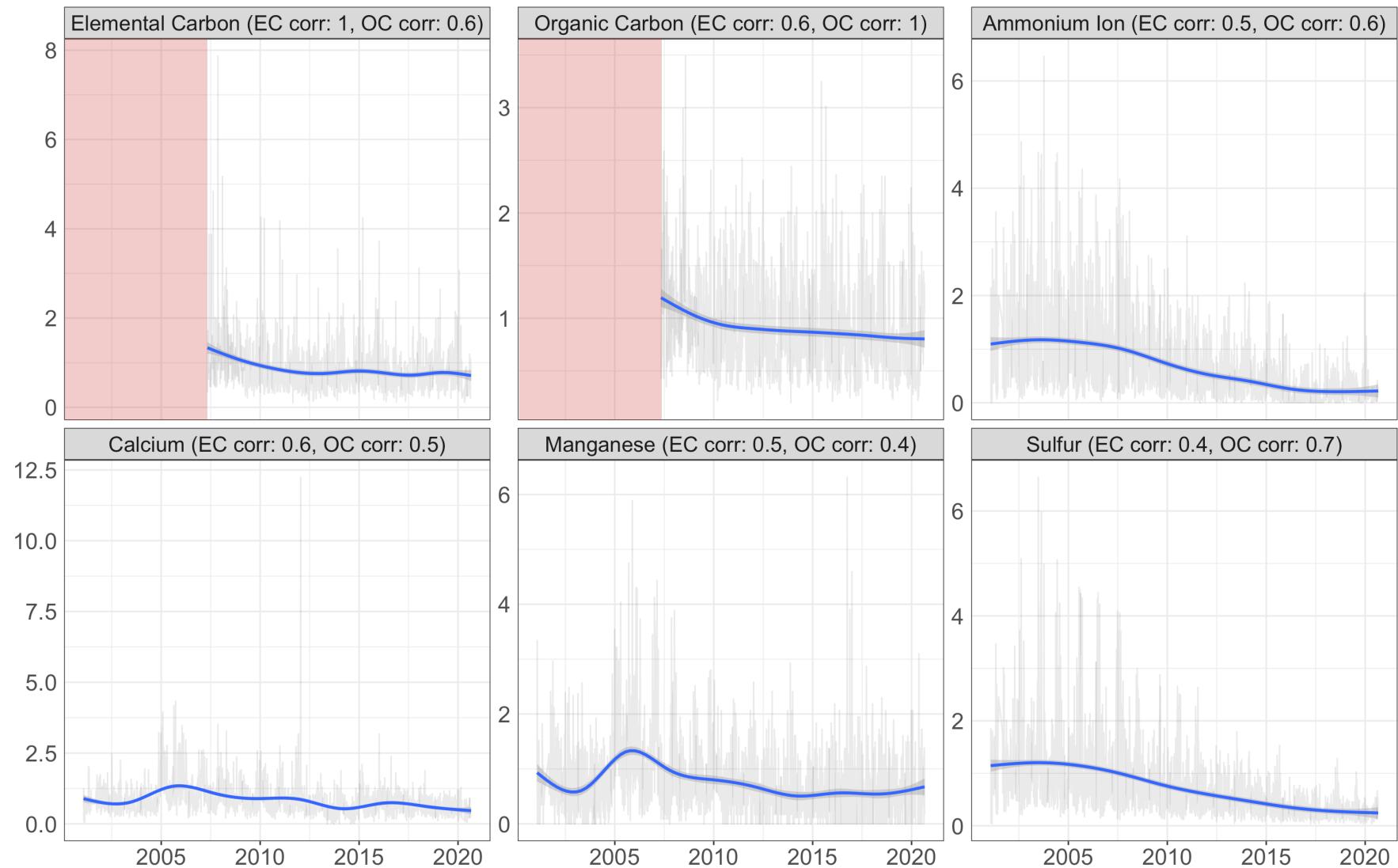


Aug. 28, 2020 →

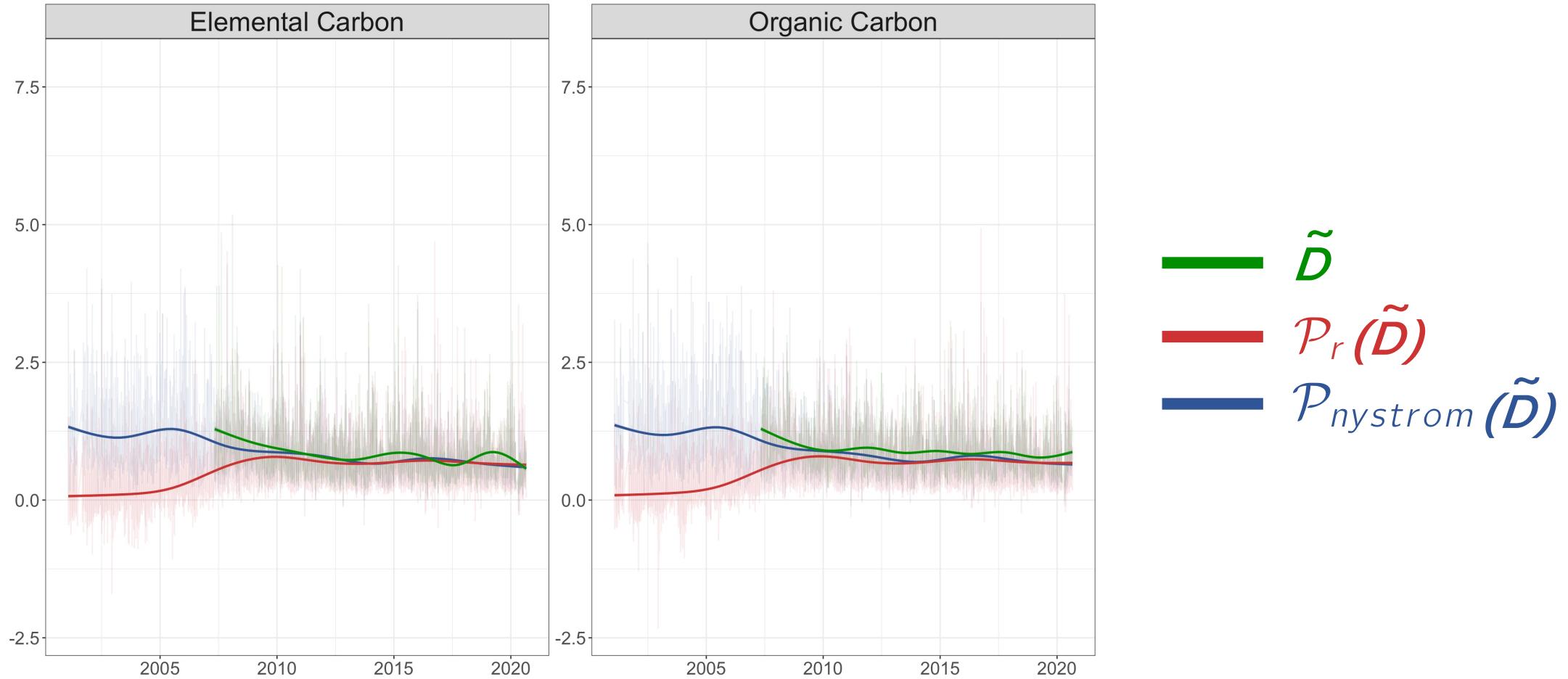




# NYC Data



# Results – EPA AQS PM<sub>2.5</sub> data: NYC, 2001 - 2020



# Conclusion

- The Nystrom extension improves recovery of missing block
- This formulation is **exact** in no-noise conditions
  - As noise levels increase it becomes harder to recover the missing block
- Main assumption: The missing block is characterized by the same patterns governing the observed blocks
- PCP equipped w/Nystrom extension serves as a useful pattern recognition tool

Future Work  [github.com/Columbia-PRIME/pcpr](https://github.com/Columbia-PRIME/pcpr)

- Tackle overlapping block missingness
- Explore extensions for high-noise situations
- Investigate uncertainty characterization

# Acknowledgements

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Elizabeth Gibson  
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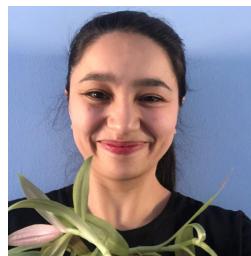
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# Mathematical intuition behind why $\mathbf{W}_{11} = \mathbf{W}_{12}[\mathcal{W}_{22}^\dagger(\mathbf{W}_{22})]^\dagger\mathbf{W}_{21}$

Simple scenario:

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{W}_{11} & \mathbf{W}_{12} \\ \mathbf{W}_{21} & \mathbf{W}_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_1 \\ \mathbf{U}_2 \end{bmatrix} [\mathbf{V}_1 \ \mathbf{V}_2] = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}_1\mathbf{V}_1 & \mathbf{U}_1\mathbf{V}_2 \\ \mathbf{U}_2\mathbf{V}_1 & \mathbf{U}_2\mathbf{V}_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{rank}(\mathbf{W}) = r$$

$$\mathbf{W}_{11} = \mathbf{U}_1\mathbf{V}_1$$

$$\mathbf{W}_{12}\mathbf{W}_{22}^\dagger\mathbf{W}_{21} = \mathbf{U}_1\underbrace{\mathbf{V}_2((\mathbf{U}_2\mathbf{V}_2)^\dagger)}_{I_{r \times r}}\mathbf{U}_2\mathbf{W}_{11}$$

~~$\mathbf{U}_2, \mathbf{V}_2$  are invertible~~  
 ~~$\text{rank}(\mathbf{U}_2) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{V}_2) \leq r$~~

$$\begin{aligned} &= \mathbf{U}_1\mathbf{V}_1 \\ &= \mathbf{W}_{11} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{V}_2(\mathbf{U}_2\mathbf{V}_2)^\dagger\mathbf{U}_2 &= \mathbf{V}_2(\mathbf{U}_2\mathbf{V}_2)^{-1}\mathbf{U}_2 \\ &= \mathbf{V}_2\mathbf{V}_2^{-1}\mathbf{U}_2^{-1}\mathbf{U}_2 \\ &= I_{r \times r} \end{aligned}$$

When  $\text{rank}(U_2) = \text{rank}(V_2) < r$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{rank 3} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \text{rank 1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{rank 4} \end{bmatrix}$$

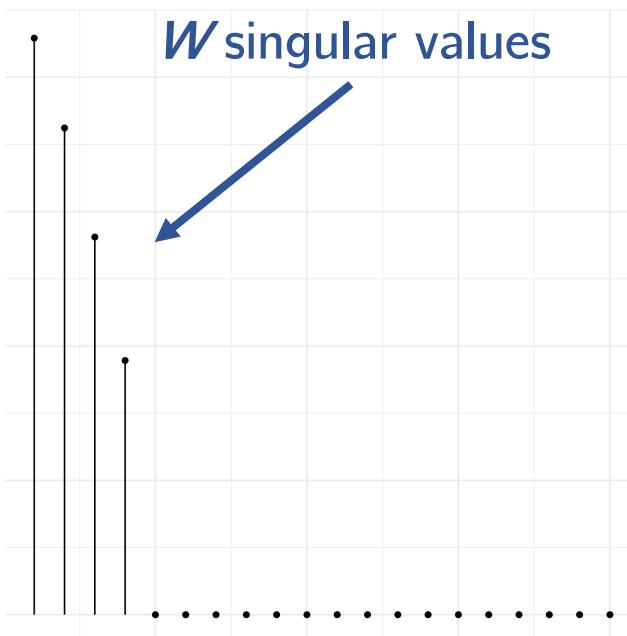
The diagram illustrates the decomposition of a rank 4 matrix into a sum of two matrices. On the left, a large matrix is labeled "rank 3". To its right is a plus sign. Next is a smaller matrix labeled "rank 1". To the right of the plus sign is an equals sign. On the far right is another large matrix labeled "rank 4". All matrices are enclosed in black brackets.



# Mathematical intuition behind why $\mathbf{W}_{11} = \mathbf{W}_{12}[\mathbf{W}_{22}^\dagger(\mathbf{W}_{22})]^\dagger\mathbf{W}_{21}$

Simple scenario was noise free!

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{W}_{11} & \mathbf{W}_{12} \\ \mathbf{W}_{21} & \mathbf{W}_{22} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{rank}(\mathbf{W}) = r$$



Real world scenario is not

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{W}} = \begin{bmatrix} \widetilde{\mathbf{W}}_{11} & \widetilde{\mathbf{W}}_{12} \\ \widetilde{\mathbf{W}}_{21} & \widetilde{\mathbf{W}}_{22} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{rank}(\widetilde{\mathbf{W}}) > r$$

