Mixture-Based Correction for Position and Trust Bias in Counterfactual Learning to Rank

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ABSTRACT

In counterfactual learning to rank (CLTR) user interactions are used as a source of supervision. Since user interactions come with bias, an important focus of research in this field lies in developing methods to correct for the bias of interactions. Inverse propensity scoring (IPS) is a popular method suitable for correcting position bias. Affine correction (AC) is a generalization of IPS that corrects for position bias and trust bias. IPS and AC provably remove bias, conditioned on an accurate estimation of the bias parameters. Estimating the bias parameters, in turn, requires an accurate estimation of the relevance probabilities. This cyclic dependency introduces practical limitations in terms of sensitivity, convergence and efficiency.

We propose a new correction method for position and trust bias in CLTR in which, unlike the existing methods, the correction does not rely on relevance estimation. Our proposed method, mixture-based correction (MBC), is based on the assumption that the distribution of the click-through rates over the items being ranked is a mixture of two distributions: the distribution of click-through rates for relevant items and the distribution of click-through rates for non-relevant items. We prove that our method is unbiased. The validity of our proof is not conditioned on accurate bias parameter estimation. Our experiments show that MBC, when used in different bias settings and accompanied by different learning to rank algorithms, outperforms AC, the state-of-the-art method for correcting position and trust bias, in some settings, while performing on par in other settings. Furthermore, MBC is orders of magnitude more efficient than AC in terms of the training time.

KEYWORDS

Unbiased learning to rank; Mixture model; Position bias; Trust bias

1 INTRODUCTION

Learning to rank (LTR) is the practice of using supervision to train a ranking function. Traditional LTR methods use explicit relevance labels produced by human annotators [19]. In contrast, counterfactual learning to rank (CLTR) uses historical interactions, such as clicks, as labels. Unlike costly manual labels, clicks are available in large amounts for almost no additional cost. The downside of using clicks as relevance labels, however, is bias. Clicks suffer from different types of bias, such as position bias, selection bias, trust bias, etc. [16] As a result of bias, the probability of a click is not the same as the probability of relevance. Thus, in order to use clicks as relevance labels, we should first correct for the bias [17, 29].

A number of techniques have been proposed to debias clicks and to estimate the probability of relevance based on the probability of clicks. A well-known method is inverse propensity scoring (IPS) [17, 29], which corrects for the position bias in clicks. IPS relies on the examination hypothesis, i.e., an item is clicked if it is examined and perceived to be relevant by a user. As the name suggests, in IPS clicks are re-weighed by the inverse of the examination probability, a.k.a. propensity. IPS is proved to be unbiased when the clicks suffer from position bias [17]. Affine correction (AC) generalizes IPS to also correct for trust bias [28]. AC has been proved to be unbiased when the clicks suffer from both position and trust bias. The proofs of the unbiasedness of IPS and AC depend on knowledge of the bias parameters. Accurately estimating the bias parameters, in turn, depends on obtaining accurate relevance estimations, which is as hard as the LTR problem itself. In the literature, this cyclic dependency is solved by a regression-based EM (rbEM) algorithm that simultaneously learns the ranker as well as the bias parameters [1, 28, 30]. We argue that integration of a regression function into the standard Expectation-Maximization (EM) leads to a number of practical limitations in terms of (1) sensitivity to the regression function, (2) a lack of guarantees that EM converges to a zero gradient, and (3) low efficiency of the algorithm.

We break the curse of cyclic dependency by proposing a novel debiasing method, mixture-based correction (MBC). Inspired by the idea of score distributions [3], we assume that the probability of seeing a specific click-through rate (CTR) for an item at a position in a ranking is a mixture of CTR probabilities for relevant and non-relevant items appearing on that position. More specifically, we assume that an item is clicked if, and only if, one of the following two disjoint events occurs: (1) a user examines the item and the item is actually relevant (i.e., this is a click on a relevant item), or (2) the user examines the item, the item is not relevant, but the user clicks on it anyway due a certain bias, e.g., trust in the search engine [1] or visual attractiveness of the item [8] (i.e., this is a click on a non-relevant item). For each position in a ranking, MBC estimates...
the distribution of CTRs for these two events and calculates the full distribution of CTRs on that position as their mixture. Then, the probability of relevance for a given item is calculated by Bayes’ rule, as the posterior probability of relevance, given the observed CTR over that item. Finally, the estimated probabilities of relevance are used as labels in a standard LTR algorithm.

We prove that MBC gives an unbiased estimator of the probability of relevance, without any prior knowledge of the bias parameter values. This is a step forward, as IPS and AC do rely on prior knowledge of the bias parameter values to be unbiased. Below, we show theoretically how inaccurate bias parameters prevent AC from completely removing bias.

We confirm our theoretical advances with a set of semi-synthetic experiments. We show that the ranking performance of different LTR algorithms, trained on the relevance estimates of MBC, always converges to the ranking performance where the true relevance labels are available. We also compare MBC with the state-of-the-art correction method for position and trust bias, i.e., AC. We compare them by training LTR algorithms over MBC’s and AC’s respective corrected outputs. We show that in several cases MBC outperforms AC by filling the gap between AC’s ranking performance and the true relevance case. Finally, since both MC and AC depend to the assumption of a click model to infer and correct for the bias, we conduct robustness experiments in terms of click model mismatch. Specifically, we show that when clicks adhere to the Dependent Click Model (DCM) or the User Browsing Model (UBM), but a different click model, such as the Position-Based Model (PBM), is assumed by the correction methods, MBC is more robust, i.e., its ranking performance is affected less compared to AC.

In summary, the contributions of the paper are:

(1) We propose a new debiasing method, mixture-based correction (MBC), for correcting position and trust bias, and prove its unbiasedness. Our proof is stronger than the unbiasedness proofs for existing methods, as it does not rely on the assumption that the bias parameters are known.

(2) We show experimentally that, when used with LTR methods, MBC outperforms AC, the state-of-the-art correction method for position and trust bias, in several settings, while having similar performance in other settings.

(3) We show that MBC is orders of magnitude faster than AC, in terms of the training time.

(4) We provide experimental evidence that MBC is more robust to click model mismatch compared to AC.

2 BACKGROUND

The majority of prior work on unbiased LTR, tries to correct for the mismatch between the distribution of clicks and relevance probability due to bias. Bias in clicks means that not all relevant items have the same a priori chance of being clicked. E.g., position bias means that relevant items at the top of a result list usually absorb more clicks than lower ranked relevant items [16]; and trust bias means that users trust a search engine and click on higher ranked non-relevant items more than lower ranked items [1]. Usually, these types of bias are modeled with the help of click models [10].

Below, we review existing methods for correcting position and trust bias. After discussing AC as the state-of-the-art correction method for position and trust bias, we analyze its relevance estimation error and show how inaccurate bias parameters cause AC to remain biased. We also discuss other work related to this paper.

2.1 A review of AC

Agarwal et al. [1] notice that IPS is still biased when there is also trust bias. In the presence of trust bias, the click probability should be written as follows (for brevity we drop the \( q, d, k \) conditions from all the probabilities, where \( q \) and \( d \) represent the query and item and \( k \) is the item position in the results list):

\[
P(C = 1) = P(E = 1) \cdot P(R = R) \cdot P(C = 1 | R = 1, E = 1) + P(E = 1) \cdot P(R = 0) \cdot P(C = 1 | R = 0, E = 1) = aP(R = 1) + \beta.
\]

where \( C, E \) and \( R \) indicate click, examination and relevance binary indicators. Vardasbi et al. [28] prove that the following correction gives an unbiased estimate of the relevance in this situation:

\[
r_{q,d} = \frac{c_{q,d,k} - \beta_{q,d,k}}{\alpha_{q,d,k}}.
\]

where \( c_{q,d,k} \) is the click over document \( d \) of query \( q \) at position \( k \); \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are bias parameters (Eq. 1); and \( r_{q,d} \) is the estimated relevance of \( d \).

2.2 Regression-based EM

IPS and AC are unbiased only if the value of the bias parameters such as \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are known, or accurately estimated. Since the standard EM requires the availability of multiple sessions of the same query with different items ordering to work properly [7], Wang et al. [30] proposed to use regression-based EM (rbEM) to solve the sparsity problem. In the rbEM, the \( P(R = 1 \mid q, d) \) values obtained in the M-step are first used to fit a regression function, and then, the output of this regression function is used in the next E-step. Though rbEM leads to good results in the CLTR framework with IPS and AC [1, 28, 30], in this paper we argue that the integration of a regression function into the EM leads to multiple practical limitations, as we explain in Appendix A.1.

2.3 Error analysis of AC

Let us denote the true relevance of document \( d \) to query \( q \) by \( r_{q,d} \), and the probability \( P(r_{q,d} = 1) \) by \( y_{q,d} \). In the presence of trust bias, according to Eq. (1), we have:

\[
E_{c}[c_{q,d,k}] = \alpha_{q,d,k} \cdot y_{q,d} + \beta_{q,d,k}.
\]

In what follows we drop the subscripts for brevity.

Supposing \( \alpha' \) and \( \beta' \) are estimates of \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) obtained from the rbEM algorithm, AC estimates \( r \) as follows:

\[
r = \frac{\alpha' - \beta'}{\alpha'}.
\]

In order to have an unbiased estimator, we need to ensure that \( E_{c}[\hat{r}] = E_{r}[\hat{r}] \). Therefore, we are interested in \( e = |\hat{r} - r| \). Using Eq. (1), we can calculate the expectation as follows:

\[
E_{c,r}[e] = \gamma \left[ 1 - \frac{\alpha + \beta - \beta'}{\alpha'} \right] + (1 - \gamma) \left| \frac{\beta - \beta'}{\alpha'} \right|.
\]

\[
E_{c}[\hat{r}] = \gamma \left( \frac{\alpha + \Delta \alpha - \beta}{\alpha'} \right) + \frac{|\Delta \beta|}{\alpha'} + \frac{|\Delta \beta|}{\alpha'}.
\]

\[
E_{r}[\hat{r}] = \gamma \left( \frac{\alpha + \Delta \alpha - \beta}{\alpha'} \right) + \frac{|\Delta \beta|}{\alpha'} + \frac{|\Delta \beta|}{\alpha'}.
\]
where $\Delta \beta = \beta' - \beta$ and $\Delta \alpha = \alpha' - \alpha$ are estimation errors of the bias parameters. It is important to have the average error converge to zero as the number of sessions associated with the query grows. Eq. (5) shows that only when $\Delta \alpha \to 0$ and $\Delta \beta \to 0$, i.e., when the parameter estimations obtained from rbEM are accurate, this is the case. In summary, inaccurate bias parameters estimation cause the AC method to remain biased, even with infinitely many training sessions.

### 2.4 Mixture of distributions

Our assumption of having a mixture of relevant and non-relevant distributions is related to score distribution models [3]. But MBC differs in two important ways. First, unlike scores, clicks are feedback and constitute a source of supervision. This makes CLTR used with MBC a supervised learning algorithm as opposed to the unsupervised algorithms based on score distribution models. Second, a score distribution model is built over the corresponding list of items for a single query, whereas our mixture model is built over the items with the same examination probability for different queries. In this sense, our model has a global view over all queries, while the score distribution models have a local view over one query.

### 2.5 Other related work

Instead of using rbEM, Ai et al. [2] propose to use the Dual Learning Algorithm (DLA). DLA is shown to be effective in estimating the bias parameters and leading to an unbiased LTR. However, it only models the position bias and it is not clear how it can be extended to work with trust bias.

Qin et al. [26] use rbEM to estimate the attribute-based propensity, which considers different platforms and feedback sources in addition to the items positions. Dai et al. [11] define a utility based on the click probability and propose to optimize that utility directly, instead of optimizing retrieval metrics with the hope that they may indirectly improve the CTR. Their approach solves the problem of bias parameter estimation by directly learning a position-aware click model from user interactions.

What our proposed method, MBC, contributes on top of the related work discussed above is that it breaks the cyclic dependency between the bias parameters and relevance probability. This means that in MBC the bias parameters are inferred only using the user interactions, without any direct relevance on the relevance probabilities. In other words, in existing methods relevance estimation is unbiased if the bias parameters are accurately set, and the bias parameters can be set accurately if the relevance estimation is precise. In contrast, with MBC, the correction and bias parameter estimation are performed at the same time, without any reliance on relevance estimation. This enables us to avoid the use of regression functions inside the EM algorithm, which is shown in Appendix A to have practical limitations.

Finally, in [5, 27] it is argued that a mismatch between the actual model of clicks and the assumed click model for correction hurts ranking performance of the correction methods. We address this issue by showing that MBC is robust to click model mismatch, specifically, when actual clicks adhere to DCM or UBM while MBC assumes PBM for correction.

### 3 MIXTURE-BASED CORRECTION

In this section, we explain our mixture-based correction (MBC) method and prove that it gives an unbiased estimate of relevance.

#### 3.1 Method

Our idea is to infer the relevance of an item to a user’s query based on the observed CTR for that query-item pair. Similarly to previous work on CLTR, we assume that user clicks on search results follow the examination hypothesis [1, 2, 17, 23, 28, 30], that is, a click on an item (or, consequently, the CTR for that item) is affected only by how likely the item is to be examined and perceived relevant by a user. So there are two components, namely, examination and relevance of an item, that contribute to a click on the item. Our goal is to estimate the relevance component.

To rule out the examination component, we consider items with the same examination probability $P(E = 1)$. In practice, $P(E = 1)$ is not known and one needs a click model to decide which items have the same $P(E = 1)$. We will address this issue later in this section. For now, assume that we know which items have the same $P(E = 1)$.

For a set of items with the same examination probability $P(E = 1)$ there is a certain distribution of CTRs, $P(CTR) = x$. Assuming binary relevance, this distribution has two parts: one for relevant items and one for non-relevant items. So $P(CTR = x)$ can be seen as a mixture of two separate distributions: the distribution $P(CTR = x \mid R = 1)$ of CTRs of relevant items and the distribution $P(CTR = x \mid R = 0)$ of non-relevant items. Formally:

$$P(CTR = x) = P(R = 1) \cdot P(CTR = x \mid R = 1) + P(R = 0) \cdot P(CTR = x \mid R = 0). \quad (6)$$

Now, we can reach our goal and calculate the probability of relevance based on the observed CTR using Bayes’ rule:

$$P(R = 1 \mid CTR = x) = \frac{P(R = 1) \cdot P(CTR = x \mid R = 1)}{P(CTR = x)}. \quad (7)$$

These relevance probabilities can ultimately be used for CLTR. Algorithm 1 summarizes the above steps of MBC.

For our MBC method to work, it remains to discuss two things:

**Algorithm 1: Mixture-based correction**

**Input:** Click-through rates

**Output:** Estimates of relevance probability

1. Constitute sets of items with the same $P(E = 1)$;
2. **forall** set of items with the same $P(E = 1)$ **do**
   1. Fit a 2-component mixture model to Eq. (6);
   2. Output the relevance of items according to Eq. (7);
3. **end**

(1) How to estimate the mixture in Eq. (6) (Line 3 in Alg. 1); and
(2) How to get items with the same examination probability (Line 1 in Alg. 1). This is what we turn to next.

Graded relevance can be considered as the probability $P(R = 1)$. See Sec. 4 for further discussions.
Mixture estimation. To infer distributions \( P(CTR = x \mid R = i) \) and priors \( P(R = i) \) for \( i \in \{0, 1\} \) in Eq. (6), parametric approaches can be used. For example, we can assume a Gaussian or a binomial mixture model. As is common with parametric mixture models, we use standard EM to learn the above distributions and priors [21].

The limitation of the parametric approach to estimating mixtures is that it depends on the choice of the underlying parametric distribution (e.g., Gaussian, binomial, etc). However, in Sec. 3.2, we show that as long as there are enough clicks, the choice of this distribution is not essential to our method. Also, in our experiments in Sec. 5.5, we compare Gaussian and binomial mixture distributions and show that, in practice, both converge to the same performance.

Items with the same examination. The MBC method works on sets of items with the same examination probability. Note that MBC does not require the exact values of examination probabilities, it only requires to know which items have the same examination. To detect the desired sets of items, we propose to use click models [10].

For instance, we can assume that clicks adhere to the PBM as is common in CLTR [1, 2, 17, 23, 28, 30]. In PBM, all items at the same position in a results list have the same examination probability. And that is all we need from the assumed click model. For cascade models, such as the DCM [13] and the UBM [12], all items at the same position and with the same pattern of relevant items above them have the same examination probability. In the case of DCM and UBM, the desired set of items can be detected recursively: to collect items with the same examination probability at position \( k \), we first use MBC to detect all relevant items at positions above \( k \), and then we group items with the same pattern of relevant items above \( k \). Note that this recursive process is not cyclic: the grouping of clicks at rank \( k \) depends on the reliability of the model at rank \( k - 1 \). Again, no parameter estimation for the assumed click models is required.

Remark 1. Detecting items with the same examination may seem a bottleneck in real world scenarios. For MBC to work properly, the distributions of relevant and non-relevant CTRs should be separable. This means that the condition of items with the same examination can be loosened by items with almost the same examination. To elaborate, suppose a set of items are considered whose examination probabilities are either \( \theta \) or \( \theta' \). Each examination probability leads to one distribution for relevant CTRs, and one for non-relevant CTRs: there are two relevant CTR distributions and two non-relevant CTR distributions in the set. The relevant (non-relevant) CTR distribution of all the items in the set is itself a mixture of two distributions corresponding to \( \theta \) and \( \theta' \). As long as these two relevant/non-relevant distributions of all items are separable, MBC would be able to distinguish relevant items from non-relevant, and the LTR remains unbiased. This argument is easily extended to cases with more than two different examination probabilities. We will discuss this remark more in Sec. 5.3 and give a toy example for further clarifications.

In the remainder of this section, we prove that the MBC inferred relevance labels are unbiased estimations of the true relevance labels. Consequently, a LTR algorithm trained on these corrected values will be an unbiased LTR.

3.2 Unbiasedness of MBC

In this paper, similar to most previous work on online LTR and CLTR, we assume that clicks on different sessions are independent [1, 2, 10, 15, 17, 22, 23, 27, 28, 30, 31]. As discussed in Sec. 3.1, we consider the set of items with almost the same examination probability and fit a mixture model for each such set. We assume that clicking on a relevant item is a random variable with mean \( \mu_1 \) and variance \( \sigma_1^2 \). Similarly, clicking on a non-relevant item has mean \( \mu_0 \) and variance \( \sigma_0^2 \). For a unique query, repeated in \( n \) sessions, assume the clicks over the item \( x \) are given by \( \{c_1^{(x)}, c_2^{(x)}, \ldots, c_n^{(x)}\} \). We prove that the CTR defined as

\[
\nu_x = \frac{c_1^{(x)} + c_2^{(x)} + \cdots + c_n^{(x)}}{n},
\]

can be used to estimate the relevance of \( x \), given that \( n \) is large enough.

**Theorem 3.1.** Assuming independent clicks in different sessions, the clustering of the CTR signal into relevant and non-relevant items converges in probability to the true relevance of the items.

**Proof.** Based on the assumptions, the \( c_i^{(x)} \)'s constitute a sequence of independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables. According to the Central Limit Theorem (CLT), as \( n \) grows, \( \nu_x \) will converge in probability to \( \mathbb{E}[c] \), which is either \( \mu_0 \) or \( \mu_1 \). We are interested in the case where a full recovery of mixture models is possible, i.e., one can fully separate the distribution of relevant CTRs from the distribution of non-relevant CTRs. The variance of \( c_x \) diminishes linearly by \( n \). Consequently, given any threshold value for the variance for which a full recovery is possible, there is a sufficiently large \( n \) that leads to the given threshold value. This means that there exists an \( n \) such that a full recovery of the mixture components is possible.

We used the Central Limit Theorem for the proof of Theorem 3.1, which does not rely on any specific distribution. In order to get a better understanding of what constitutes a sufficiently large \( n \) for full recovery, we discuss the special case of a Gaussian mixture. There is a rich literature on the analysis of the recoverability of Gaussian mixture models [see, e.g., 9]. In [20] a simple condition is given for almost full recovery of Gaussian mixtures, which translates to the setting of this paper as follows:

\[
n = \Omega\left(\frac{(\max(\sigma_0, \sigma_1))^2}{\mu_1 - \mu_0}\right).
\]

This means that for any \( \mu_1 \) and \( \sigma_1 \) values, if we increase the number of sessions \( n \) so that Eq. (9) holds, the CTR of relevant and non-relevant items can be almost fully separated. In our experiments, where the parameters are set based on previous real-world studies such as [1], Eq. (9) becomes \( n = \Omega(1) \) and we find \( n \geq 15 \) to be a suitable value based on the convergence of ranking performance.

4 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

In this section, we discuss the experimental setup used to demonstrate the effectiveness of our proposed MBC method. Following previous CLTR studies [1, 2, 15, 17, 23, 28], we measure the effectiveness of click debiasing by the ranking performance of LTR when
used on top of debiasing methods. Our experiments are performed on two publicly available LTR datasets with query-document features and relevance labels, while clicks are simulated.

4.1 Datasets
As a regular choice in LTR research [2, 15, 17, 23, 28], we use two popular LTR datasets: Yahoo! WebScope [6] and MSLR-Web30k [25]. For each query, these datasets contain a list of documents with human-generated 5-level relevance labels. Yahoo! has 29,670 queries, 23.84 documents per query on average, and uses 700-feature vectors to represent query-documents; MSLR has 31,339 queries, 120.19 documents per query, and uses 136 features. We use the default provided training, validation and test splits for each dataset. We only use the first fold of MSLR.

4.2 Click simulation
In our experiments, we measure the performance of LTR trained on user clicks. The Yahoo! and MSLR datasets, however, do not contain click information. Following a long line of previous studies [2, 14, 15, 17, 23, 28], we simulate clicks as follows.

**Production ranker.** First, we simulate a production ranker that is used to create a ranked list of items for each query. Following [17], we train a LTR method on a very small number of randomly selected queries. The intuition is to provide a production ranker that is better than a random ranker, but still has room for improvement. We select 20 random queries from each dataset and use LambdaMART [4] to train a production ranker. To train LambdaMART, we use the LightGBM package (version 3.2.1.99) [18] with the following parameters: 300 trees, 31 leaves and a learning rate of 0.05. Training in this way with 20 queries gives us a decent ranker that performs considerably better than a random ranker, while still having room for improvement. Hence, we can exploit user interactions to improve this production ranker.

The production ranker is then used to rank items for each query. We cut the list of items at top-20, as do real-world search engines. We report results for $m = 20$. We also performed experiments with the top-50, but since the results showed no significant difference compared to the top-20, we do not report them in the paper.

**User clicks.** To simulate clicks, we follow previous studies on trust bias [1, 28]. Given a list of items returned by the production ranker for a query $q$, we first compute the click probability for each item $x$ and position $k$ using Eq. (1) and the PBM assumption. (For experiments in Sec. 5.3 we replace PBM with DCM and UBDM.) Then, for each item $x$ and position $k$ we simulate a click by sampling from this Bernoulli distribution. Unless stated otherwise, we use 8M clicks (with uniformly repeated queries) to train the correction methods. In our experiments, both MBC and AC begin to converge to their final performance after 2M clicks. We choose 8M to be on the safe side. Eq. (1) depends on two quantities: (1) relevance probabilities; and (2) bias parameters. We will discuss both bellow.

**Relevance probabilities.** Both datasets used in our experiments provide graded relevance labels. For simulating the clicks in a graded relevance setting, a transformation function is required to change the integer grades into valid relevance probabilities. We employ the following two strategies, assuming $y \in \{0, \ldots, y_{\max}\}$ is the relevance grade:

1. **Binarized:** Following [17, 28] relevance probability can itself be binary: $P(R = 1 | y) = 1$ iff $y > \frac{y_{\max}}{2}$.
2. **Graded:** The grades can also be turned into probabilities using a linear transformation [24]: $P(R = 1 | y) = \frac{y}{y_{\max}}$.

**Bias parameters.** Similarly to [2, 15, 17, 23, 28], the position bias for a position $k$ is computed as $P(E = 1 | k) = k^{-\eta}$, where the parameter $\eta$ controls the severity of the position bias. Usually, $\eta = 1$ is considered in the CLTR literature [2, 17, 28]. In our experiments we consider $\eta \in \{1, 2\}$.

For the trust bias, we follow [28] and for each position $k$ compute the parameters as follows:

$$P(C = 1 | R = 1, E = 1, k) = 1 - \frac{\min(k, 20) + 1}{100}$$

$$P(C = 1 | R = 0, E = 1, k) = \frac{0.65}{\min(k, 10)}.$$  

4.3 Learning to rank
We train a LTR method over the corrected output of different click debiasing methods. In order to show the consistency of our results over different LTR methods, we use two LTR approaches:

1. **LambdaMART** [4]; and (2) **DNN**, a neural network similar to that of [28]. The LambdaMART implementation of LightGBM only works with integer labels, but the input of LTR in our experiments is the relevance probability, which is non-integer. To solve this problem, we made some minor modifications to the source code of LightGBM in order to make it work with non-integer inputs as well. The changed source files are included in the code repository of this paper (see the end of the paper for the link).

4.4 Baselines
We compare the results of MBC to those of AC [28], the state-of-the-art click debiasing method for position and trust bias. We do not include IPS in our comparison, since (1) it cannot correct for trust bias, and (2) AC is a generalization of IPS that leads to the same performance when trust bias is absent [28]. In summary, we compare the ranking performance of LTR trained on debiased clicks of our MBC method, with the following settings:

1. **Ideal-AC**: AC with true bias parameters. This gives the highest potential of AC and is not realistic, since it uses the true values for bias parameters;
2. **AC**: LTR trained on debiased clicks of AC, using rbEM for propensity estimation (See A.2 for the choice of regression function);
3. **No correction**: LTR trained on clicks without any debiasing;
4. **Relevance probabilities**: LTR trained on the true relevance probabilities, obtained from the true relevance labels. This depends on the strategy that is used to transform the integer relevance grades into probabilities (see paragraph Relevance probabilities in Sec. 4.2).

In our experiments, we use the same LTR algorithm for all the methods listed above, so that any differences in ranking performance are solely due to the correction method, and no other factors such as LTR performance.
We measure the ranking performance of different methods by AC in inferring the relevance label from the observed CTR. The complex transformation of CTRs into relevance labels in MBC allows for accurate estimations of relevance. On the other hand, the rbEM uses a regression function that has a significant impact on the effectiveness and efficiency of the unbiased LTR algorithm (as we show in Appendix A.2).

5 RESULTS

Our experimental results are centered around three benefits of MBC compared to AC. The first – and most important – benefit is the ranking performance (Sec. 5.2) and efficiency (Sec. 5.4) improvement. The second is its robustness to click model mismatch (Sec. 5.3). The third benefit is that it requires almost no hyper-parameter tuning as opposed to rbEM. Since MBC is based on a standard mixture model, it is free of the so-called hyper-parameters prevalent in deep learning models. On the other hand, rbEM uses a regression function that has a significant impact on the effectiveness and efficiency of the unbiased LTR algorithm.

5.1 An insider’s look into corrected clicks

Before proceeding with the main experimental analysis, we compare the shape of the corrected clicks obtained from MBC and AC. This qualitative analysis is insightful in understanding the intrinsic difference between the two methods.

Fig. 1 looks into the corrected CTR of MBC and AC. In this figure, the CTR in two different positions of a ranked list are observed. We used the binarized relevance probability (Sec. 4) in this figure for simpler illustration purposes. We see that with enough sessions per query, the relevant and non-relevant items become completely disjoint. Consequently, MBC is able to correctly distinguish between the relevant and non-relevant items and infer their relevance label. The complex transformation of CTRs into relevance labels in MBC allows for accurate estimations of relevance. On the other hand, the linearity of AC leads to wider range of relevance labels, scattered around the true values of zero and one.

5.2 Ranking performance of MBC and AC

In this section, we try to answer the main research question of this paper:

How does the MBC method perform compared to AC as the state-of-the-art method for correcting position and trust bias?

In order to determine the effectiveness of methods in debiasing, we measure the ranking performance of a selected LTR algorithm trained over the corrected output of MBC and AC.

Table 1 shows the comparison of MBC and AC in terms of NDCG@10. In this table, we compare the performance for different LTR algorithms: LambdaMART and DNN, and different strategies for transforming relevance grades to probabilities: binarized and graded.

The results show that in most cases MBC performs significantly better than AC. When LambdaMART is used as the LTR algorithm, MBC significantly outperforms AC on both datasets, both binarized and graded settings and both bias severity cases ($\eta = 1$ and $\eta = 2$), the only exception being the graded MSLR with normal position bias. Things are different for the DNN case. AC significantly outperforms MBC in the graded setting in both datasets. We also see that, with a single correction method, in some settings LambdaMART performs better than DNN, while in others DNN is the winner. Considering the LTR algorithm as a hyperparameter, i.e. for each correction method in each setting, selecting the LTR with the higher ranking performance, we can claim that MBC corrects more effectively than AC, as the best performing MBC leads to better results than the best performing AC. For instance, in graded Yahoo! with severe bias, the best performing AC is obtained from DNN: 0.746 vs 0.740, while the best performing MBC is due to LambdaMART: 0.746 vs 0.740. We see that LambdaMART MBC outperforms DNN AC in this case.

As can be seen in Table 1, there is a gap between AC (where the bias parameters are estimated using rbEM) and Ideal-AC (where the bias parameters are assumed to be known by an oracle). This shows the dependency of AC on the accuracy of the bias parameters. As a reminder, this dependency is one of our motivations to propose the novel MBC method.

With severe position bias ($\eta = 2$), as a result of very low examination probabilities, we observe a noticeable drop in the performance of AC and Ideal-AC in some cases. Specifically, for the binarized MSLR with LambdaMART, we observe that AC performs even worse than the no correction case. This observation underlines the need for variance reduction techniques for the AC method.

Remark 2. We see that in some of the binarized cases, MBC performs slightly better than the Rel. Probs case, which may seem counterintuitive. The reason is that the evaluation is performed on the graded test set for comparability considerations. As a result, the relevance grades of $\{3, 4\}$ as well as $\{0, 1, 2\}$ are treated the same in the training, but distinguished in evaluation. This is further observable in comparing the Rel. Probs in the binarized and graded settings: the binarized Rel. Probs is not the theoretical upper bound for the ranking performance, the graded Rel. Probs is.

5.3 Click model mismatch

Next, we investigate the effect of a mismatch between a click model that generates clicks and a click model that is used for debiasing:

How do MBC and AC methods perform when PBM is assumed for debiasing, whereas user clicks adhere to a different click model?

This is an important question as in reality none of the existing click models can fit user clicks perfectly and there is always a mismatch.

![Figure 1: Correction comparison of our MBC method with AC in inferring the relevance label from the observed CTR.](image-url)
Table 1: NDCG@10 comparison of MBC and AC on Yahoo! Webscope and MSLR-WEB30k datasets. Superscripts * and † indicate significance compared to the other correction method with \( p < 0.01 \) and \( p < 0.1 \), respectively.

|                   | Yahoo! Webscope | MSLR-WEB30k       |
|-------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
|                   | Normal bias \( \eta = 1 \) | Severe bias \( \eta = 2 \) | Normal bias \( \eta = 1 \) | Severe bias \( \eta = 2 \) |
|                   | Binarized | Graded | Binarized | Graded | Binarized | Graded | Binarized | Graded |
| Trained using clicks |           |      |          |      |          |      |          |      |
| LambdaMART        |           |      |          |      |          |      |          |      |
| No Correction     | 0.692     | 0.691 | 0.689    | 0.689 | 0.400   | 0.402 | 0.396    | 0.397 |
| AC                | 0.758     | 0.763 | 0.725    | 0.740 | 0.426   | 0.477 | 0.337    | 0.431 |
| MBC               | 0.760*    | 0.767† | 0.753*   | 0.748* | 0.428   | 0.474 | 0.420*   | 0.454* |
| Trained using oracle knowledge |           |      |          |      |          |      |          |      |
| Ideal-AC          | 0.758     | 0.771 | 0.725    | 0.740 | 0.423   | 0.486 | 0.337    | 0.432 |
| Rel. Probs        | 0.759     | 0.774 | 0.759    | 0.774 | 0.429   | 0.491 | 0.429    | 0.491 |
| Trained using clicks |           |      |          |      |          |      |          |      |
| DNN               |           |      |          |      |          |      |          |      |
| No Correction     | 0.713     | 0.716 | 0.710    | 0.707 | 0.401   | 0.415 | 0.402    | 0.400 |
| AC                | 0.736     | 0.746* | 0.736    | 0.746* | 0.404   | 0.448† | 0.405    | 0.448† |
| MBC               | 0.744†    | 0.744  | 0.741*   | 0.740 | 0.406   | 0.440 | 0.419*   | 0.439 |
| Rel. Probs        | 0.743     | 0.750 | 0.743    | 0.750 | 0.416   | 0.453 | 0.416    | 0.453 |

Table 2: NDCG@10 comparison of MBC and AC with PBM assumption on Yahoo! Webscope and MSLR-WEB30k datasets, when cascade models are used for simulating the clicks.

|                   | Yahoo! Webscope | MSLR-WEB30k       |
|-------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
|                   | DCM             | UBM               | DCM             | UBM               |
|                   | Binarized | Graded | Binarized | Graded | Binarized | Graded | Binarized | Graded |
| LambdaMART        |           |      |          |      |          |      |          |      |
| No Correction     | 0.694     | 0.691 | 0.691    | 0.690 | 0.405   | 0.402 | 0.397    | 0.400 |
| AC                | 0.739     | 0.753 | 0.753    | 0.759 | 0.411†  | 0.469 | 0.387    | 0.474† |
| MBC               | 0.752†    | 0.760* | 0.756*   | 0.763† | 0.407   | 0.477* | 0.410†   | 0.469 |
| Rel. Probs        | 0.756     | 0.770 | 0.756    | 0.770 | 0.409   | 0.485 | 0.409    | 0.485 |
| DNN               |           |      |          |      |          |      |          |      |
| No Correction     | 0.709     | 0.712 | 0.709    | 0.716 | 0.407   | 0.407 | 0.391    | 0.406 |
| AC                | 0.728     | 0.733 | 0.736    | 0.743 | 0.364   | 0.433 | 0.402    | 0.445* |
| MBC               | 0.741†    | 0.743* | 0.741*   | 0.742 | 0.408*  | 0.446* | 0.410†   | 0.441 |
| Rel. Probs        | 0.743     | 0.749 | 0.743    | 0.749 | 0.412   | 0.453 | 0.412    | 0.453 |

between a click model that user clicks adhere to and the one that is assumed for debiasing.

In this section, we want to examine the robustness of different correction methods in terms of their assumed click model. Specifically, we simulate clicks based on two well-known models: DCM [13], that is a cascade-based click model, and UBM [12], that has features of both position-based and cascade-based models. In order to have realistic experiments, we learn the parameters of these click models using the Yandex dataset, which contains a large amount of clicks from a production search engine, and the PyClick library. Since the Yandex dataset has the top-10 results, the parameters are obtained for the top-10 and our experiments in this section are reported for the top-10 setting. Then, we use the learned parameters to simulate clicks similarly to Sec. 4.2, this time using DCM and UBM instead of PBM.

For each case, we debias clicks using MBC and AC with the PBM click model. Table 2 shows the ranking performance of these correction methods.

We observe that MBC always improves over the no correction case, while AC fails to do so in some cases: Binarized UBM with LambdaMART and Binarized DCM with DNN. Furthermore, in most cases, there is a gap between the corrections and the Rel. Probs performance. This gap is due to the mismatch between the actual and assumed click models.

Comparing MBC and AC, we see that MBC outperforms AC in
most cases, suggesting that our MBC method is more robust to the click model mismatch. This observation coincides with our expectation, since MBC does not rely on the parameters of click models: as long as the click probabilities over relevant and non-relevant items are separable for each position, MBC with PBM works fine. In other words, unlike AC where the examination probability of each position is estimated by a single value, in MBC different items at the same position are allowed to have different examination probabilities (see Remark 1).

To further illustrate the difference, we give a toy example. Suppose there are two sets of sessions $S_1$ and $S_2$ such that the true (hidden) examination probability of an item at position 4 is 0.8 for sessions in $S_1$ and 0.4 for sessions in $S_2$ respectively. Using Eq. 10, the probabilities of click at position 4 on a relevant item are 0.768 and 0.384 and on a non-relevant item are 0.13 and 0.065 for sessions in $S_1$ and $S_2$ respectively. The best AC can do is to estimate the examination probability by the average of $0.8 + 0.4 = 0.6$, leading to inaccurate relevant probabilities for items in both sets of sessions.

MBC, instead, separates the CTRs obtained from sessions. Given enough sessions from each set, a clustering method similar to what we use in MBC, can distinguish between relevant CTRs with mean $\in \{0.768, 0.384\}$ and non-relevant CTRs with mean $\in \{0.13, 0.065\}$. In other words, as long as the minimum relevant click probability is greater than the maximum non-relevant click probability, MBC manages to separate the two distributions.

5.4 Efficiency of MBC

We measured the running time of MBC and AC on multiple cores of Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 5118 CPU @2.30GHz. Here, we only report the time required for correcting clicks, since the LTR part is the same in both MBC and AC. MBC, requires around 110 seconds to estimate the mixture distributions and correct clicks. Each iteration of the rbEM parameter estimation for AC requires 370 seconds for fitting the regression function and around 50 additional seconds to update the bias parameters and target relevance probabilities. The fact that at least 30 iterations are required to get a decent performance of AC (see App. A.2) means that AC requires a minimum of $(370 + 50) \cdot 30 = 12600$ seconds to correct clicks. This means that MBC runs approximately 114 times faster than AC.

Of course, the choice of the regression function plays an important role in the above computations. However, it is worth noting that even with a magical zero-time regression function, AC would still require around $50 \cdot 30 = 1500$ seconds for updating the bias parameters and target relevance probabilities. This hypothetical setting gives a lower bound of around 13 times for the efficiency superiority of our MBC method over AC.

5.5 MBC with different mixture distributions

MBC relies on mixture models for correcting the clicks. In this section, we will address this question:

How do different assumptions for the distribution model of mixture components affect the correction quality?

Particularly, to compare different distribution shapes, we execute two variations of MBC:

(1) **MBC (Gaussian):** A Gaussian (normal) distribution is usually the default choice for modeling real world data, and due to the

![Figure 2: Ranking comparison of different mixture distributions for MBC in term of nDCG@10 with respect to different numbers of clicks on Yahoo! Webscope dataset.](image)

Central Limit Theorem it is usually a safe choice.

(2) **MBC (Binomial):** We include a Binomial distribution test, since the clicks are usually considered to have a Bernoulli distribution which makes CTR, follow a Binomial distribution.

Fig. 2 shows the effect of the assumed distribution shape on the performance of MBC. These experiments coincide with the theory provided in Sec. 3. However, we observe that the Gaussian model converges faster than Binomial model. We hypothesize that, since the Binomial model is less generalizable than the Gaussian model, it cannot recover the signal in the presence of high levels of noise in the low data regime.

6 CONCLUSION

We have proposed a new correction method for position and trust bias, to be used in CLTR, and we have proven its unbiasedness. Our method, mixture-based correction, assumes that the distribution of CTRs of different items is a mixture of two distributions: relevant and non-relevant. Once this mixture is estimated, the relevant items are easily identified and can be used to train a LTR algorithm. Consequently, correction and learning to rank are two separate phases in our MBC method. This breaks the cyclic dependency between bias parameter estimation and relevance inference in existing correction methods. Unlike those methods, in which the unbiasedness relies on accurate bias parameters estimation, the unbiasedness proof of MBC does not rely on knowledge of relevance. This solves some of the practical limitations of the existing methods for correcting position and trust bias which depend on the bias parameter estimation and usually use the rbEM for that.

Particularly, we have found that the cyclic dependency in the existing methods, leads to at least three practical limitations: (1) Severe sensitivity to the choice of the regression function; (2) EM not necessarily converging towards the zero gradient; and, (3) Low efficiency due to repeated use of the regression function. MBC is a new approach that solves all of these limitations as a side benefit.

We have performed extensive semi-synthetic experiments to analyze the strength of MBC at correcting click bias. Our experiments show that MBC outperforms AC, the state-of-the-art correction method for position and trust bias, in most of the settings. Furthermore, we have provided evidence that MBC is more robust to the click model mismatch, compared to AC.

There are several directions that can be followed for the future
work: (1) Using non-parametric approaches for estimating the mix-
tures. (2) Testing on more complex click models than PBM, as MBC
easier to extend to more complex click models than AC.

**CODE AND DATA**
To facilitate the reproducibility of the reported results, this work
only made use of publicly available data and our experimental
implementation is publicly available at https://github.com/AliVard/

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### A ANALYSIS OF REGRESSION-BASED EM
In this Appendix, we list and discuss about three specific practical
limitations of rbEM with IPS and AC. As stated earlier, in AC and
IPS there is an inherent cyclic dependency between relevance and
bias parameters which leads to the use of iterative algorithms like
EM. All of the limitations we list here come from the fact that
standard EM cannot be used to infer the bias parameters and a
regression function has to be used in the middle. Needless to say,
these practical limitations do not apply to MBC.

#### A.1 Practical limitations of rbEM for AC

*Sensitivity to the choice of regression function.* In rbEM with AC,
the regression function is responsible for providing the relevance
probabilities in the M-step. This means that the EM is no longer
using the values obtained through the likelihood maximization, but
an estimate of them obtained from the regression function. Con-
sequently, the performance of EM greatly depends on the perform-
ance of the underlying regression function. We show empirically
that different choices for the regression function lead to different
performances in the ranking of the final unbiased LTR algorithm.

*Not necessarily converging to zero gradient.* Unlike standard EM,
rbEM is not guaranteed to move in the direction of zero gradient.
The reason is simple: in the M-step of rbEM, the relevance prob-
abilities that maximize the likelihood function are replaced with
the outputs of the regression function, in favor of addressing the
otherwise unavoidable sparsity issue. Therefore, the convergence
proof of the standard EM, no longer holds for rbEM. Our observa-
tions suggest that when using the rbEM, more iterations does not
necessarily mean better performance, as opposed to the standard
EM.

*Low efficiency.* The rbEM, by design, requires a regression func-
tion to be fitted to the relevance probabilities at each maximization
step of the EM algorithm. We have discussed this issue in Sec. 5.4.

#### A.2 Instability of rbEM for AC

In practice, rbEM is used to estimate the bias parameters for AC.
In this set of experiments, we address the following two questions
about the performance of rbEM for AC:

1. *What is the impact of the choice of regression function for rbEM
   on the ranking performance of AC?*
2. *How does the ranking performance of rbEM for AC vary as a function
   of the number of iterations?*

Neither of the above questions concern the standard EM, as dis-
cussed before. Introducing a regression function in an EM algorithm
is a powerful idea to solve the issues of standard EM in CLTR, but
it also brings its concerns as well.

We try different regression functions with different loss func-
tions and report the ranking performance on different iterations
of rbEM. We use the following regression functions: (1) Lambda-
MART; and (2) a neural network similar to that of [28]. Since the
regression function is used for fitting to relevance *probabilities*,
we use the cross entropy loss. Following the literature, we test
two cross entropy variations: (1) Sigmoid cross entropy, similar to
[1, 30]; (2) Soft-min-max cross entropy, similar to [28].

Fig. 3 summarizes the ranking performance of AC with rbEM,
with different regression functions, as a function of EM iterations.
Based on the observations in this figure, the answers to the ques-
tions of this section are: big and a lot. Concerning the first question,
we see that different regression functions lead to large differences
in ranking performance. More interestingly, the ordering of the
regression functions is not preserved in different datasets.

The second question is about the change of the performance as
the number of EM iterations increases. Fig. 3 shows that the ranking
performance does not always improve with more EM iterations.
On the Yahoo! Webscope dataset, the DNN with sigmoid loss has
a slight performance drop at iteration 80. On the MSLR-WEB30k
dataset, the performance of DNN with sigmoid loss is decreasing
between iterations 20 and 50. Another observation relating to the
EM iterations are the sudden performance drops at some iterations:
DNN with Soft-min-max loss in both datasets. These observations
indicate that, unlike the standard EM, the rbEM cannot necessarily
be trusted with regard to iterations: The performance is not always
increasing with the number of iterations.

Based on the above discussions and according to Fig. 3, our
choice for the rbEM baseline for comparison with other methods
is as follows: We chose the DNN with sigmoid cross entropy loss
function as the regression function. When there are no anomalies,
the DNN Sigmoid performs well up until iteration 100. In the cases
where there is an anomaly, we use the results of the last iteration
before the anomaly.

**Figure 3:** Regression-based EM ranking performance with
different regression functions with respect to EM itera-
tions. Left: Yahoo! Webscope dataset; right: MSLR-WEB30k
dataset.

(1) *What is the impact of the choice of regression function for rbEM
on the ranking performance of AC?*

(2) *How does the ranking performance of rbEM for AC vary as a function
of the number of iterations?*
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