Value estimation

Generalized linear models & Stochastic gradient descent

Sharat Chikkerur sharat@alum.mit.edu

Principal Data Scientist Lead Microsoft.

Overview

- Value estimation
- Generalized linear models
- Gradient Descent
- Demos

Value estimation

Value estimation

 Bidding value is the optimal strategy in a second price auction (Vickrey [1961])

Challenges

- Optimization objectives can be different
 - (CPM, CPC, CPA, VPA etc.)
- Downstream objectives may conflict with upstream objectives
 - high CTR impression/user may be low CVR impression/user
- Data arrives at different rates, quantity (attribution windows) and have different maturity scales
 - CTR models have high volume and granular features
 - CVR models will have lower data volume

Factored value formulation

Factored formulation for downstream (revenue) optimization

$$VPI = E[V|A] * P(A|Click) * P(Click|Impression)$$

E[V A]	Value per action	Linear/Log-Linear/Poisson regression
P(A Click) or $E[A Click]$	Actions per click	Logistic/Poisson Regression
P(Click Impression)	CTR	Logistic regression

Fortunately, all of these regression can be implemented using a general setup.

Generalized linear models

A generalized linear predictor specifies

- A linear predictor of the form $\eta(x) = w^T x$
- ullet A mean estimate μ
- A link function $g(\mu)$ such that $g(\mu) = \eta(x)$ that relates the mean estimate to the linear predictor.

This framework supports a variety of regression problems

Linear regression	$\mu = \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}$
Log-linear regression	$\log(\mu) = w^T x$
Logistic regression	$\log(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu}) = w^T x$
Poisson regression	$\log(\mu) = w^T x$

Optimization

VW solves optimization of the form

$$\sum_{i} I(w^{T} x_{i}; y_{i}) + \lambda R(w)$$

Here, I() is convex, $R(w) = \lambda_1 |w| + \lambda_2 ||w||^2$.

VW support a variety of loss function

Linear regression	$(y-w^Tx)^2$
Logistic regression	$\log(1 + exp(-yw^Tx))$
SVM regression	$\max(0, 1 - yw^Tx)$
Quantile regression	$\tau(w^T x - y) * I(y < w^T x) + (1 - \tau)(y - w^T x)I(y > w^T x)$
Poisson regression	$y \log(y) - y \log(w^T x) - (y - \exp(w^T x))$

Deep dive: Gradient descent

If the loss function is convex and parametized by w, we can minimize risk by gradient descent.

$$w_{t+1} = w_t - \eta \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i}^{n} \nabla_w I(f_w(x_i), y_i)$$

This converges in linear time $(-\log(residual) \sim t)$.

We can speed up convergence by using second order information

$$w_{t+1} = w_t - H_w^{-1} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i}^{n} \nabla_w I(f_w(x_i), y_i)$$

where $H_w = \nabla^2 I(f_w(x_i), y_i)$ This converges in linear time $(-\log \log(\text{residual}) \sim t)$.

Stochastic gradient descent

We replace the real gradient $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i}^{n}\nabla_{w}I(f_{w}(x_{i}),y_{i})$ with a instantaneous estimate

$$w_{t+1} = w_t - \eta_t \nabla_w I(f_w(x_i), y_i)$$

Note that the scaling factor has also been replaced with a time variant version. At each step t, the example is **randomly** picked. Good convergence is obtained using $\eta_t \sim \frac{1}{t}$ or $\eta_t \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}}$

The rate of convergence is much slower than batch version of gradient descent

	GD	2nd order GD	SGD
Iterations to accuracy (ρ)	$\log(\frac{1}{\rho})$	$\log\log(\frac{1}{\rho})$	$\frac{1}{\rho}$

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Flavors of SGD

Variants of SGD differ in several dimensions

- Learning rate schedule : Determines how η_t is updated.
 - Adaptive McMahan et al. [2013]
 - Normalized Ross et al. [2013]
 - Importance aware Karampatziakis and Langford [2010]
- Weight update: Determines how w_t is computed based on $w_1 \dots w_t, \eta_1 \dots \eta_t$
 - Ordinary SGD. Optimizes w_t
 - Averaged SGD. Averages w_{1...t}
- Loss functions: Determines how gradient is computed based on $I(x_1, y_1) \dots I(x_t, y_t)$
 - ullet Ordinary SGD. Optimizes using last w_t
 - RDA, FTRL. Optimizes based on all previous updates $w_{1...t}$.

Learning rate update schedule: SGD

$$\eta_t = \lambda d^k \frac{t_0}{(t_0 + t)^p}$$

λ	-1
d	decay_learning_rate
t ₀	initial_t
р	power_t

Learning rate update schedule: Adaptive

--adaptive

- Scales the update based on all the previous gradient values.
- Useful for different dynamic ranges

--invariant

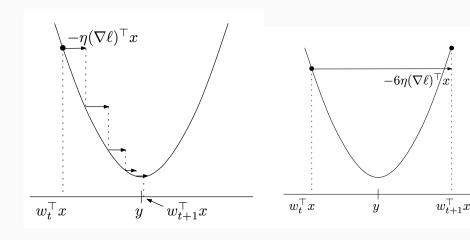
- Importance weights are useful in many applications: subsampling, boosting
- Algorithm invariant way of implementing importance weight is to replicate the example.
- Many implementations choose to scale the gradient instead.
 This may cause updates to overshoot and is equivalent to having a large learning rate.
- Importance aware updates ensure that the updates with importance weights h are equivalent to the updates applied when the instance is presented h times.

--invariant Common approach

$$w_{t+1} = w_t - h\eta \nabla_w I(w_t^T x_t, y_t)$$

This is not the same as training on the example twice

$$v = w_{t+1} = w_t - \eta \nabla_w I(w_t^T x_t, y_t)$$
$$w_{t+2} = v - \eta \nabla_w I(v^T x_t, y_t)$$



For linear models $\nabla_w I = \frac{\partial I}{\partial p} x$.

$$w_{t+1} = w_t - s(h)x$$

. The scaling factor s(h) has the recursive form

$$s(h+1) = s(h) + \eta \frac{\partial I}{\partial p}, p = (w_t - s(h)x)^T x$$

For squared loss, it turns out that

$$s(h) = \frac{w_t^T x - y}{x^T x} (1 - (1 - \eta x^T x)^h)$$

The importance aware update can be determined for many loss functions Karampatziakis and Langford [2010]

Table 1: Importance Invariant and Imp² (cf. section 5) Updates for Various Loss Fu

Loss	$\ell(p,y)$	Invariant Update $s(h)$
Squared	$\frac{1}{2}(y-p)^2$	$rac{p-y}{x^{ op}x}\left(1-e^{-h\eta x^{ op}x} ight)$
Logistic	$\log(1+e^{-yp})$	$\frac{W(e^{h\eta x^\top x + yp + e^{yp}}) - h\eta x^\top x - e^{yp}}{yx^\top x} \text{ for } y \in \{-1, 1\}$
Exponential	e^{-yp}	$\frac{py - \log(h\eta x^{\top} x + e^{py})}{x^{\top} xy} \text{ for } y \in \{-1, 1\}$
Logarithmic	$y\lograc{y}{p}+(1-y)\lograc{1-y}{1-p}$	$ ext{if } y = 0 ext{} ext{$
Hellinger	$2(1-\sqrt{py}-\sqrt{(1-p)(1-y)})$	$\begin{array}{ccc} & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\$
Hinge	$\max(0, 1 - yp)$	$-y \min \left(h\eta, \frac{1-yp}{x^{\top}x}\right) \text{ for } y \in \{-1, 1\}$
au-Quantile	$\begin{array}{ll} \text{if } y>p & \tau(y-p) \\ \text{if } y\leq p & (1-\tau)(p-y) \end{array}$	if $y > p$ $-\tau \min(h\eta, \frac{y-p}{\tau x^{\top} x})$ $\text{if } y \le p (1-\tau) \min(h\eta, \frac{y-p}{(1-\tau)x^{\top} x})$

Learning rate update schedule: Normalized

--normalized

- Features can have different dynamic ranges (scales) usually got rid of by pre-scaling
- Offline mean-variance normalization may be expensive. No online version of normalization.
- Regret bounds for regular SGD algorithms depend on the norm of input.

Normalized updates

Intuition Ross et al. [2013]

- Keep track of the max value for each dimension
- If current value exceeds current max, scale down the weight as if new max was known all along
- Accumulate scaled value as pseudo-count to modulate learning rate.

Algorithm 1 NG(learning_rate η_t)

- 1. Initially $w_i = 0$, $s_i = 0$, N = 0
- 2. For each timestep t observe example (x, y)
 - (a) For each i, if $|x_i| > s_i$
 - i. $w_i \leftarrow \frac{w_i s_i^2}{|x_i|^2}$
 - ii. $s_i \leftarrow |x_i|$
 - (b) $\hat{y} = \sum_{i} w_i x_i$
 - (c) $N \leftarrow N + \sum_{i} \frac{x_i^2}{s^2}$
 - (d) For each i.

i. $w_i \leftarrow w_i - \eta_t \frac{t}{N} \frac{1}{s^2} \frac{\partial L(\hat{y}, y)}{\partial w_i}$

Algorithm 1 NG(learning_rate η_t)

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 - (b) $\hat{y} = \sum_i w_i x_i$
 - (c) $N \leftarrow N + \sum_{i} \frac{x_i^2}{a^2}$
 - (d) For each i. i. $w_i \leftarrow w_i - \eta_t \frac{t}{N} \frac{1}{s^2} \frac{\partial L(\hat{y}, y)}{\partial w_i}$

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FTPRL

Reformulation of gradient descent: Standard gradient descent update with learning rate η can be rewritten as the solution to

$$x_{t+1} = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left(g_t | x + \frac{1}{2\eta} || x - x_t ||_2^2 \right)$$

Solving the argmin yield the familiar update rule

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta g_t$$

For adaptive updates, η is replaced by η_t .

Sparse updates

FOBOS (Duchi and Singer [2009]) explicitly adds L1 penalty to the optimization

$$x_{t+1} = \arg\!\min_{x} \left(g_t x + \lambda ||x||_1 + \frac{1}{2\eta} ||x - x_t||_2^2 \right)$$

FTRL (Follow the regularized leader)

RDA (Xiao [2010]) optimizes over all the previous gradient steps.

$$x_{t+1} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{x} \left(g_{1:t} x + \lambda ||x||_1 + \frac{1}{2\eta} ||x||_2^2 \right)$$

Note: In RDA, L2 regularization is proximal to the origin.

FTPRL (Follow the *proximal* regularized leader)

FTPRL provides regularization around the previous updates instead of the origin (like RDA).

$$x_{t+1} = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left(g_{1:t} x + \lambda ||x||_1 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{s=1}^{t} \sigma_s ||x - x_s||_2^2 \right)$$

Adding L2 regularization, we have

$$x_{t+1} = \arg\min_{x} \left(g_{1:t}x + \lambda_1 ||x||_1 + \lambda_2 ||x||_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{s=1}^{t} \sigma_s ||x - x_s||_2^2 \right)$$

Here $\sigma_{1:t} = \eta_t$

Optimization

$$\begin{aligned} x_{t+1} &= \arg\min_{x} \left(g_{1:t} x + \lambda_{1} ||x||_{1} + \lambda_{2} ||x||_{2}^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{s=1}^{t} \sigma_{s} ||x - x_{s}||_{2}^{2} \right) \\ x_{t+1} &= \arg\min_{x} \left(\left(g_{1:t} - \sum_{s=1}^{t} \sigma_{s} x_{s} \right) \right) x + \left(\lambda_{2} + \frac{\sigma_{1:t}}{2} \right) x^{2} + \lambda_{1} ||x||_{1} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Algorithm 1 Per-Coordinate FTRL-Proximal with L_1 and L_2 Regularization for Logistic Regression

```
#With per-coordinate learning rates of Eq. (2).
Input: parameters \alpha, \beta, \lambda_1, \lambda_2
(\forall i \in \{1,\ldots,d\}), initialize z_i = 0 and n_i = 0
for t = 1 to T do
    Receive feature vector \mathbf{x}_t and let I = \{i \mid x_i \neq 0\}
    For i \in I compute
    w_{t,i} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } |z_i| \leq \lambda_1 \\ -\Big(\frac{\beta + \sqrt{n_i}}{\alpha} + \lambda_2\Big)^{-1} (z_i - \text{sgn}(z_i)\lambda_1) & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases}
    Predict p_t = \sigma(\mathbf{x}_t \cdot \mathbf{w}) using the w_{t,i} computed above
    Observe label y_t \in \{0, 1\}
    for all i \in I do
        q_i = (p_t - y_t)x_i #gradient of loss w.r.t. w_i
       \sigma_i = \frac{1}{\alpha} \left( \sqrt{n_i + g_i^2} - \sqrt{n_i} \right) \quad \#equals \quad \frac{1}{n_{t-1}} - \frac{1}{n_{t-1}}
       z_i \leftarrow z_i + g_i - \sigma_i w_{t,i}
        n_i \leftarrow n_i + g_i^2
    end for
end for
```

Summary

- Default behavior --normalized --invariant --adaptive
- If you have variable dynamic ranges, rely on --adaptive
- If using importance weights, rely on --invariant
- If you can't afford multiple passes through the data, rely on --ftrl

Regression

- Linear regression --loss_function square
- Quantile regression

```
--loss_function quantile --quantile_tau <=0.5>
```

Binary classification

- Note: a linear regressor can be used as a classifier as well
- Logistic loss
 - --loss_function logistic, --link logistic
- Hinge loss (SVM loss function) --loss_function hinge
- Report binary loss instead of logistic loss --binary

Gradient update rule

- Classic SGD --sgd
- Adaptive learning rate --adaptive
- Per-feature normalized --normalized
- Second order update
 --bfgs --conjugate_gradient --mem
- Follow the leader proximal
 --ftrl --ftrl_alpha --ftrl_beta

SGD parameters

- L1 regularization --11
- L2 regularization --12

Demo/Questions?

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