

Collaborative Filtering on Implicit Feedback

Project Report

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1 Introduction

Recommender systems have become a fundamental tool in a wide range of online services, from e-commerce platforms to streaming applications. Their main goal is to assist users in navigating extremely large catalogs of items by providing personalized suggestions, thereby improving user experience and engagement. Traditionally, many of these systems rely on explicit feedback, such as ratings or reviews, where users directly express their preferences. However, in real-world scenarios explicit feedback is often sparse, costly to collect, and sometimes unreliable, since users may be unwilling or unable to provide explicit ratings consistently.

For these reasons, implicit feedback is of great practical interest. Implicit data, such as listening logs, browsing history, or purchase records, is abundant and can be collected passively, without requiring active user input. At the same time, working with implicit feedback presents unique challenges: the absence of explicit negative signals, the noisy nature of interactions, and the difficulty of distinguishing between true preferences and casual or accidental consumption.

This project focuses on these challenges by reimplementing the method proposed in the paper “*Collaborative Filtering for Implicit Feedback Datasets*” by Hu, Koren, and Volinsky (2008). The model introduced in this work is specifically designed to handle implicit feedback through a confidence-weighted matrix factorization approach. The method introduces the key idea of separating binary preferences from confidence levels, thus capturing both the presence of user interactions and their varying reliability.

The implementation has been tested on the Last.fm 1K dataset, which provides real listening histories of nearly one thousand users. In order to make the experiments computationally feasible within the scope of the exam project, the dataset was reduced to the first 500 users, still maintaining a significant amount of interactions. The system was then compared with simpler baselines such as popularity ranking and item–item collaborative filtering, in order to highlight the added value of the latent factor approach.

The broader objective of this work is not only to reproduce the results of the original paper, but also to critically evaluate the behavior of the algorithm on a different dataset, discuss its strengths and limitations, and provide a comparative analysis against alternative methods. In this way, the project demonstrates how research methods can be reimplemented and assessed on a real dataset, highlighting both their strengths and their practical limitations.

2 Dataset

The experiments are based on the **Last.fm 1K** music listening dataset, which contains complete listening histories for one thousand users. For feasibility and to align with the project constraints, we created a custom reduced version of the dataset by selecting the first 500 users from the original collection. This filtering step produced a smaller but still representative dataset, with approximately 2.5 million interactions, which makes the computational experiments manageable while preserving enough data to evaluate recommendation quality. The key characteristics are:

- **Source:** Last.fm 1K dataset (2009 snapshot)
- **Content:** User listening history (user, timestamp, artist, track)
- **Profiles:** User demographics (gender, age, country, signup date)
- **Subset:** First 500 users, approximately 2.5 million interactions

3 Data Loading and Preprocessing

The preprocessing phase was crucial to transform the already reduced dataset into a form suitable for recommendation experiments. Listening logs were aggregated by user and artist, resulting in a user-item matrix where each entry represented the number of times a given user had listened to a particular artist. This step converted the sequence of events into an implicit feedback signal, consistent with the paper’s framework.

Since recommendation is essentially a prediction of future behavior, the data was split temporally. The earlier interactions were used as training data, while the most recent ones were set aside for testing. In particular, the test set corresponds to the last month of listening events recorded in the dataset, measured from the global timestamp of the final interaction. This setup reflects real-world conditions, where recommendations must be generated from past user activity and evaluated on future events.

Finally, repeated listens to the same artist that appeared both in the training and in the test set were removed from the test portion. The motivation was to avoid over-estimating the models’ accuracy through “easy” predictions of repeated consumption, and instead to focus on the discovery of new artists for each user. This design choice is consistent with the evaluation protocol described in the original paper, where re-watches of the same program were excluded to better capture the system’s ability to recommend novel items.

4 Models

Three different recommendation models were implemented and compared. The first two act as simple baselines, while the third corresponds to the implicit feedback factorization proposed in the paper by Hu, Koren and Volinsky. In this way, we can appreciate the advantages of the more sophisticated approach against intuitive but limited methods.

Popularity

The first and simplest model is **Popularity**, which recommends the artists with the highest overall number of listens in the dataset. This method completely ignores personalization: all users receive the same list of recommendations. Although extremely simple, it provides a useful reference baseline to evaluate whether more complex algorithms are truly adding value.

Item–Item Collaborative Filtering

The second approach is **Item–Item Collaborative Filtering**, based on cosine similarity between artists. For each candidate artist, the model computes a score as a weighted sum of similarities with the artists already listened to by the user. This method is intuitive and explainable, since recommendations can be traced back to similar items in the user’s history. However, its performance is limited in sparse datasets, where similarity values may be unreliable due to the lack of co-listening data.

Implicit ALS

We adopt the confidence-weighted matrix factorization of Hu et al. (2008). Let r_{ui} be the number of listening events of item i by user u in the training window. From r_{ui} we derive two components:

- **Preference:**

$$p_{ui} = \mathbb{I}[r_{ui} > 0],$$

a binary signal indicating whether at least one interaction was observed.

- **Confidence** (two variants):

$$\underbrace{c_{ui} = 1 + \alpha r_{ui}}_{\text{linear}} \quad \text{and} \quad \underbrace{c_{ui} = 1 + \alpha \log\left(1 + \frac{r_{ui}}{c_0}\right)}_{\text{logarithmic (with scale } c_0\text{)}}.$$

For the logarithmic variant, the scale parameter c_0 is set as the mean of the positive interaction counts in the training data, ensuring that confidence grows smoothly and remains comparable across users and items.

Objective. Implicit ALS learns user factors $\{x_u\}$ and item factors $\{y_i\}$ by minimizing a confidence-weighted squared loss over *all* user–item pairs:

$$\min_{\{x_u\}, \{y_i\}} \sum_{u,i} c_{ui} (p_{ui} - x_u^\top y_i)^2 + \lambda \left(\sum_u \|x_u\|_2^2 + \sum_i \|y_i\|_2^2 \right),$$

with $\lambda > 0$ as a regularization strength.

Closed-form updates. Thanks to the quadratic form of the objective, the optimization can be solved by alternating least squares (ALS): user factors and item factors are updated in closed form, one set at a time.

For a given user u , let $C_u = \text{diag}(c_{ui})$ be the diagonal confidence matrix and p_u the binary preference vector. The update for x_u is:

$$x_u = (Y^\top C_u Y + \lambda I)^{-1} Y^\top C_u p_u.$$

Symmetrically, for a given item i , let $C_i = \text{diag}(c_{ui})$ across users and p_i the binary preference vector. The update for y_i is:

$$y_i = (X^\top C_i X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^\top C_i p_i.$$

By combining binary preferences with confidence weights, the model captures latent dimensions of user taste and item characteristics, generalizing beyond direct co-occurrence. This formulation, introduced by Hu et al. (2008), has since become the standard for collaborative filtering with implicit feedback.

5 Evaluation Methodology

To evaluate the models, we use metrics suited to implicit feedback. Traditional error-based measures such as RMSE are not meaningful in this setting, since there are no explicit ratings to compare against and a zero denotes “unobserved,” not a negative judgment. We therefore adopt ranking-based metrics that assess whether relevant items are placed near the top of the list, in line with the evaluation used in Hu et al. (2008). The main indicators were:

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- **Recall@K**, which measures how many of the actually consumed items appear in the top- K recommendations.
- **MAP@K**, which also considers the position of relevant items, rewarding correct rankings earlier in the list.
- **Expected Percentile Ranking (EPR)**, which measures the average position of relevant items within the full recommendation list. Lower values indicate a better overall ranking.

This evaluation framework aligns with the paper and focuses on the quality of the recommendation ranking rather than predicting exact ratings.

6 Sensitivity Analysis for ALS models

We varied the confidence strength $\alpha \in \{10, 40, 100\}$ and the number of latent factors $n_{\text{factors}} \in \{16, 32\}$ for both linear and logarithmic confidence. Three clear trends emerged.

(i) Larger α consistently hurts performance. For ALS-linear, Recall@10 drops from 0.0151 ($\alpha=10$, 32 factors) to 0.0019 ($\alpha=100$, 16 factors), while EPR deteriorates from 16.20 ($\alpha=10$, 16) to 21.57 ($\alpha=100$, 32).

For ALS-log with 16 factors, EPR remains stable ($15.33 \rightarrow 15.45$) but Recall@10 decreases ($0.0182 \rightarrow 0.0126$) as α grows.

(ii) Increasing the number of factors from 16 to 32 does not help on this small, sparse dataset and typically worsens global ranking. For ALS-log at $\alpha=10$, EPR degrades from 15.33 (16 factors) to 16.75 (32 factors) with no gain in Recall@10 ($0.0182 \rightarrow 0.0182$). For ALS-linear at $\alpha=10$, Recall@10 increases ($0.0088 \rightarrow 0.0151$) but EPR worsens ($16.20 \rightarrow 17.55$), indicating a trade-off toward overfitting and less consistent catalog-wide ordering.

(iii) Logarithmic scaling is more robust than linear. Across α , ALS-log with 16 factors keeps EPR around 15.3–15.5, whereas ALS-linear drifts up to 19–22.

Table 1: ALS sensitivity to confidence strength α and latent dimensionality n_{factors} .

Confidence	α	Factors	Recall@10	MAP@10	EPR
Linear	10	16	0.0088	0.0072	16.20
Linear	10	32	0.0151	0.0211	17.55
Linear	40	16	0.0044	0.0050	17.73
Linear	40	32	0.0107	0.0082	19.61
Linear	100	16	0.0019	0.0008	19.77
Linear	100	32	0.0038	0.0033	21.57
Log	10	16	0.0182	0.0214	15.33
Log	10	32	0.0182	0.0218	16.75
Log	40	16	0.0157	0.0219	15.47
Log	40	32	0.0157	0.0161	17.05
Log	100	16	0.0126	0.0146	15.45
Log	100	32	0.0126	0.0153	17.47

Overall, the best trade-off is obtained with ALS-log at $\alpha = 10$ and $n_{\text{factors}} = 16$, suggesting that on this reduced, sparse split smaller α and a modest latent dimensionality are preferable; this contrasts with the original paper, which favors larger α and higher dimensionality on large, denser datasets, and further supports the role of log scaling in damping heavy-user repetitions and preserving stable rankings.

7 Results

The table below summarizes the performance of the models on the reduced Last.fm dataset. For the linear and logarithmic ALS variants, the reported scores correspond to the best configuration found ($\alpha = 10$, $n_{\text{factors}} = 16$).

Model	Recall@10	MAP@10	EPR (%)
Popularity	0.0063	0.0056	17.48
Item–Item CF	0.0094	0.0128	15.68
ALS (linear conf.)	0.0088	0.0072	16.20
ALS (log conf.)	0.0182	0.0214	15.33

Table 2: Performance comparison across models.

On this reduced Last.fm split, absolute top-K values are low due to high sparsity, but relative gaps are clear. ALS with log-confidence achieves the best overall performance, yielding a more consistent catalog-wide ranking. Item–Item remains a strong baseline under sparsity, while ALS with linear confidence tends to overweight frequent interactions and therefore performs worse than both Item–Item and the ALS variant with logarithmic confidence.

Overall, the log-confidence variant offers the best trade-off between global ranking quality (lower EPR) and top-K accuracy (higher Recall/MAP) in this setting.

8 Strengths and Limitations

Strengths

- **ALS with log confidence** achieves the best trade-off between global ranking quality (low EPR) and top- K accuracy.
- Latent factors allow generalization beyond direct co-occurrence, while remaining computationally feasible with modest dimensionality.
- **Item–Item CF** remains a strong baseline: simple, explainable, and effective under high sparsity.

Limitations

- **Popularity bias**, with frequent artists dominating recommendations.
- **Dataset reduction and per-user cap**: necessary for computational feasibility but removing part of the long-tail behavior and reducing the richness of interactions.
- **Sensitivity to hyperparameters**: performance varies significantly with α and the number of factors; large values tend to overweight repeated interactions and worsen EPR, showing that careful tuning is required on sparse data.

9 Conclusion

This project reimplemented the implicit-feedback ALS model of Hu, Koren, and Volinsky and evaluated it against Popularity and Item–Item baselines on a reduced Last.fm split. Results show that confidence-weighted factorization is effective for implicit data: the logarithmic-confidence variant yields the best trade-off, combining lower EPR with higher top- K accuracy, with the best configuration at $\alpha = 10$ and $n_{\text{factors}} = 16$.

Item–Item remains competitive under sparsity, highlighting the importance of strong baselines: without them, improvements of more complex models like ALS could be overstated.

Limitations emerge from the implicit nature of the data and from scale: popularity bias, reduced expressiveness of latent factors, and sensitivity to hyperparameters.

Future work should address these issues through popularity-aware regularization, broader hyperparameter search, and experiments on larger, denser splits.

References

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