Model-based Collaborative Filtering

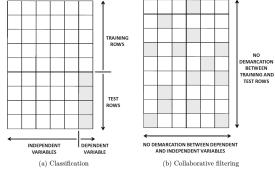
Neighborhood-based approaches for collaborative filtering are specific to the user and item that is being predicted. In contrast, model-based collaborative filtering relies on a summarized model of the data that is created beforehand during a training phase. This model is then used in the later prediction phase to efficiently calculate the predictions.

Advantages of model-based approaches¹:

- ► Space-efficiency: Typically, the size of the learned model is much smaller than the original ratings matrix.
- ► Training speed and prediction speed: One problem with neighborhood-based methods is that the pre-processing stage is quadratic in either the number of users or the number of items. Model-based systems are usually much faster in the preprocessing phase of constructing the trained model.
- ► Avoiding overfitting: Overfitting is a serious problem in many machine learning algorithms, in which the prediction is overly influenced by random artifacts in the data. The summarization approach of model-based methods can often help in avoiding overfitting.

 $^{^{1}}$ Adopted from: Recommender Systems The Textbook, C. C. Aggarwal, Springer, 2016

Model-based Collaborative Filtering



 $Comparing \ the \ traditional \ classification \ problem \ with \ collaborative \ filtering. \ Shaded \ entries \ are \ missing \ and \ need \ to \ be \ predicted^1$

Model-based collaborative filtering methods include, for example, rule-based methods, decision trees, regression models, Bayes classifiers, support vector machines, or neural networks.

¹Source: Recommender Systems The Textbook, C. C. Aggarwal, Springer, 2016

Association Rule Mining

Association Rule Mining is a technique to identify rulelike relationship patterns in large-scale transactions.

► An example rule could be: "If a customer purchases baby food then he or she also buys diapers in 70 percent of the cases".

Definition by Sarwar et al.:

- ▶ A (sales) transaction T is a subset of the set of available products $P = \{p_1, \dots, p_m\}$ and describes a set of products that have been purchased together.
- ▶ Association rules are often written in the form $X \to Y$, with X and Y being both subsets of P and $X \cap Y = \emptyset$
- ▶ An association rule $X \to Y$ (e.g. baby food \to diapers) expresses that whenever the elements of X (the rule body) are contained in transaction T, it is very likely that the elements in Y (the rule head) are elements of the same transaction.

In collaborative recommender systems, the goal of association rule mining is to detect rules such as "If user Alice liked both Item 5 and Item 7, then Alice will most probably also like Item 23".

Association Rule Mining

The goal of rule mining algorithms such as *Apriori* (by Agrawal and Srikant, 1994) is to automatically detect such rules and *calculate a measure of quality for those rules*¹.

▶ The support of a rule $X \to Y$ is calculated as the percentage of transactions that contain all items of $X \cup Y$ with respect to the number of overall transactions (i.e., the probability of co-occurrence of X and Y in a transaction):

$$\frac{\text{Support}(X \to Y)}{\text{Number of transactions containing } X \cup Y}$$

► The confidence is defined as the ratio of transactions that contain all items of X ∪ Y to the number of transactions that contain only X:

Confidence
$$(X \to Y) = \frac{\text{Number of transactions containing } X \cup Y}{\text{Number of transactions containing } X}$$

¹Adapted from: D. Jannach et al.: Recommender Systems An Introduction, Cambridge University Press, 2011

Association Rule Mining: Example

Assume a ratings matrix with a binary scale ("like" / "dislike"):

	Bread	Butter	Milk	Fish	Beef	Ham
User 1	1	1	1	0	0	0
User 2	0	1	1	0	1	0
User 3	1	1	0	0	0	0
User 4	1	1	1	1	1	1
User 5	0	0	0	1	0	1
User 6	0	0	0	1	1	1
User 7	0	1	0	1	1	0

It is evident that the columns of the table can be partitioned into two sets of closely related items. One of these sets is $\{Bread, Butter, Milk\}$, and the other set is $\{Fish, Beef, Ham\}$. These are the only itemsets with at least 3 items, which also have a support of at least 0.2.

Association Rule Mining

Finding association rules involves two steps:

- 1. Find all itemsets that satisfy a minimum support threshold s.
- 2. From each of these itemsets Z, all possible 2-way partitions (X, Z X) are used to create a potential rule $X \to Z X$. Those rules satisfying the minimum confidence are retained.

The calculation of interesting association rules can be performed offline.

- ► At runtime, the following scheme can be used to compute recommendations for a user Alice:
 - ▶ Determine the set of $X \to Y$ association rules that are relevant for Alice that is, where Alice has bought (or liked) all elements from X.
 - ► Compute the union of items appearing in the consequent *Y* of those association rules that have not been purchased by Alice.
 - ▶ Sort the products according to the confidence of the rule that predicted them.
 - ▶ Return the first N elements of this ordered list as a recommendation.

Matrix factorization / Singular Value Decomposition

- ► Simply put, matrix factorization methods can be used in recommender systems to derive a set of **latent** (hidden) factors from the rating patterns and characterize both users and items by such vectors of factors.
- ► Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) was proposed by Deerwester et al. in 1990 as a method to discover latent factors in documents.
- ► The SVD theorem by Golub and Kahan (1965) states that a given matrix **M** can be decomposed into a product of three matrices as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{M} = \boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\boldsymbol{V}^{\boldsymbol{T}}$$



where ${\bf U}$ and ${\bf V}$ are called *left* and *right singular vectors* and the values of the diagonal of Σ are called the *singular values*.

Singular Value Decomposition: Example

Consider the following rating matrix:

	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4
User 1	3	1	2	3
User 2	4	3	4	3
User 3	3	2	1	5
User 4	1	6	5	2

Because in this example the 4x4 matrix ${\bf M}$ is quadratic, ${\bf U}, \Sigma$ and ${\bf V}$ are also quadratic.

$$M = U\Sigma V^T$$

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.35 & -0.36 & 0.29 & -0.80 \\ -0.56 & -0.08 & 0.62 & 0.52 \\ -0.44 & -0.56 & -0.65 & 0.21 \\ -0.59 & -0.73 & -0.28 & -0.17 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 12.22 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4.92 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2.06 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.29 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{V}^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.43 & -0.53 & -0.52 & -0.50 \\ -0.49 & 0.53 & 0.40 & -0.55 \\ 0.55 & -0.41 & 0.48 & -0.53 \\ 0.51 & 0.50 & -0.56 & -0.38 \end{pmatrix}$$

Singular Value Decomposition: Example

The main point of the SVD is that we can approximate the full matrix by observing only the most important features, i.e., those with the largest singular values.

▶ For example, consider the projection of U, V^T and Σ in the two-dimensional space:

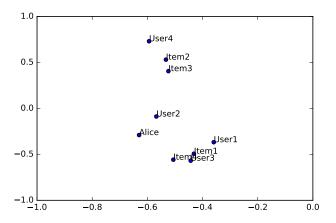
$$\mathbf{U}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -0.35 & -0.36 \\ -0.56 & -0.08 \\ -0.44 & -0.56 \\ -0.59 & -0.73 \end{pmatrix} \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 12.22 & 0 \\ 0 & 4.92 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{V}_2^T = \begin{pmatrix} -0.43 & -0.53 & -0.52 & -0.50 \\ -0.49 & 0.53 & 0.40 & -0.55 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ► Matrix **U** and **V** correspond to the **latent user and item factors**.
- ► Although in this example we cannot observe any clusters of users, we can see that the items from **V** build two groups.

Singular Value Decomposition: Example

Consider a target user *Alice* with a rating vector $r_{Alice} = [5, 3, 4, 4]$ for the four items. We can find out where Alice would be positioned in this two-dimensional space by calculating

$$r_{Alice2D} = r_{Alice} \times \mathbf{V}_2 \times \Sigma_2^{-1} \approx [-0.63, 0.29]$$





Naive Bayes is a generative model, which is commonly used for classification.

- ▶ We treat items as features and users as instances.
- ► The main challenge is that any feature (item) can be the target class, and we have to deal with incomplete feature variables.

Assume a small number of I distinct ratings v_1, \ldots, v_I such as like, neutral, dislike, and an $m \times n$ rating matrix where the (u, j)th element is denoted by r_{uj} . Furthermore, let I_u be the set of items that have been rated by user u.

The goal of the Bayes classifier is to predict the unobserved rating r_{uj} .

- ▶ r_{uj} can take any one of the discrete possibilities in $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$.
- ▶ We would like to determine the **probability** that r_{uj} takes on any of these values conditional on the observed ratings in l_u .

In other words, we want to determine the **probability** $P(r_{uj} = v_s | \text{Observed ratings in } I_u)$ for each value of s in $\{1, \ldots, I\}$.

We can simplify this expression by using the well-known **Bayes theorem**:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) * P(A)}{P(B)}$$



Therefore for each value of s in $\{1, \ldots, l\}$ we have

$$P(r_{uj} = v_s | \text{Observed ratings in } I_u) = \frac{P(r_{uj} = v_s) * P(\text{Observed ratings in } I_u | r_{uj} = v_s)}{P(\text{Observed ratings in } I_u)}$$

- ▶ We would like to determine the value of s for which the value of $P(r_{ui} = v_s | \text{Observed ratings in } I_u)$ is as large as possible.
- ▶ Because the denominator of the right hand side is independent of *s*, we can express the equation in terms of a constant of proportionality:

$$P(r_{uj} = v_s | \text{Observed ratings in } I_u) \propto P(r_{uj} = v_s) * P(\text{Observed ratings in } I_u | r_{uj} = v_s)$$

- ▶ The value of $P(r_{uj} = v_s)$, also called the **prior probability**, is estimated to the fraction of users that have specified the rating v_s for item j (users who haven't rated j are ignored here).
- ▶ $P(\text{Observed ratings in } I_u | r_{uj} = v_s)$ is estimated with the use of the **naive assumption** (i.e., conditional independence between ratings). Conditional independence says that the ratings of a user for various items I_u are independent from each other, *conditional* of the fact that the value of r_{uj} was observed to be v_s . We can express this mathematically as follows:

$$P(\text{Observed ratings in } I_u | r_{uj} = v_s) = \prod_{k \in I_u} P(r_{uk} | r_{uj} = v_s)$$

▶ $P(r_{uk}|r_{uj}=v_s)$ is estimated as the fraction of users that have specified the rating of r_{uk} for the kth item, given that they have specified the rating of their jth item to v_s .

By plugging in the estimation of the prior probability $P(r_{uj} = v_s)$ and the previous equation, it is possible to obtain an estimate of the **posterior probability** of the rating of item j for user u as follows:

$$P(r_{uj} = v_s | \text{Observed ratings in } I_u) \propto P(r_{uj} = v_s) * \prod_{k \in I_u} P(r_{uk} | r_{uj} = v_s)$$

By computing each of the expressions on the right-hand side for each $s \in \{1, ..., I\}$, and determining the value of s at which it is the largest, we can determine the most likely value \hat{r}_{uj} of the missing rating r_{uj} :

$$\hat{r}_{uj} = \operatorname{argmax}_{v_s} P(r_{uj} = v_s) * \prod_{k \in I_s} P(r_{uk} | r_{uj} = v_s)$$