

data science @ NYT

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Outline

1. overview of DS@NYT
2. prediction + supervised learning
3. prescription, causality, and RL
4. description + inference
5. (if interest) designing data products

0. Thank the organizers!

Lecture 1: overview of ds@NYT

Lecture 2: predictive modeling @ NYT

desc/pred/pres

- ▶ caveat: difference between observation and experiment. why?

blossom example

blossom + boosting ('exponential')

tangent: logistic function as surrogate loss function

- ▶ define $f(x) \equiv \log p(y = 1|x)/p(y = -1|x) \in R$
- ▶ $p(y = 1|x) + p(y = -1|x) = 1 \rightarrow p(y|x) = 1/(1 + \exp(-yf))$
- ▶ $-\log_2 p(\{y\}_1^N) = \sum_i \log_2 (1 + e^{-y_i f(x_i)}) \equiv \sum_i \ell(y_i f(x_i))$
- ▶ $\ell'' > 0$, $\ell(\mu) > 1[\mu < 0] \forall \mu \in R$.
- ▶ \therefore maximizing log-likelihood is minimizing a surrogate convex loss function for classification (though not strongly convex, cf. Yoram's talk)
- ▶ but $\sum_i \log_2 (1 + e^{-y_i w^T h(x_i)})$ not as easy as $\sum_i e^{-y_i w^T h(x_i)}$

boosting 1

L exponential surrogate loss function, summed over examples:

- ▶ $L[F] = \sum_i \exp(-y_i F(x_i))$
- ▶ $= \sum_i \exp(-y_i \sum_{t'}^t w_{t'} h_{t'}(x_i)) \equiv L_t(\mathbf{w}_t)$
- ▶ Draw $h_t \in \mathcal{H}$ large space of rules s.t. $h(x) \in \{-1, +1\}$
- ▶ label $y \in \{-1, +1\}$

boosting 1

L exponential surrogate loss function, summed over examples:

- ▶ $L_{t+1}(\mathbf{w}_t; w) \equiv \sum_i d_i^t \exp(-y_i w h_{t+1}(x_i))$
- ▶ $= \sum_{y=h'} d_i^t e^{-w} + \sum_{y \neq h'} d_i^t e^{+w} \equiv e^{-w} D_+ + e^{+w} D_-$
- ▶ $\therefore w_{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_w L_{t+1}(w) = (1/2) \log D_+/D_-$
- ▶ $L_{t+1}(\mathbf{w}_{t+1}) = 2\sqrt{D_+ D_-} = 2\sqrt{\nu_+(1-\nu_+)}/D$, where $0 \leq \nu_+ \equiv D_+/D = D_+/L_t \leq 1$
- ▶ update example weights $d_i^{t+1} = d_i^t e^{\mp w}$

Punchlines: sparse, predictive, interpretable, fast (to execute), and easy to extend, e.g., trees, flexible hypotheses spaces, L_1, L_∞^1, \dots

¹Duchi + Singer “Boosting with structural sparsity” ICML '09

predicting people

- ▶ “customer journey” prediction
 - ▶ fun covariates
 - ▶ observational complication v structural models

predicting people (reminder)

single copy (reminder)

example in CAR (computer assisted reporting)

example in CAR (computer assisted reporting)

- ▶ cf. Friedman's "Statistical models and Shoe Leather"²
- ▶ Takata airbag fatalities
- ▶ 2219 labeled³ examples from 33,204 comments
- ▶ cf. Box's "Science and Statistics"⁴

²Freedman, David A. "Statistical models and shoe leather." Sociological methodology 21.2 (1991): 291-313.

³By Hiroko Tabuchi, a Pulitzer winner

⁴Science and Statistics, George E. P. Box Journal of the American Statistical Association, Vol. 71, No. 356. (Dec., 1976), pp. 791-799.

computer assisted reporting

- ▶ Impact

Lecture 3: prescriptive modeling @ NYT

the natural abstraction

- ▶ operators⁵ make decisions
- ▶ faster horses v. cars
- ▶ general insights v. optimal policies

⁵In the sense of business deciders; that said, doctors, including those who operate, also have to make decisions, cf., personalized medicines

maximizing outcome

- ▶ the problem: maximizing an outcome over policies. . .
- ▶ . . . while inferring causality from observation
- ▶ different from predicting outcome in absence of action/policy

examples

- ▶ observation is not experiment
 - ▶ e.g., (Med.) smoking hurts vs unhealthy people smoke
 - ▶ e.g., (Med.) affluent get prescribed different meds/treatment
 - ▶ e.g., (life) veterans earn less vs the rich serve less⁶
 - ▶ e.g., (life) admitted to school vs learn at school?

⁶Angrist, Joshua D. (1990). "Lifetime Earnings and the Vietnam Draft Lottery: Evidence from Social Security Administrative Records". American Economic Review 80 (3): 313–336.

reinforcement/machine learning/graphical models

- ▶ key idea: model joint $p(y, a, x)$
- ▶ explore/exploit: family of joints $p_{\alpha}(y, a, x)$
- ▶ “causality”: $p_{\alpha}(y, a, x) = p(y|a, x)p_{\alpha}(a|x)p(x)$ “a causes y”
- ▶ nomenclature: ‘response’, ‘policy’/‘bias’, ‘prior’ above

in general

also describes both the 'exploration' and 'exploitation' distributions

randomized controlled trial

also Pearl's 'do' distribution: a distribution with “no arrows” pointing to the action variable.

POISE: calculation, estimation, optimization

- ▶ POISE: “policy optimization via importance sample estimation”
- ▶ Monte Carlo importance sampling estimation
 - ▶ aka “off policy estimation”
 - ▶ role of “IPW”
- ▶ reduction
- ▶ normalization
- ▶ hyper-parameter searching
- ▶ unexpected connection: personalized medicine

POISE setup and Goal

- ▶ “a causes y” $\iff \exists$ family $p_{\alpha}(y, a, x) = p(y|a, x)p_{\alpha}(a|x)p(x)$
- ▶ define off-policy/exploration distribution
$$p_{-}(y, a, x) = p(y|a, x)p_{-}(a|x)p(x)$$
- ▶ define exploitation distribution
$$p_{+}(y, a, x) = p(y|a, x)p_{+}(a|x)p(x)$$
- ▶ Goal: Maximize $E_{+}(Y)$ over $p_{+}(a|x)$ using data drawn from $p_{-}(y, a, x)$.

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$$p_-(y, a, x) = p(y|a, x)p_-(a|x)p(x)$$
- ▶ define exploitation distribution
$$p_+(y, a, x) = p(y|a, x)p_+(a|x)p(x)$$
- ▶ Goal: Maximize $E_+(Y)$ over $p_+(a|x)$ using data drawn from $p_-(y, a, x)$.

notation: $\{x, a, y\} \in \{X, A, Y\}$ i.e., $E_\alpha(Y)$ is not a function of y

POISE math: IS+Monte Carlo estimation=ISE

i.e, “importance sampling estimation”

- ▶ $E_+(Y) \equiv \sum_{yax} yp_+(y, a, x)$
- ▶ $E_+(Y) = \sum_{yax} yp_-(y, a, x)(p_+(y, a, x)/p_-(y, a, x))$
- ▶ $E_+(Y) = \sum_{yax} yp_-(y, a, x)(p_+(a|x)/p_-(a|x))$
- ▶ $E_+(Y) \approx N^{-1} \sum_i y_i(p_+(a_i|x_i)/p_-(a_i|x_i))$

POISE math: IS+Monte Carlo estimation=ISE

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- ▶ $E_+(Y) \approx N^{-1} \sum_i y_i(p_+(a_i|x_i)/p_-(a_i|x_i))$

let's spend some time getting to know this last equation, the importance sampling estimate of outcome in a “causal model” (“a causes y”) among $\{y, a, x\}$

Observation (cf. Bottou⁷)

- ▶ factorizing $P_{\pm}(x)$: $\frac{P_{+}(x)}{P_{-}(x)} = \prod_{\text{factors}} \frac{P_{+\text{but not}-}(x)}{P_{-\text{but not}+}(x)}$
- ▶ origin: importance sampling $E_q(f) = E_p(fq/p)$ (as in variational methods)
- ▶ the “causal” model $p_{\alpha}(y, a, x) = p(y|a, x)p_{\alpha}(a|x)p(x)$ helps here
- ▶ factors left over are numerator ($p_{+}(a|x)$, to optimize) and denominator ($p_{-}(a|x)$, to infer if not a RCT)
- ▶ unobserved confounders will confound us (later)

⁷Counterfactual Reasoning and Learning Systems, arXiv:1209.2355

Reduction (cf. Langford^{8,9,10} ('05, '08, '09))

- ▶ consider numerator for deterministic policy:
 $p_+(a|x) = 1[a = h(x)]$
- ▶ $E_+(Y) \propto \sum_i (y_i / p_-(a|x)) 1[a = h(x)] \equiv \sum_i w_i 1[a = h(x)]$
- ▶ Note: $1[c = d] = 1 - 1[c \neq d]$
- ▶ $\therefore E_+(Y) \propto \text{constant} - \sum_i w_i 1[a \neq h(x)]$
- ▶ \therefore reduces policy optimization to (weighted) classification

⁸Langford & Zadrozny “Relating Reinforcement Learning Performance to Classification Performance” ICML 2005

⁹Beygelzimer & Langford “The offset tree for learning with partial labels” (KDD 2009)

¹⁰Tutorial on “Reductions” (including at ICML 2009)

Reduction w/optimistic complication

- ▶ Prescription \iff classification $L = \sum_i w_i 1[a_i \neq h(x_i)]$
- ▶ weight $w_i = y_i/p_-(a_i|x_i)$, inferred or RCT
- ▶ destroys measure by treating $p_-(a|x)$ differently than $1/p_-(a|x)$
- ▶ normalize as $\tilde{L} \equiv \frac{\sum_i y_i 1[a_i \neq h(x_i)]/p_-(a_i|x_i)}{\sum_i 1[a_i \neq h(x_i)]/p_-(a_i|x_i)}$
- ▶ destroys lovely reduction
- ▶ simply¹¹ $L(\lambda) = \sum_i (y_i - \lambda) 1[a_i \neq h(x_i)]/p_-(a_i|x_i)$
- ▶ hidden here is a 2nd parameter, in classification, \therefore harder search

¹¹Suggestion by Dan Hsu

POISE punchlines

- ▶ allows policy planning even with implicit logged exploration data¹²
- ▶ e.g., two hospital story
- ▶ “personalized medicine” is also a policy
- ▶ abundant data available, under-explored IMHO

¹²Strehl, Alex, et al. “Learning from logged implicit exploration data.” Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems. 2010.

tangent: causality as told by an economist

different, related goal

- ▶ they think in terms of ATE/ITE instead of policy
 - ▶ ATE
 - ▶ $\tau \equiv E_0(Y|a=1) - E_0(Y|a=0) \equiv Q(a=1) - Q(a=0)$
 - ▶ CATE aka Individualized Treatment Effect (ITE)
 - ▶ $\tau(x) \equiv E_0(Y|a=1, x) - E_0(Y|a=0, x)$
 - ▶ $\equiv Q(a=1, x) - Q(a=0, x)$

Q-note: “generalizing” Monte Carlo w/kernels

- ▶ MC: $E_p(f) = \sum_x p(x)f(x) \approx N^{-1} \sum_{i \sim p} f(x_i)$
- ▶ K : $p \approx N^{-1} \sum_i K(x|x_i)$
- ▶ $\Rightarrow \sum_x p(x)f(x) \approx N^{-1} \sum_i \sum_x f(x)K(x|x_i)$
- ▶ K can be any normalized function, e.g., $K(x|x_i) = \delta_{x,x_i}$, which yields MC.
- ▶ multivariate
$$E_p(f) \approx N^{-1} \sum_i \sum_{yax} f(y, a, x) K_1(y|y_i) K_2(a|a_i) K_3(x|x_i)$$

Q-note: application w/strata+matching, setup

Helps think about economists' approach:

- ▶ $Q(a, x) \equiv E(Y|a, x) = \sum_y y p(y|a, x) = \sum_y y \frac{p_-(y, a, x)}{p_-(a|x)p(x)}$
- ▶ $= \frac{1}{p_-(a|x)p(x)} \sum_y y p_-(y, a, x)$
- ▶ stratify x using $z(x)$ such that $\cup z = X$, and $\cap z, z' =$
- ▶ $n(x) = \sum_i 1[z(x_i) = z(x)]$ = number of points in x 's stratum
- ▶ $\Omega(x) = \sum_{x'} 1[z(x') = z(x)]$ = area of x 's stratum
- ▶ $\therefore K_3(x|x_i) = 1[z(x) = z(x_i)]/\Omega(x)$
- ▶ as in *MC*, $K_1(y|y_i) = \delta_{y, y_i}$, $K_2(a|a_i) = \delta_{a, a_i}$

Q-note: application w/strata+matching, payoff

- ▶ $\sum_y y p_-(y, a, x) \approx N^{-1} \Omega(x)^{-1} \sum_{a_i=a, z(x_i)=z(x)} y_i$
- ▶ $p(x) \approx (n(x)/N) \Omega(x)^{-1}$
- ▶ $\therefore Q(a, x) \approx p_-(a|x)^{-1} n(x)^{-1} \sum_{a_i=a, z(x_i)=z(x)} y_i$

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“matching” means: choose each z to contain 1 positive example & 1 negative example,

- ▶ $p_-(a|x) \approx 1/2, n(x) = 2$
- ▶ $\therefore \tau(a, x) = Q(a = 1, x) - Q(a = 0, x) = y_1(x) - y_0(x)$
- ▶ z -generalizations: graphs, digraphs, k -NN, “matching”
- ▶ K -generalizations: continuous a , any metric or similarity you like,...

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IMHO underexplored

causality, as understood in marketing

- ▶ a/b testing and RCT
- ▶ yield optimization
- ▶ Lorenz curve (vs ROC plots)

unobserved confounders vs. “causality” modeling

- ▶ truth: $p_{\alpha}(y, a, x, u) = p(y|a, x, u)p_{\alpha}(a|x, u)p(x, u)$
- ▶ but: $p_{+}(y, a, x, u) = p(y|a, x, u)p_{-}(a|x)p(x, u)$
- ▶ $E_{+}(Y) \equiv \sum_{yaxu} yp_{+}(yaxu) \approx$
 $N^{-1} \sum_{i \sim p_{-}} y_i p_{+}(a|x) / p_{-}(a|x, u)$
- ▶ denominator can not be inferred, ignore at your peril

cautionary tale problem: Simpson's paradox

- ▶ a : admissions ($a=1$: admitted, $a=0$: declined)
- ▶ x : gender ($x=1$: female, $x=0$: male)
- ▶ lawsuit (1973): $.44 = p(a = 1|x = 0) > p(a = 1|x = 1) = .35$
- ▶ 'resolved' by Bickel (1975)¹³ (See also Pearl¹⁴)
- ▶ u : unobserved department they applied to
- ▶ $p(a|x) = \sum_{u=1}^{u=6} p(a|x, u)p(u|x)$
- ▶ e.g., gender-blind: $p(a|1) - p(a|0) = p(a|u) \cdot (p(u|1) - p(u|0))$

¹³P.J. Bickel, E.A. Hammel and J.W. O'Connell (1975). "Sex Bias in Graduate Admissions: Data From Berkeley". Science 187 (4175): 398–404

¹⁴Pearl, Judea (December 2013). "Understanding Simpson's paradox". UCLA Cognitive Systems Laboratory, Technical Report R-414.

confounded approach: quasi-experiments + instruments ¹⁷

- ▶ Q: does engagement drive retention? (NYT, NFLX, ...)
 - ▶ we don't directly control engagement
 - ▶ nonetheless useful since many things can influence it
- ▶ Q: does serving in Vietnam war decrease earnings¹⁵?
 - ▶ US didn't directly control serving in Vietnam, either¹⁶
- ▶ requires **strong assumptions**, including linear model

¹⁵Angrist, Joshua D. "Lifetime earnings and the Vietnam era draft lottery: evidence from social security administrative records." The American Economic Review (1990): 313-336.

¹⁶cf., George Bush, Donald Trump, Bill Clinton, Dick Cheney...

¹⁷I thank Sinan Aral, MIT Sloan, for bringing this to my attention

IV: graphical model assumption

IV: graphical model assumption (sideways)

IV: review s/OLS/MOM/ (E is empirical average)

- ▶ *a* endogenous
 - ▶ e.g., $\exists u$ s.t. $p(y|a, x, u), p(a|x, u)$
- ▶ linear ansatz: $y = \beta^T a + \epsilon$
- ▶ if *a* exogenous (e.g., OLS), use $E[YA_j] = E[\beta^T AA_j] + E[\epsilon A_j]$
(note that $E[A_j A_k]$ gives square matrix; invert for β)
- ▶ add *instrument* x uncorrelated with ϵ
- ▶ $E[YX_k] = E[\beta^T AX_k] + E[\epsilon]E[X_k]$
- ▶ $E[Y] = E[\beta^T A] + E[\epsilon]$ (from ansatz)
- ▶ $C(Y, X_k) = \beta^T C(A, X_k)$, not an “inversion” problem, requires “two stage regression”

IV: binary, binary case (aka “Wald estimator”)

- ▶ $y = \beta a + \epsilon$
- ▶ $E(Y|x) = \beta E(A|x) + E(\epsilon)$, evaluate at $x = \{0, 1\}$
- ▶ $\beta = (E(Y|x = 1) - E(Y|x = 0)) / (E(A|x = 1) - E(A|x = 0))$.

bandits: obligatory slide

bandits

- ▶ wide applicability: humane clinical trials, targeting, ...
- ▶ replace meetings with code
- ▶ requires software engineering to replace decisions with, e.g., Javascript
- ▶ most useful if decisions or items get “stale” quickly
- ▶ less useful for one-off, major decisions to be “interpreted”

¹⁸Thompson, William R. “On the likelihood that one unknown probability exceeds another in view of the evidence of two samples”. *Biometrika*, 25(3–4):285–294, 1933.

¹⁹AKA “probability matching”, “posterior sampling”

²⁰cf., “Bayesian Bandit Explorer” ([link](#))

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examples

- ▶ ϵ -greedy (no context, aka ‘vanilla’, aka ‘context-free’)
- ▶ UCB1 (2002) (no context) + LinUCB (with context)
- ▶ Thompson Sampling (1933)^{18,19,20} (general, with or without context)

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TS: connecting w/ “generative causal modeling” 0

- ▶ WAS $p(y, x, a) = p(y|x, a)p_\alpha(a|x)p(x)$
- ▶ These 3 terms were treated by
 - ▶ response $p(y|a, x)$: avoid regression/infering using importance sampling
 - ▶ policy $p_\alpha(a|x)$: optimize ours, infer theirs
 - ▶ (NB: ours was deterministic: $p(a|x) = 1[a = h(x)]$)
 - ▶ prior $p(x)$: either avoid by importance sampling or estimate via kernel methods
- ▶ In the economics approach we focus on
- ▶ $\tau(\dots) \equiv Q(a = 1, \dots) - Q(a = 0, \dots)$ “treatment effect”
- ▶ where $Q(a, \dots) = \sum_y yp(y|\dots)$

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In Thompson sampling we will generate 1 datum at a time, by

- ▶ asserting a parameterized generative model for $p(y|a, x, \theta)$
- ▶ using a deterministic but averaged policy

TS: connecting w/“generative causal modeling” 1

- ▶ model true world response function $p(y|a, x)$ parametrically as $p(y|a, x, \theta^*)$
- ▶ (i.e., θ^* is the true value of the parameter)²¹
- ▶ if you knew θ :
 - ▶ could compute $Q(a, x, \theta) \equiv \sum_y y p(y|x, a, \theta^*)$ directly
 - ▶ then choose $h(x; \theta) = \operatorname{argmax}_a Q(a, x, \theta)$
 - ▶ inducing policy $p(a|x, \theta) = 1[a = h(x; \theta) = \operatorname{argmax}_a Q(a, x, \theta)]$
- ▶ idea: use prior data $D = \{y, a, x\}_1^t$ to define *non-deterministic* policy:
 - ▶ $p(a|x) = \int d\theta p(a|x, \theta) p(\theta|D)$
 - ▶ $p(a|x) = \int d\theta 1[a = \operatorname{argmax}_{a'} Q(a', x, \theta)] p(\theta|D)$
- ▶ hold up:
 - ▶ Q1: what's $p(\theta|D)$?
 - ▶ Q2: how am I going to evaluate this integral?

²¹Note that θ is a vector, with components for each action.

TS: connecting w/“generative causal modeling” 2

- ▶ Q1: what's $p(\theta|D)$?
- ▶ Q2: how am I going to evaluate this integral?
- ▶ A1: $p(\theta|D)$ definable by choosing prior $p(\theta|\alpha)$ and likelihood on y given by the (modeled, parameterized) response $p(y|a, x, \theta)$.
 - ▶ (now you're not only generative, you're Bayesian.)
 - ▶ $p(\theta|D) = p(\theta|\{y\}_1^t, \{a\}_1^t, \{x\}_1^t, \alpha)$
 - ▶ $\propto p(\{y\}_1^t|\{a\}_1^t, \{x\}_1^t, \theta)p(\theta|\alpha)$
 - ▶ $= p(\theta|\alpha)\prod_t p(y_t|a_t, x_t, \theta)$
 - ▶ *warning 1*: sometimes people write “ $p(D|\theta)$ ” but we don't need $p(a|\theta)$ or $p(x|\theta)$ here
 - ▶ *warning 2*: don't need historical record of θ_t .
 - ▶ (we used Bayes rule, but only in θ and y .)
- ▶ A2: evaluate integral by $N = 1$ Monte Carlo
 - ▶ take 1 sample “ θ_t ” of θ from $p(\theta|D)$
 - ▶ $a_t = h(x_t; \theta_t) = \operatorname{argmax}_a Q(a, x, \theta_t)$

That sounds hard.

No, just general. Let's do toy case:

- ▶ $y \in \{0, 1\}$,
- ▶ no context x ,
- ▶ Bernoulli (coin flipping), keep track of
 - ▶ $S_a \equiv$ number of successes flipping coin a
 - ▶ $F_a \equiv$ number of failures flipping coin a

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- ▶ $y \in \{0, 1\}$,
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Then

- ▶ $p(\theta|D) \propto p(\theta|\alpha) \prod_t p(y_t|a_t, \theta)$
- ▶ $= \left(\prod_a \theta_a^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta_a)^{\beta-1} \right) \left(\prod_{t,a_t} \theta_{a_t}^{y_t} (1 - \theta_{a_t})^{1-y_t} \right)$
- ▶ $= \prod_a \theta_a^{\alpha+S_a-1} (1 - \theta_a)^{\beta+F_a-1}$
- ▶ $\therefore \theta_a \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha + S_a, \beta + F_a)$

Thompson sampling: results (2011)

TS: words

TS: p-code

TS: Bernoulli bandit p-code²²

²²Note that θ is a vector, with components for each action.

TS: Bernoulli bandit p-code (results)

UCB1 (2002), p-code

from Auer, Peter, Nicolo Cesa-Bianchi, and Paul Fischer.

“Finite-time analysis of the multiarmed bandit problem.” Machine learning 47.2-3 (2002): 235-256.

TS: with context

LinUCB: UCB with context

From Li, Lihong, et al. “A contextual-bandit approach to personalized news article recommendation.” WWW 2010.

TS: with context (results)

Bandits: Regret via Lai and Robbins (1985)

Thompson sampling (1933) and optimality (2013)

from S. Agrawal, N. Goyal, "Further optimal regret bounds for Thompson Sampling", AISTATS 2013.; see also Agrawal, Shipra, and Navin Goyal. "Analysis of Thompson Sampling for the Multi-armed Bandit Problem." COLT. 2012 and Emilie Kaufmann, Nathaniel Korda, and R´emi Munos. Thompson sampling: An asymptotically optimal finite-time analysis. In Algorithmic Learning Theory, pages 199–213. Springer, 2012.

other 'Causalities': structure learning

D. Heckerman. A Tutorial on Learning with Bayesian Networks.
Technical Report MSR-TR-95-06, Microsoft Research, March, 1995.

other ‘Causalities’: potential outcomes

- ▶ model distribution of $p(y_i(1), y_i(0), a_i, x_i)$
- ▶ “action” replaced by “observed outcome”
- ▶ aka Neyman-Rubin causal model: Neyman ('23); Rubin ('74)
- ▶ see Morgan + Winship²³ for connections between frameworks

²³Morgan, Stephen L., and Christopher Winship. *Counterfactuals and causal inference* Cambridge University Press, 2014.

Lecture 4: descriptive modeling @ NYT

review: (latent) inference and clustering

- ▶ what does kmeans mean?
 - ▶ given $x_i \in R^D$
 - ▶ given $d : R^D \rightarrow R^1$
 - ▶ assign z_i
- ▶ generative modeling gives meaning
 - ▶ given $p(x|z, \theta)$
 - ▶ maximize $p(x|\theta)$
 - ▶ output assignment $p(z|x, \theta)$

actual math

- ▶ define $P \equiv p(x, z|\theta)$
- ▶ log-likelihood $L \equiv \log p(x|\theta) = \log \sum_z P = \log E_q P/q$
(cf. importance sampling)
- ▶ Jensen's:
$$L \geq \tilde{L} \equiv E_q \log P/q = E_q \log P + H[q] = -(U - H) = -\mathcal{F}$$
 - ▶ analogy to free energy in physics
- ▶ alternate optimization on θ and on q
 - ▶ NB: q step gives $q(z) = p(z|x, \theta)$
 - ▶ NB: $\log P$ convenient for independent examples w/ exponential families
 - ▶ e.g., GMMs: $\mu_k \leftarrow E[x|z]$ and $\sigma_k^2 \leftarrow E[(x - \mu)^2|z]$ are sufficient statistics
 - ▶ e.g., LDAs: word counts are sufficient statistics

tangent: more math on GMMs, part 1

Energy U (to be minimized):

- ▶ $-U \equiv E_q \log P = \sum_z \sum_i q_i(z) \log P(x_i, z_i) \equiv U_x + U_z$
- ▶ $-U_x \equiv \sum_z \sum_i q_i(z) \log p(x_i|z_i)$
- ▶ $= \sum_i \sum_z q_i(z) \sum_k 1[z_i = k] \log p(x_i|z_i)$
- ▶ define $r_{ik} = \sum_z q_i(z) 1[z_i = k]$
- ▶ $-U_x = \sum_i r_{ik} \log p(x_i|k)$.
- ▶ Gaussian²⁴
 $\Rightarrow -U_x = \sum_i r_{ik} \left(-\frac{1}{2}(x_i - \mu_k)^2 \lambda_k + \frac{1}{2} \ln \lambda_k - \frac{1}{2} \ln 2\pi \right)$

²⁴math is simpler if you work with $\lambda_k \equiv \sigma^{-2}$

tangent: more math on GMMs, part 1

Energy U (to be minimized):

- ▶ $-U \equiv E_q \log P = \sum_z \sum_i q_i(z) \log P(x_i, z_i) \equiv U_x + U_z$
- ▶ $-U_x \equiv \sum_z \sum_i q_i(z) \log p(x_i|z_i)$
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simple to minimize for parameters $\vartheta = \{\mu_k, \lambda_k\}$

²⁴math is simpler if you work with $\lambda_k \equiv \sigma^{-2}$

tangent: more math on GMMs, part 2

- ▶ $-U_x = \sum_i r_{ik} \left(-\frac{1}{2}(x_i - \mu_k)^2 \lambda_k + \frac{1}{2} \ln \lambda_k - \frac{1}{2} \ln 2\pi \right)$
- ▶ $\mu_k \leftarrow E[x|k]$ solves $\sum_i r_{ik} = \sum_i r_{ik} x_i$
- ▶ $\lambda_k \leftarrow E[(x - \mu)^2|k]$ solves $\sum_i r_{ik} \frac{1}{2}(x_i - \mu_k)^2 = \lambda_k^{-1} \sum_i r_{ik}$

tangent: Gaussians \in exponential family²⁶

- ▶ as before, $-U = \sum_i r_{ik} \log p(x_i|k)$
- ▶ define $p(x_i|k) = \exp(\eta(\theta) \cdot T(x) - A(\theta) + B(x))$
- ▶ e.g., Gaussian case ²⁵,
 - ▶ $T_1 = x$,
 - ▶ $T_2 = x^2$
 - ▶ $\eta_1 = \mu/\sigma^2 = \mu\lambda$
 - ▶ $\eta_2 = -\frac{1}{2}\lambda = -1/(2\sigma^2)$
 - ▶ $A = \lambda\mu^2/2 - \frac{1}{2} \ln \lambda$
 - ▶ $\exp(B(x)) = (2\pi)^{-1/2}$
- ▶ note that in a mixture model, there are separate η (and thus $A(\eta)$) for each value of z

²⁵Choosing $\eta(\theta) = \eta$ called 'canonical form'

²⁶NB: Gaussians \in exponential family, GMM \notin exponential family! (Thanks to Eszter Vértés for pointing out this error in earlier title.)

tangent: variational joy \in exponential family

- ▶ as before, $-U = \sum_i r_{ik} \left(\eta_k^T T(x_i) - A(\eta_k) + B(x_i) \right)$
- ▶ $\eta_{k,\alpha}$ solves $\sum_i r_{ik} T_{k,\alpha}(x_i) = \frac{\partial A(\eta_k)}{\partial \eta_{k,\alpha}} \sum_i r_{ik}$ (canonical)
- ▶ $\therefore \partial_{\eta_{k,\alpha}} A(\eta_k) \leftarrow E[T_{k,\alpha}|k]$ (canonical)
- ▶ nice connection w/physics, esp. mean field theory²⁷

²⁷read MacKay, David JC. *Information theory, inference and learning algorithms*, Cambridge university press, 2003 to learn more. Actually you should read it regardless.

clustering and inference: GMM/k-means case study

- ▶ generative model gives meaning and optimization
- ▶ large freedom to choose different optimization approaches
 - ▶ e.g., hard clustering limit
 - ▶ e.g., streaming solutions
 - ▶ e.g., stochastic gradient methods

general framework: E+M/variational

- ▶ e.g., GMM+hard clustering gives kmeans
- ▶ e.g., some favorite applications:
 - ▶ hmm
 - ▶ vbmod: [arXiv:0709.3512](https://arxiv.org/abs/0709.3512)
 - ▶ ebfret: [ebfret.github.io](https://github.com/ebfret)
 - ▶ EDHMM: [edhmm.github.io](https://github.com/edhmm)

example application: LDA+topics

rec engine via CTM ²⁸

²⁸cf., bit.ly/AlexCTM for NYT blog post on how CTM informs our rec engine

recall: recommendation via factoring

CTM: combined loss function

CTM: updates for factors

CTM: (via Jensen's, again) bound on loss

Lecture 5 data product

data science and design thinking

- ▶ knowing customer
- ▶ right tool for right job
- ▶ practical matters:
 - ▶ munging
 - ▶ data ops
 - ▶ ML in prod

Thanks!

Thanks MLSS students for your great questions; please contact me @chrishwiggins or [chris.wiggins@{nytimes,gmail}.com](mailto:chris.wiggins@nytimes.com) with any questions, comments, or suggestions!