

# Personalized Ad Quality Bidding with MTML Causal Modeling and Constrained Optimization

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## Abstract

Ad quality plays a central role in ranking systems, promoting high-quality ads and demoting low-quality ones to enhance user experience and ultimately drive long-term value for both people and businesses. The quality of each ad is estimated by a value model, which computes a weighted sum of various quality predictions. Since different user cohorts exhibit heterogeneous sensitivities to the same ad, personalization aims to customize these weights to achieve a more efficient trade-off between ads performance and user engagement. In this paper, we propose a new personalization framework with two key innovations: 1) a multi-task multi-label (MTML) causal model that jointly predicts user sensitivities across multiple ad quality signals; and 2) a user sensitivity information aware and structural information aware optimization framework for learning more efficient scalar weights. With these improvements, our framework achieves a 0.5% increase in ads performance while maintaining neutral engagement, and delivers a 1.4x gain in efficiency compared to the current system.

## 1 Introduction

Social media platforms prioritize delivering high-quality user experiences by facilitating the creation and discovery of organic content. To sustain their business models, these platforms strategically insert advertisements into the content stream. While increasing the number of ad impressions may improve short-term ads performance metrics, it can degrade long-term user satisfaction—particularly when users are shown low-quality or irrelevant ads. Negative reactions such as reporting, hiding, or disliking ads are clear signals of dissatisfaction and offer valuable supervision signals to guide ranking decisions. These signals motivate the development of quantitative methods to assess and enforce ad quality as a central part of ad delivery systems.

Modern ad ranking systems use machine learning models to estimate the likelihood of various negative user interactions, such as low relevance scores, high hide rates, or poor feedback. Each model prediction is associated with a positive

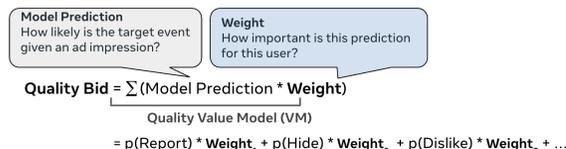


Figure 1: Illustration of quality value model.

scalar weight that reflects the system’s prioritization of different types of negative signals. The weighted predictions, often referred to as quality bids, are aggregated by a value model to produce the final ad score (Figure 1). This score is used to rank and serve ads, balancing ads performance goals with user experience constraints. The effectiveness of this balance directly affects both platform ads performance and user retention, making the value model a central component of any large-scale ad system.

Traditionally, the value model applies a uniform policy in which the scalar weights are fixed across the entire user base. However, users exhibit substantial heterogeneity in their sensitivities to different ad signals. For instance, some users may be highly tolerant of repetitive creatives or strong calls-to-action, while others may find such features intrusive. Applying the same penalty weights to all users fails to capture these nuances, potentially leaving performance gains on the table. By customizing scalar weights for different user cohorts, the system can selectively relax or enforce quality constraints, thus enabling more personalized ad exposure strategies. We refer to this scalar customization process as *personalization*<sup>1</sup>.

The personalization process consists of two core components: cohort prediction and scalar weight optimization. In the first stage, the system must infer which cohort a given user belongs to based on their sensitivity to various ad quality signals. Cohort prediction is a crucial step tailoring the ad experience to users in different cohorts, it can be achieved through various machine learning models, such as clustering algorithms (e.g. k-means [MacQueen and B., 1967]) or classification models (e.g. logistic regression [Jr. et al., 2013]), these methods typically group users by their demographic, behavior and engagement pattern. However, these classical machine learning models may not capture the underlying

<sup>1</sup>Ideally we want the personalization process to be performed on individual user level, due to complexity constraints, currently we focus on user cohort level.

ing causal relationships between user characteristics and preferences. To address this limitation, causal modeling techniques are employed, allowing us to identify the causal relationships between variables rather than correlations and enabling more accurate predictions and better decision-making. The key focus of causal modeling for cohort prediction is the incremental change in outcome due to a treatment or intervention [Rubin, 2005], which is termed heterogeneous treatment effect (HTE) or conditional average treatment effect (CATE). Uplift models have been used extensively in the analysis of HTE/CATE and there are several major categories: (1) Causal Trees, where different splitting criteria such as distribution divergences [Radcliffe and Surry, 2011] and expected responses [Saito *et al.*, 2020; Zhao *et al.*, 2017] are used to divide user groups; (2) Meta-learner, which predicts the expected outcome to tackle the counterfactual problem [Künzel *et al.*, 2019; Alaa *et al.*, 2023]; (3) Deep Neural Networks (DNNs), which leverage the robust representation power and the exceptional predictive capability of DNNs to model causal relationships [Shi *et al.*, 2024; Raul *et al.*, 2023; Shalit *et al.*, 2017; Louizos *et al.*, 2017]; and (4) Sequential modeling, which focuses on long-term reward and enables continuous learning [Zhao *et al.*, 2020; Du *et al.*, 2019a]. In our proposed framework, we design a multi-task multi-label (MTML) causal model that jointly predicts user sensitivity across multiple quality dimensions. This model captures shared representations across tasks while modeling the individual treatment effects for each quality signal. As a result, it provides a compact and expressive way to encode user-level quality preferences.

The second component of our personalization framework involves optimizing the scalar weights for each user cohort. This is a constrained optimization problem that seeks to maximize user engagement subject to ad performance constraints. There are various optimization problem formulation to achieve this goal, such as Bayesian optimization [Agarwal *et al.*, 2018], policy gradient approach [Jeunen *et al.*, 2024], multi-objective optimization [Tang *et al.*, 2024] using convex optimization [Boyd and Vandenberghe, 2004], learning based control [Agarwal *et al.*, 2014], functional optimization [Zhang *et al.*, 2014] and reinforcement learning [Cai *et al.*, 2017]. However, many of these approaches—especially black-box or sample-inefficient methods such as Bayesian optimization and reinforcement learning—face significant practical challenges when applied at industrial scale. These include high computational cost, lack of transparency, lower robustness and slow convergence. In contrast, we adopt a white-box convex optimization approach, which provides a more tractable and interpretable solution pathway. Convex programs enable deterministic guarantees, exploit the problem structure induced by the value model and user sensitivity estimates, and scale efficiently to the billions of impressions handled in a production system. This formulation ensures both robustness and deployability, making it well-suited for large-scale personalization.

In this paper, we present a novel bi-level personalization framework called Opus (OPTimization and User Sensitivity modeling); the detail flow of this framework are: 1) in the user cohort prediction phase, a MTML model is developed

to predict user’s sensitivity level for multiple quality bids simultaneously; 2) in the mathematical optimization phase: a convex optimization problem is formulated and solved to obtain the optimal scalar for each user cohort. The contributions of this paper are as follows:

- We design a multi-task multi-label (MTML) causal model that jointly estimates user sensitivity across multiple ad quality dimensions. By leveraging cross-domain knowledge transfer, the model effectively addresses quality signal sparsity and achieves an average AUCC gain of 2% (Area Under Cost Curve).
- We propose a convex optimization framework that learns personalized value model weights, enabling fine-grained control over the trade-off between user engagement and ad performance. This approach improves engagement/ads performance metric efficiency by 1.44× compared to the current baseline.
- Our end-to-end system delivers a 0.5% lift in ad performance while maintaining neutral user engagement, demonstrating measurable impact on one of the world’s largest social media platforms.

## 2 Preliminaries and Related Work

We begin with a high-level overview of the Opus framework; detailed architectural and modeling components are presented in the following section.

### 2.1 Heterogeneous Treatment Effect Modeling

Heterogeneous treatment effect (HTE) modeling refers to the process of predicting a user’s sensitivity to changes in ad quality. Typically, for each quality bid, a separate machine learning model—such as a decision tree or deep neural network—is trained to map user features to a cohort identifier. However, this approach has several limitations: 1) The number of models grows linearly with the number of quality bids, making system maintenance increasingly inefficient; 2) Quality bids often exhibit semantic or behavioral similarity, yet independent modeling fails to leverage shared information across tasks, potentially missing out on richer representations and improved performance.

To address these limitations, we adopt a multi-task multi-label (MTML) model paradigm that predicts user cohorts across multiple quality bids simultaneously. MTML architectures have demonstrated strong performance in various ad-related tasks, including personalized recommendation [Gao *et al.*, 2024; Tang *et al.*, 2020; Ma *et al.*, 2018a], model debiasing [Ma *et al.*, 2018b; Zhang *et al.*, 2020], and auction design [Ma *et al.*, 2022; Kalra *et al.*, 2023].

In our MTML setup, all user features are first processed by shared layers to learn generalizable representations, which are then passed to task-specific heads that independently predict cohort assignments for each quality bid. This joint training strategy improves model robustness and overall prediction performance across domains, helping to mitigate common challenges such as data imbalance, noisy supervision, and domain-specific overfitting.

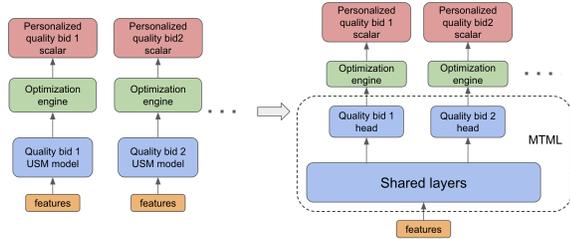


Figure 2: MTML model for user sensitivity prediction.

## 2.2 Mathematical Optimization

Given the user sensitivity predictions from the MTML model, the next step is to derive optimal scalar weights for each cohort to maximize top-line metrics. To enable supervised learning in this phase, we conduct randomized controlled trial (RCT) experiments. In these experiments, users are randomly assigned to treatment groups, each configured with a different manually selected scalar for a given quality bid. By recording the resulting ad performance and user engagement metrics under each scalar, we construct a training and evaluation dataset for optimization.

Using this data, we formulate a constrained optimization problem as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{maximize} && \text{Total Engagement} \\ & \text{subject to} && \text{Total Ads Performance} \geq \text{Performance Constraint.} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

In this high-level formulation, the optimization variables are the scalar weights assigned to each user cohort. The objective is to maximize overall user engagement, subject to maintaining a minimum level of ad performance. While alternative formulations are possible (e.g., maximizing ad performance subject to engagement constraints), we adopt the engagement-maximization form in Eq. (1), and demonstrate that it can also be adapted to prioritize ad performance as needed.

## 3 Detailed Design

In this section, a detailed walk through of the Opus framework will be provided. For notational clarity, matrices are in bold upper case (e.g.  $\mathbf{A}$ ), vectors are in bold lower case (e.g.  $\mathbf{x}$ ), scalars and variables are non-bold (e.g.  $\alpha$ ,  $a$ ).

### 3.1 MTML Model for User Sensitivity Prediction

To estimate the causal treatment effects of multiple quality bids simultaneously, we adopted a unified multi-task multi-label (MTML) causal modeling approach (as shown in Figure 2). Unlike modeling each treatment and domain independently, the MTML framework allows the model to learn shared representations across tasks and domains, facilitating knowledge transfer. This is particularly valuable when data quality or treatment labeling may vary across surfaces—errors or sparsity in one domain can be mitigated by more robust signal from the other. Furthermore, user or contextual patterns may exhibit cross-domain commonalities, which can be effectively captured by shared layers in the MTML architecture, enhancing generalization. By jointly

modeling the multiple treatments, we also enable the model to better understand interaction or substitution effects when both treatment types may co-occur or influence similar downstream metrics.

In the MTML architecture, input feature will go through a shared bottom layer, which is responsible for learning common knowledge among all tasks; later the shared output are fed into different task-specific heads which learn task-specific features and produce task outputs. The shared layers and task-specific heads are both feed-forward neural networks with non-linear activation functions.

The input features to the MTML model typically include user demographic features and user activity features, let  $\mathbf{x}$  represent the input feature vector and there are  $N$  shared layers; also let  $\mathbf{W}_i$  and  $\mathbf{b}_i$  be the shared weight matrix and shared bias vector in shared layer  $i$ , the final output of the shared layer  $\mathbf{h}_{shared}$  is represented as:

$$\mathbf{h}_{shared} = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_{N-1} \dots \sigma(\mathbf{W}_2 \sigma(\mathbf{W}_0 \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}_0) + \mathbf{b}_1) \dots + \mathbf{b}_{N-1}), \quad (2)$$

where  $\sigma(\cdot)$  is the ReLU activation function. Then the shared layer output  $\mathbf{h}_{shared}$  serves as the common input to each task-specific head, similarly, the output of the task-specific layer for task  $i$  can be represented as:

$$\mathbf{g}^i = \sigma(\mathbf{W}^i \mathbf{h}_{shared} + \mathbf{b}^i), \quad (3)$$

where  $\mathbf{W}^i$  and  $\mathbf{b}^i$  are the weight matrix and the bias vector for task  $i$ . After the task layers, the final out is computed as:

$$\mathbf{y}^i = \mathbf{W}^i \mathbf{g}^i + \mathbf{b}^i. \quad (4)$$

To train the MTML model, the loss function is defined as a weighted sum of the mean squared error loss for each task:

$$\mathcal{L}_{total} = \sum_i \omega_i \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}^i, \hat{\mathbf{y}}^i), \quad (5)$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = - \sum_j (\mathbf{y}_j - \hat{\mathbf{y}}_j)^2. \quad (6)$$

$\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  is ground-truth label vector for each data point and  $\mathbf{y}$  is the model output.

In our case, the user's sensitivity score is defined as the expected engagement gain per expected ads performance loss, i.e., the ratio form of two objective CATE's. The larger the ratio, the user is more sensitive to ads quality treatment. However, it is well known that ratio form is more noisy to model directly due to the noise amplification from outliers. To address this challenge, we adopt the Lagrangian selecting criterial [Du *et al.*, 2019b] used in [Shi *et al.*, 2024], to transform the conditional outcome metric to linear form as follows:

$$T_t = R_t + \lambda \cdot Q_t, \quad (7)$$

where  $R_t$  and  $Q_t$  are the ads performance and quality bid value after treatment  $t$  is applied (e.g. setting the weighting scalar for this quality bid to a particular value). Note that  $\lambda$  is a hyper-parameter of the model that we will search during the model tuning. Let  $t = 1$  represent that certain scalar is applied to the quality bid and  $t = 0$  represent the scalar associated to the quality bid is 0, the user's sensitivity (transformed

274 by Lagrangian selecting criteria) can be mathematically computed as:  
 275

$$\Delta T = T_{t=1} - T_{t=0}. \quad (8)$$

276 However, it is challenging to obtain the sensitivity score from  
 277 the RCT experiment due to counterfactual effect, *i.e.* the indi-  
 278 vidual in the experiment can not be in the treatment and control  
 279 group simultaneously. To tackle this problem, the doubly  
 280 robust learner (DRL) method [Shi *et al.*, 2024] is employed  
 281 to estimate the user sensitivity score; the MTML paradigm  
 282 is then applied on top of DRL estimator to estimate multiple  
 283 cross-domain sensitivity score as multiple tasks.

### 284 3.2 Linear Programming

285 Let  $N$  be the number of user cohorts and  $D$  be the cardinal-  
 286 ity of scalar decisions, also denote  $\{\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{D-1}\}$  as the  
 287 finite scalar decision set that we choose to apply to different  
 288 user cohorts. From the dataset collected from the RCT experi-  
 289 ment; an engagement matrix  $\mathbf{E}_{N \times D}$  and an ads performance  
 290 matrix  $\mathbf{P}_{N \times D}$  can be obtained, where  $\mathbf{E}_{i,j}$  represents the engage-  
 291 ment response of cohort  $i$  when applying scalar decision  
 292  $\alpha_j$ ,  $\mathbf{P}_{i,j}$  represents the ads performance response of cohort  
 293  $i$  when applying scalar decision  $\alpha_j$ . Let  $x_{i,j} \in \{0, 1\}$  be the  
 294 binary variable denoting whether cohort  $i$  should be assigned  
 295 scalar  $\alpha_j$ ; also denote  $B$  as the baseline ads performance and  
 296  $0 < \rho < 1$  as the ads performance budget. Given the finite  
 297 response of scalar decisions, a naive integer programming op-  
 298 timization (ILP) can be formulated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \max \quad & \sum_{\substack{0 \leq i < N-1 \\ 0 \leq j < D-1}} \mathbf{E}_{i,j} \cdot x_{i,j} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{\substack{0 \leq i < N-1 \\ 0 \leq j < D-1}} \mathbf{P}_{i,j} \cdot x_{i,j} \geq (1 - \rho)B, \\ & \sum_{0 \leq j < D-1} x_{i,j} = 1, \quad \forall i = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

299 The equality constraint in (9) ensures that for each cohort,  
 300 only one valid scalar is chosen. On one hand, the ILP formu-  
 301 lation ensures that the solution is optimal; on the other hand, it  
 302 is also considered a NP-hard problem, which imposes a great  
 303 challenge to the scalability as  $N$  and  $D$  increase; especially  
 304 when it is more desirable to optimize over a continuous scalar  
 305 range rather than a finite set of scalar numbers. In order to  
 306 achieve this goal, certain relaxation is needed to reduce the  
 307 problem's complexity and some approximations are required  
 308 to estimate the ads performance and engagement response for  
 309 each cohort under arbitrary scalar.

310 In the engagement matrix  $\mathbf{E}_{N \times D}$  and ads performance  
 311 matrix  $\mathbf{P}_{N \times D}$ , each row of  $\mathbf{E}_{N \times D}$  and  $\mathbf{P}_{N \times D}$  can be  
 312 viewed as the engagement response sample points and ads  
 313 performance response sample points given scalar samples  
 314  $\{\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{D-1}\}$ , respectively. With these information,  
 315 least square curve fitting can be performed to predict the ads  
 316 performance and engagement behavior of each cohort in the  
 317 continuous space. A simple approach is to assume linearity  
 318 in both ads performance and engagement and perform linear  
 319 fitting. In this scenario, the engagement response for cohort  $i$   
 320 can be represented as  $k_i x_i + d_i$ , where  $k_i$  and  $d_i$  are the slope

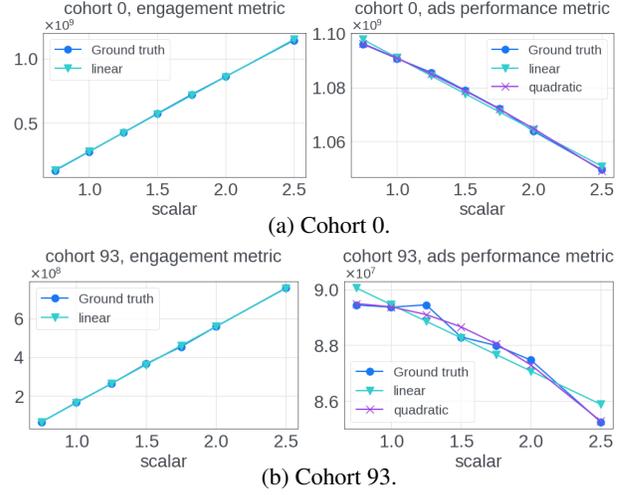


Figure 3: Curve fitting of ads performance metric and engagement metric response.

and intercept of the engagement response for cohort  $i$ ,  $x_i$  is the continuous scalar associated with cohort  $i$ ; similarly, the ads performance response for cohort  $i$  can be represented as  $w_i x_i + z_i$  and the simple linear programming problem can be formulated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \max \quad & \sum_{0 \leq i < N-1} k_i x_i + b_i \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{0 \leq i < N-1} w_i x_i + z_i \geq (1 - \rho)B, \\ & l \leq x_i \leq u, \quad \forall i \in \{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}. \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

In the above formulation (10), the objective engagement function is the sum of predicted engagement of all cohorts, the constraint ads performance function is also the sum of predicted ads performance of all cohorts.  $l$  and  $u$  are universal lower bound and upper bound for the scalar variable  $x_i$ . The advantages of LP formulation over ILP are: 1) the dimension of optimization variables is reduced from  $N \times D$  to  $N$ , making it more scalable to multi-objective and multi-constraints formulation depending on business needs; 2) LP is easier to solve than ILP (P vs NP-hard); 3) the generated policy is continuous in stead of finite set; 4) linear fitting can handle certain outliers and thus yield a more generalizable result.

However, the LP formulation relies on the linearity assumption on ads performance metric and engagement metric, which may not be true for some cohorts; in addition, the user's sensitivity information for each cohort given by the MTML output is not utilized. In the next subsection, these side information are further incorporated into the optimization problem.

### 3.3 User-sensitivity-aware and Structure-aware Constraints

In the RCT dataset, we collected the ads performance metric and engagement metric response of each cohort for the Ad quality bid and the linearity of engagement response can be verified (see Figure 3a). However, there are also strong non-linear ads performance metric behavior in some other cohorts.

353 To better capture this non-linearity, quadratic fitting is applied  
 354 to approximate the ads performance behavior for each cohort  
 355 (see Figure 3b); as a result, the ads performance response of  
 356 cohort  $i$  can be modeled as  $a_i x_i^2 + b_i x_i + c_i$ , where  $a_i$ ,  $b_i$  and  
 357  $c_i$  are the coefficients of the quadratic forms. It is also worth-  
 358 while to note that linear fitting is a special case of quadratic  
 359 fitting, hence the quadratic constraint is backward compatible  
 360 for the cohorts whose ads performance metric behavior is  
 361 linear.

362 In addition to the original LP formulation (10), we found it  
 363 crucial to incorporate product constraints to enhance general-  
 364 ization and accelerate optimizer convergence. Users are cate-  
 365 gORIZED based on model-predicted sensitivities, and it is gen-  
 366 erally optimal to assign smaller scalars to more sensitive coh-  
 367 orths. To achieve this, we introduce a monotonic constraint:  
 368 for cohort  $i$  and cohort  $j$ ,  $i, j \in \{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}$ , if  $i \leq j$ ,  
 369 then  $x_i \leq x_j$ , as cohorts are sorted in ascending order of sen-  
 370 sitivity. This approach significantly improved generalization,  
 371 as evidenced by enhanced performance on the test set, and  
 372 also resulted in faster convergence.

373 The new linear programming problem formulation with  
 374 quadratic constraint and monotonic constraint is finalized as  
 375 follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \max \quad & \sum_{0 \leq i < N-1} k_i x_i + b_i \\
 \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{0 \leq i < N-1} a_i x_i^2 + b_i x_i + c_i \geq (1 - \rho)B, \\
 & l \leq x_i \leq u, \forall i \in \{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}, \\
 & x_i \leq x_j, \forall i \leq j \text{ and } i, j \in \{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}. \quad (11)
 \end{aligned}$$

376 The final optimization problem can be solved by the embed-  
 377 ded conic solver (ECOS) [Domahidi *et al.*, 2013], a classical  
 378 primal-dual interior-point solver [Wright, 1997] for convex  
 379 cone programs. ECOS reformulates our quadratically con-  
 380 strained problem into conic form by expressing the quadratic  
 381 constraint as a second-order cone. It then solves the result-  
 382 ing second-order cone program (SOCP) using a primal-dual  
 383 Newton method, iteratively updating primal and dual vari-  
 384 ables while maintaining feasibility within the cone. ECOS  
 385 offers high numerical accuracy and is efficient for medium-  
 386 scale problems, making it a practical choice for our use case.

## 387 4 Offline and Online Evaluations

388 In this section, offline and online evaluation results will be  
 389 provided. The Opus framework is applied to two quality bids:  
 390 quality bid 1 and quality bid 2, which use the prediction of a  
 391 user’s feedback toward an ad as the proxy for the ad’s quality.  
 392 In the MTML model, user cohorts for these two bids will  
 393 be predicted simultaneously, then the predictions are fed into  
 394 the optimization algorithm to obtain the personalized scalars  
 395 individually (see Figure 2).

### 396 4.1 MTML Model Offline Performance

397 For the model architecture change from individual models to  
 398 MTML (Figure. 2), AUCC (Area under Cost Curve) [Du *et*  
 399 *al.*, 2019b] is used to measure business gain by a combination  
 400 of ads performance and engagement. In an AUCC plot, the

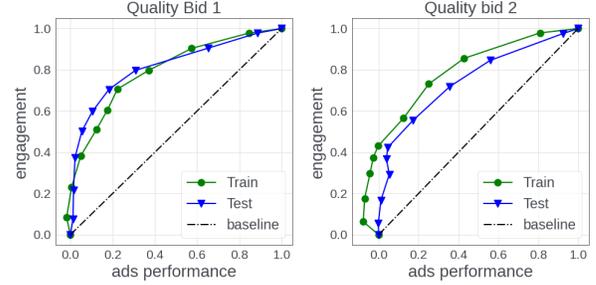


Figure 4: MTML model AUCC for two quality bids.

Table 1: Evaluation AUCC comparison between baseline models and MTML.

Eval AUCC	Quality bid 1	Quality bid 2
Baseline	0.748	0.792
MTML	<b>0.766 (+2.4%)</b>	<b>0.807 (+1.9%)</b>

401 aggregated engagement gain is represented in the Y-axis and  
 402 the aggregated ads performance loss is represented in the X-  
 403 axis. The overall curve serves to help evaluate the return on  
 404 investment predictions. The training and evaluation AUCC  
 405 for the MTML model is shown in Figure 4. After MTML  
 406 training is completed, a validation dataset is used to evalu-  
 407 ate the performance of MTML model and the current model  
 408 (baseline), the comparison of model performances is shown  
 409 in Table 1. It can be observed that, with the new MTML ar-  
 410 chitecture, there is a 2.4% AUCC increase in predicting user  
 411 cohorts for quality bid 1 and a 1.9% AUCC increase in pre-  
 412 dicting user cohorts for quality bid 2. Therefore, the advan-  
 413 tage of MTML architecture is clearly demonstrated.

### 414 4.2 Optimization Offline Performance

415 For the optimization part, two datasets containing each user  
 416 cohort’s ads performance metric and engagement metric re-  
 417 sponses at different time  $t_0 < t_1$  are collected, denoted as  
 418  $D_{t_0}$ ,  $D_{t_1}$ . In additions, each user is also randomly assigned  
 419 a user bucket from 1 to 10 and the user bucket dimension  
 420 can also be split into 2 disjoint sets  $\{u_0, u_1\}$ . The final train-  
 421 ing and testing dataset are  $D_{t_0, u_0}$  and  $D_{t_1, u_1}$  (see Figure 5).  
 422 The reasons for creating disjoint training and testing dataset  
 423 in both time and user bucket dimension are as follows:

- 424 • Split by time: avoid using future information to make  
 425 prediction in the past and ensure that the model’s per-  
 426 formance is accurately evaluated when faced with future  
 427 data.
- 428 • Split by user bucket: the dataset collected from RCT ex-  
 429 periment is also a sampled version of production traffic.  
 430 The user bucket split also helps prevent overfitting and  
 431 boost generalizability of the policy derived from the op-  
 432 timization solution.

433 After solving the optimization problem and obtaining the  
 434 scalar policy for each cohort, the predicted engagement met-  
 435 ric and predicted ads performance metric for each cohort can  
 436 also be computed by applying the scalar to the fitted function.

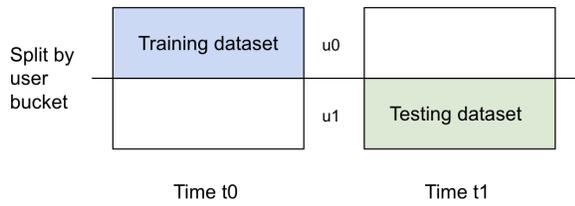


Figure 5: Training and testing dataset for optimization problem.

As a result, the summation of the predicted engagement metric and predicted ads performance metric for all cohorts will serve as the engagement proxy and ads performance proxy for the ads system. For better visualization, the absolute values of engagement and ads performance are not used; rather, they are compared with a baseline performance and the percentage of delta is computed. To be more concise, let  $(\mu_0, \theta_0)$  be the (ads performance metric, engagement metric) performance point evaluated under a uniform policy ( $\alpha_i = 1$  for all cohorts  $i$ ); denote  $(\mu_1, \theta_1)$  as the performance point evaluated under any other personalized scalar policy, the ads performance metric delta and engagement metric delta is defined as:

$$\text{ads performance metric delta} = \frac{\mu_1 - \mu_0}{\mu_0}, \quad (12)$$

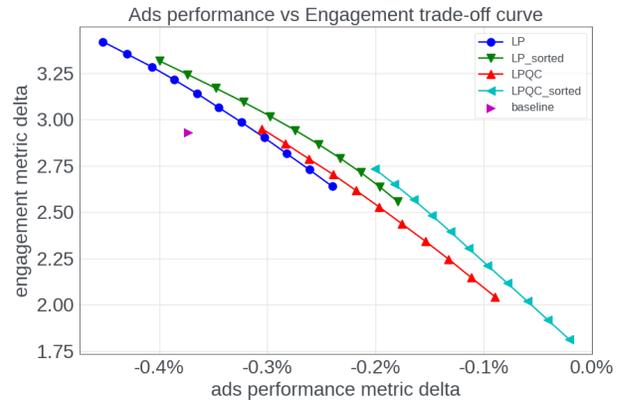
$$\text{engagement metric delta} = \frac{\theta_1 - \theta_0}{\theta_0}. \quad (13)$$

By changing the ads performance budget  $\rho$ , which represents the business needs, an ads performance vs engagement trade-off curve can be generated to show the performance or efficiency of the optimization approach. In this paper, we generated and compare the performance of the following 4 methods:

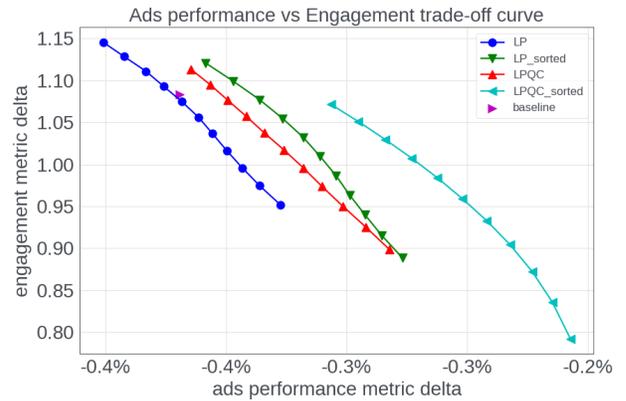
- LP: linear programming method defined in (10).
- LP\_sorted: linear programming method plus monotonic constraint.
- LPQC: linear programming method with quadratic constraint in revenue, *i.e.* replacing linear modeling of ads performance metric in (10) with quadratic modeling.
- LPQC\_sorted: linear programming method with quadratic and monotonic constraint, as defined in (11).

In addition to the above 4 performance curves, an isolated ads performance vs engagement performance point under current baseline's scalar policy can also be evaluated. Current baseline's policy is obtained by first predicting user sensitivity with a single deep neural network model and then solving the linear programming problem in (10). The overall performance comparison for quality bid 1 is shown in Figure 6a and several highlights can be observed:

- 4 trade-off curves are located to the top-right area of the current baseline's performance point, which means that under certain scalar policies, ads performance metric gain and engagement metric can be achieved simultaneously.



(a) Quality bid 1.

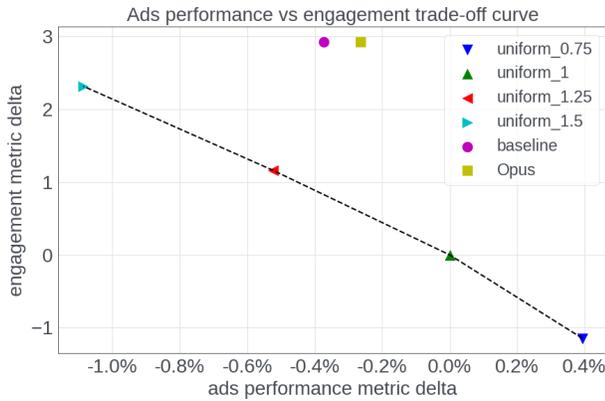


(b) Quality bid 2.

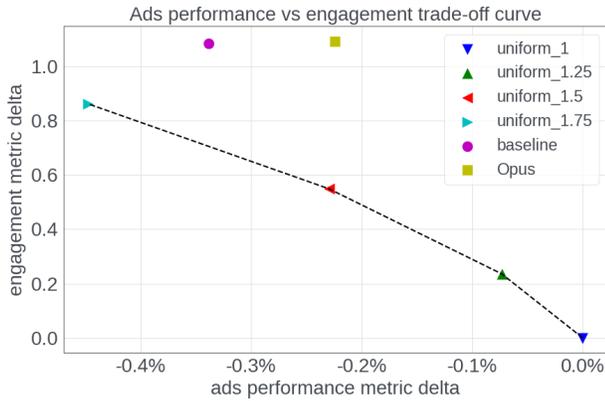
Figure 6: Ads performance vs engagement trade-off curves of different methods for quality bid 1 and 2.

- Under the same level of engagement, there is about 0.06% offline ads performance metric delta gain from current baseline's performance point to the LP performance curve; given that the only difference between them is the user sensitivity prediction part (single DNN model vs MTML), the offline ads performance metric improvement further validates the advantage of MTML model.
- Comparing LP vs LPQC and LP\_sorted vs LPQC\_sorted, it can be observed that by changing the ads performance metric modeling from linear to quadratic, the ads performance vs engagement performance curve shifts to the right by about 0.01% to 0.02% ads performance delta gain, demonstrating that quadratic modeling better captures the ads performance metric behavior and achieve ads performance gain.
- Comparing LP vs LP\_sorted and LPQC vs LPQC\_sorted, it can also be observed that by adding the monotonic constraint, there is roughly 0.04% to 0.05% positive ads performance metric delta shift of the performance curve, which is a clear indication of the importance in user sensitivity information in the optimization problem.

Similar results can be derived for quality bid 2 (Figure. 6b) and they are omitted here due to space constraint. With the



(a) Quality bid 1.



(b) Quality bid 2.

Figure 7: Ads performance vs engagement trade-off curves of uniform policy vs performance from Opus for quality bid 1 and 2.

Table 2: Comparison of normalized efficiency between current baseline and Opus.

Metrics	Normalized efficiency
Baseline	13.96%
Opus	<b>20.12%</b>

Table 3: Online performance of Opus framework.

Metrics	Ads performance	DAU	Time-spent
Baseline	100%	100%	100%
Pretest (Opus)	<b>100.5%</b>	99.999%	100.0072%
Backtest (Opus)	<b>100.47%</b>	99.996%	100.0085%

0.4% ads performance metric spent compared to baseline policy; the Opus framework further increase the ads performance metric by roughly 0.15% with no engagement metric loss, as a result, from the ads performance metric’s perspective, the Opus method is equivalent to applying a uniform scalar (roughly 1.1) but from the engagement metric’s perspective, it achieves more than 3 times engagement metric delta gain than the uniform scalar policy. Apart from focusing on individual ads performance or engagement metric gain while fixing the other metric, the ads performance over engagement efficiency metric provides another perspective to quantify the power of the algorithm. The efficiency metric is defined as the product of some normalization constants  $C_0$  and the ratio of engagement metric delta over ads performance metric delta, which are already defined in (12):

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{efficiency} &= C_0 \cdot \frac{\text{engagement metric delta}}{\text{ads performance metric delta}} \\
 &= C_0 \cdot \frac{\theta_1 - \theta_0}{\mu_1 - \mu_0}.
 \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

With the offline dataset, the efficiency of current baseline’s policy and the proposed Opus framework can be computed; it can be observed from Table 2 that the Opus framework achieves **1.44x** efficiency boost compared to current baseline.

### 4.3 Online Results

With the promising offline result, an online A/B test is conducted (one-month) before the launch and a backtest is also conducted (one-month). Our current business goal is to maximize ads performance without engagement loss, hence according to Figure 6, a horizontal line is drawn and intersect with the LPQC\_sorted curve; the scalar policy associated with the intersection point will be the personalized policy for online testing. Similar steps are also applied to the quality bid 2 to obtain a new scalar policy for each cohort.

After applying the new policy treatment, the overall online ads performance and engagement performance is shown in Table 3. With the new Opus framework, around 0.5% ads performance metric gain with neutral engagement metric can be achieved.

performance curves and the current baseline’s performance point, it is easy to fine-tune the ads performance budget  $\rho$  to find the scalar policy that achieves the business need. For example, if the business objective is to increase ads performance metric with neutral engagement; a horizon line can be drawn across the current baseline’s performance point and the intersection of the horizontal line with the performance curve will be the solution that maximizes ads performance metric; and the scalar policy associated with the intersection point will be the optimal policy. Similarly, a vertical line can be drawn if the goal is to increase engagement without ads performance metric loss. It is also worthwhile to compare the personalization result with uniform policies. Figure 7a shows the performance trade-off curve when applying uniform policies under different scalars for quality bid 1, as the scalar gets larger, the systems transition from a high ads performance but low engagement to region into a low ads performance but high engagement region. However, the system’s performance is limited by the performance curve; personalization enables the system to explore area with higher ads performance and engagement. By simple DNN model for user sensitivity prediction and LP formulation (10), the system achieved 3 times engagement metric delta gain with roughly

## 559 5 Conclusions and Future Works

560 In this paper, a personalization framework call Opus is devel-  
561 oped, aiming to customize ad’s quality bid scalar for different  
562 user cohorts and can achieve both ads performance metric and  
563 engagement metric gain. With the MTML model, user sensi-  
564 tivity is first predicted and later linear programming prob-  
565 lem with quadratic and monotonic constraint is formulated to  
566 solve for the scalar policy. The new policy achieves around  
567 0.5% ads performance metric gain in online experiments, as  
568 well as 1.44x efficiency boost. For future directions, we are  
569 planning to extend the user sensitivity prediction from single  
570 snapshot model prediction to dynamic user sensitivity predic-  
571 tion; we are also planning to extend to optimization formula-  
572 tion to multi-objective, multi-constraint optimization.

## 573 6 GenAI Usage Disclosure

574 In accordance with the ACM’s Authorship Policy, we provide  
575 the following disclosure regarding the use of Generative AI  
576 (GenAI) tools in the preparation of this research paper:

- 577 • During the research and development stage, no GenAI  
578 tool was utilized to assist in the collection, processing  
579 and analysis of large datasets, nor was it used in the  
580 codebase.
- 581 • During the draft writing and editing, no GenAI tool was  
582 used to help initial text for any sections, nor was it used  
583 for refining of the draft.

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