## Uplift modeling

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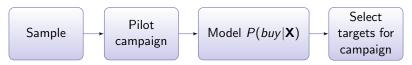
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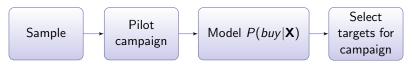
## What is uplift modeling?

#### A typical marketing campaign



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- But this is not what we need!
- We want people who bought because of the campaign
- Not people who bought after the campaign

## A typical marketing campaign

We can divide potential customers into four groups

- Responded because of the action (the people we want)
- Responded, but would have responded anyway (unnecessary costs)
- Did not respond and the action had no impact (unnecessary costs)
- Did not respond because the action had a (negative impact)

## Solution: Uplift modeling

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- Two training sets:
  - the treatment group on which the action was taken
  - 2 the control group on which no action was taken used as background
- Build a model which predicts the difference between class probabilities in the treatment and control groups

#### Difference with traditional classification

#### Notation:

- $\bullet$   $P^T$  probabilities in the treatment group
- $\bullet$   $P^C$  probabilities in the control group

#### Traditional models predict the conditional probability

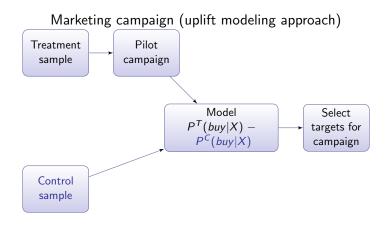
$$P^T(Y \mid X_1, \ldots, X_m)$$

#### Uplift models predict change in behaviour resulting from the action

$$P^{T}(Y | X_{1},...,X_{m}) - P^{C}(Y | X_{1},...,X_{m})$$



## Marketing campaign (uplift modeling approach)



## Applications in medicine

- A typical medical trial:
  - treatment group: gets the treatment
  - control group: gets placebo (or another treatment)
  - do a statistical test to show that the treatment is better than placebo
- With uplift modeling we can find out for whom the treatment works best
- Personalized medicine

## Main difficulty of uplift modeling

#### The fundamental problem of causal inference

- Our knowledge is always incomplete
- For each training case we know either
  - what happened after the treatment, or
  - what happened if no treatment was given
- Never both!

- This makes designing uplift algorithms challenging
- ... and the intuitions are often hard to grasp

## Evaluating uplift models

## Evaluating uplift models

- We have two separate test sets:
  - a treatment test set
  - a control test set

#### Problem

To assess the gain for a customer we need to know both treatment and control responses, but only one of them is known

#### Solution

Assess gains for groups of customers

## **Evaluating uplift classifiers**

#### For example:

Gain for the 10% highest scoring customers =

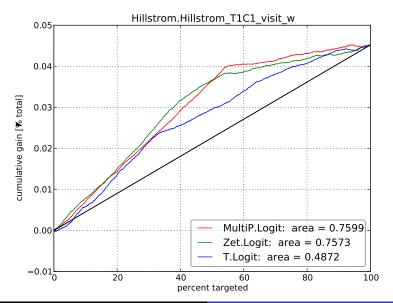
% of successes for top 10% treated customers

- % of successes for top 10% control customers

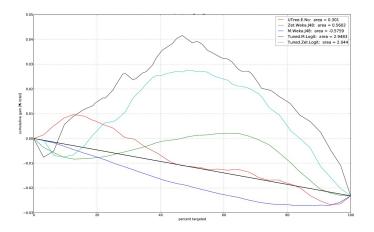
## Uplift curves

- Uplift curves are a more convenient tool:
  - Draw separate lift curves on treatment and control data (TPR on the Y axis is replaced with percentage of successes in the whole population)
  - Uplift curve =
     lift curve on treatment data lift curve on control data
  - Interpretation: net gain in success rate if a given percentage of the population is treated
- We can of course compute the Area Under the Uplift Curve (AUUC)

## An uplift curve for marketing data



# An uplift curve for a medical trial dataset comparing two cancer treatments



# Uplift modeling algorithms

## The two model approach

An obvious approach to uplift modeling:

- **1** Build a classifier  $M^T$  modeling  $P^T(Y|\mathbf{X})$  on the treatment sample
- ② Build a classifier  $M^C$  modeling  $P^C(Y|X)$  on the control sample
- The uplift model subtracts probabilities predicted by both classifiers

$$M^{U}(Y|\mathbf{X}) = M^{T}(Y|\mathbf{X}) - M^{C}(Y|\mathbf{X})$$



## Two model approach

#### Advantages:

- Works with existing classification models
- Good probability predictions ⇒ good uplift prediction

#### Disadvantages:

- Differences between class probabilities can follow a different pattern than the probabilities themselves
  - each classifier focuses on changes in class probabilities but ignores the weaker 'uplift signal'
  - algorithms designed to focus directly on uplift can give better results

# Decision trees for uplift modeling

#### Hansotia, Rukstales 2002

#### The $\Delta\Delta P$ criterion

$$P^{T}(Y = 1) = 5\%$$

$$P^{C}(Y = 1) = 3\%$$

$$\Delta P = 2\%$$

$$X < a$$

$$X >= a$$

$$P^{T}(Y = 1) = 8\%$$

$$P^{C}(Y = 1) = 3.5\%$$

$$\Delta P = 4.5\%$$

$$P^{C}(Y = 1) = 2.8\%$$

$$\Delta P = 0.9\%$$

$$\Delta P = 3.6\%$$

Pick a test with highest  $\Delta\Delta P$ 



#### Hansotia, Rukstales 2002

- It is not in line with modern decision tree learning such as C4.5
  - splitting criterion directly maximizes the difference between probabilities (target criterion)
  - no pruning
- Rzepakowski, Jaroszewicz 2010, 2012
  - splitting criterion based on Information Theory, more in line with modern decision trees
  - pruning designed for uplift modeling
  - multiclass problems and multiway splits possible
  - if the control group is empty, the algorithm reduces to classical decision tree learning

## KL divergence as a splitting criterion for uplift trees

 Measure difference between treatment and control groups using KL divergence

$$KL\left(P^{T}(Y): P^{C}(Y)\right) = \sum_{y \in Dom(Y)} P^{T}(y) \log \frac{P^{T}(y)}{P^{C}(y)}$$

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• KL-divergence conditional on a test X

$$KL(P^{T}(Y) : P^{C}(Y) \mid X) = \sum_{x \in Dom(X)} \frac{N^{T}(X = x) + N^{C}(X = x)}{N^{T} + N^{C}} KL(P^{T}(Y|X = x) : P^{C}(Y|X = x))$$

note the weighting factors  $N^T$  and  $N^C$  denote counts in the treatment and control datasets



## The $\overline{\mathit{KL}_{gain}}$

How much larger does the difference between class distributions in T and C groups become after a split on X?

$$KL_{gain}(X) =$$

$$KL\left(P^{T}(Y): P^{C}(Y)|X\right) - KL\left(P^{T}(Y): P^{C}(Y)\right)$$

## Properties of the KLgain

#### Properties:

- If  $Y \perp X$  then  $KL_{gain}(X) = 0$
- If  $P^T(Y|X) = P^C(Y|X)$  then

$$KL_{gain}(X) = minimum$$

• If the control group is empty,  $KL_{gain}$  reduces to entropy gain (Laplace correction is used on P(Y))

## Negative values of KLgain

- Classification decision trees:  $gain(X) \ge 0$
- $KL_{gain}(X)$  can be negative:

$$P^{T}(Y = 1) = 0.28$$

$$P^{C}(Y = 1) = 0.85$$

$$P^{C}(X = 0) = 0.3$$

$$P^{C}(X = 0) = 0.9$$

$$X = 1$$

$$P^{T}(Y = 1) = 0.7$$

$$P^{C}(Y = 1) = 0.1$$

$$P^{C}(Y = 1) = 0.4$$

• Note the dependence of X on T/C group selection



## Negative values of KLgain

- Negative gain values are only possible when X depends on group selection
- This a variant of the Simpson's paradox

#### Theorem

If X is independent of the selection of the T and C groups then

$$KL_{gain}(X) \geq 0$$

- In practice we want X to be independent of the T/C group selection
- In medical research great care is taken to ensure this



## The $KL_{gain}$ ratio

- In standard decision trees, the gain is divided by test's entropy to punish tests with large number of outcomes
- In our case:

$$KL_{ratio}(X) = \frac{KL_{gain}(X)}{I(X)}$$

where

$$I(X) = H\left(\frac{N^T}{N}, \frac{N^C}{N}\right) KL(P^T(X): P^C(X)) + \frac{N^T}{N} H(P^T(X)) + \frac{N^C}{N} H(P^C(X)) + \frac{1}{2}$$

- Tests with large numbers of outcomes are punished
- Tests for which  $P^{T}(X)$  and  $P^{C}(X)$  differ are punished
- This prevents splits correlated with the division into treatment and control groups

- Introduced in Jaśkowski, Jaroszewicz, 2012
- Allows for adapting an arbitrary classifier to uplift modeling
- Let G ∈ {T, C} denote the group membership (treatment or control)
- Define an r.v.

$$Z = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } G = T \text{ and } Y = 1, \\ 1 & \text{if } G = C \text{ and } Y = 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

• In plain English: flip the class in the control dataset



Now

$$P(Z = 1|X_1,...,X_m)$$
=  $P^T(Y = 1|X_1,...,X_m)P(G = T|X_1,...,X_m)$   
+  $P^C(Y = 0|X_1,...,X_m)P(G = C|X_1,...,X_m)$ 

• Assume that G is independent of  $X_1, \ldots, X_m$  (otherwise the study is badly constructed):

$$P(Z = 1|X_1,...,X_m) = P^T(Y = 1|X_1,...,X_m)P(G = T) + P^C(Y = 0|X_1,...,X_m)P(G = C)$$

• Assume  $P(G = T) = P(G = C) = \frac{1}{2}$  (otherwise reweight one of the datasets):

$$2P(Z = 1|X_1,...,X_m)$$

$$= P^{T}(Y = 1|X_1,...,X_m) + P^{C}(Y = 0|X_1,...,X_m)$$

$$= P^{T}(Y = 1|X_1,...,X_m) + 1 - P^{C}(Y = 1|X_1,...,X_m)$$

Finally

$$P^{T}(Y = 1|X_{1},...,X_{m}) - P^{C}(Y = 1|X_{1},...,X_{m})$$
  
=  $2P(Z = 1|X_{1},...,X_{m}) - 1$ 

#### Conclusion

Modeling P(Z = 1|X) is equivalent to modeling the difference between class probabilities in the treatment and control groups

#### The algorithm:

- lacktriangle Flip the class in lacktriangle
- **2** Concatenate  $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{D}^T \cup \mathbf{D}^C$
- 3 Build any classifier on D
- The classifier is actually an uplift model

## Advantages

- Any classifier can be turned into an uplift model
- A single model is built
  - coefficients are easier to interpret than for the double model
  - the model predicts uplift directly (will not focus on predicting classes themselves)
  - a single model is built on a large dataset (double model method subtracts two models built on small datasets)
- Disadvantage: the double model may represent a more complex decision surface

# **Uplift Support Vector Machines**

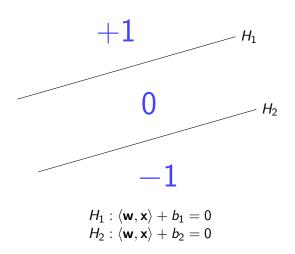
- Introduced in Zaniewicz, Jaroszewicz, 2013
- Recall that the outcome of an action can be
  - positive
  - negative
  - neutral

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#### Main idea

Use two parallel hyperplanes dividing the sample space into three areas:

- positive (+1)
- neutral (0)
- negative (-1)



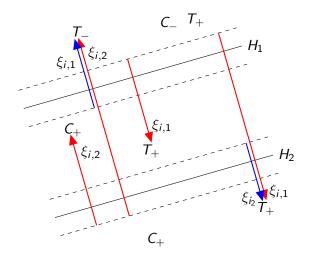
- Fundamental problem of causal inference
   ⇒ We never know if a point was classified correctly!
- Need to use as much information as possible
- Four types of points:  $T_+$ ,  $T_-$ ,  $C_+$ ,  $C_-$
- Positive area (+1):
  - $T_-$ ,  $C_+$  definitely misclassified
  - T<sub>+</sub>, C<sub>-</sub> may be correct and definitely not a loss (true outcome may only be neutral)
- Negative area (-1):
  - T<sub>+</sub>, C<sub>-</sub> definitely misclassified
  - $T_-$ ,  $C_+$  may be correct and definitely not a loss (true outcome may only be neutral)
- Neutral area (0):
  - all predictions may be correct or incorrect



### Uplift Support Vector Machines – problem formulation

- Penalize points for being on the wrong side of each hyperplane separately
- Points in the neutral area are penalized for crossing one hyperplane
  - this prevents all points from being classified as neutral
- Points which are definitely misclassified are penalized for crossing two hyperplanes
  - such points should be avoided, thus the higher penalty
- Other points are not penalized

# Uplift Support Vector Machines – problem formulation



## Optimization task - primal form

$$\begin{split} \min_{\mathbf{w},b_{1},b_{2} \in \mathbb{R}^{m+2}} \frac{1}{2} \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + C_{1} \sum_{\mathbf{D}_{+}^{T} \cup \mathbf{D}_{-}^{C}} \xi_{i,1} + C_{2} \sum_{\mathbf{D}_{-}^{T} \cup \mathbf{D}_{+}^{C}} \xi_{i,1} \\ + C_{2} \sum_{\mathbf{D}_{+}^{T} \cup \mathbf{D}_{-}^{C}} \xi_{i,2} + C_{1} \sum_{\mathbf{D}_{-}^{T} \cup \mathbf{D}_{+}^{C}} \xi_{i,2}, \end{split}$$

subject to:

$$\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b_1 \leq -1 + \xi_{i,1}, \text{ for } (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in \mathbf{D}_+^T \cup \mathbf{D}_-^C,$$
  
 $\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b_1 \geq +1 - \xi_{i,1}, \text{ for } (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in \mathbf{D}_-^T \cup \mathbf{D}_+^C,$   
 $\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b_2 \leq -1 + \xi_{i,2}, \text{ for } (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in \mathbf{D}_+^T \cup \mathbf{D}_-^C,$   
 $\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b_2 \geq +1 - \xi_{i,2}, \text{ for } (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in \mathbf{D}_-^T \cup \mathbf{D}_+^C,$   
 $\xi_{i,j} \geq 0, \text{ dla } i = 1, \dots, n, j \in \{1, 2\},$ 

## Optimization task – primal form

We have two penalty parameters:

- $C_1$  penalty coefficient for being on the wrong side of one hyperplane
- C<sub>2</sub> coefficient of additional penalty for crossing also the second hyperplane
- ullet All points classified as neutral are penalized with  $\mathcal{C}_1 \xi$
- All definitely misclassified points are penalized with  $C_1 \xi$  and  $C_2 \xi$

How do  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  influence the model?



# Influence of penalty coefficients $C_1$ and $C_2$ on the model

#### Lemma

For a well defined model  $C_2 \ge C_1$ . Otherwise the order of the hyperplanes would be reversed.

#### Lemma

If  $C_2 = C_1$  then no points are classified as neutral.

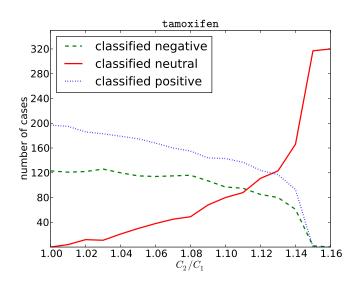
#### Lemma

For sufficiently large ratio  $C_2/C_1$  no point is penalized for crossing both hyperplanes. (Almost all points are classified as neutral.)

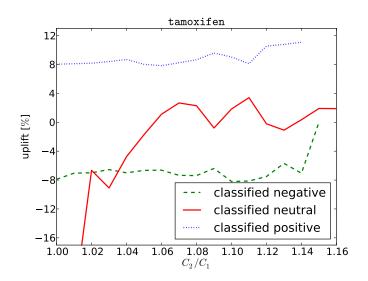
### Influence of penalty coefficients $C_1$ and $C_2$ on the model

- The C<sub>1</sub> coefficient plays the role of the penalty in classical SVMs
- The ratio  $C_2/C_1$  decides on the proportion of cases classified as neutral

### Example: the tamoxifen drug trial data



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#### Literature

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