Rule-Based Collaborative Filtering, Association Rules, Naive Bayes Collaborative Filtering, Neural Network, Singular Value Decomposition, Stochastic Gradient Descent, Regularization.

Rule-Based Collaborative Filtering Using Association Rules

Relationship Between Association Rules and Collaborative Filtering

- Association rule mining was originally used to discover relationships in supermarket transaction data.
- It is naturally defined over **binary data** but can be extended to **categorical and numerical data** by conversion.
- In supermarket transactions and implicit feedback datasets, unary data is common, where **1s indicate a purchase** and **0s indicate missing values** (often approximated as "not purchased").

Transaction Database and Itemset Representation

- A transaction database T = {T1, T2, ..., Tm} contains m transactions.
- Each transaction T_i is a subset of items from the universal set I.
- The goal of association rule mining is to find sets of items that are highly correlated using support and confidence measures.

Support: Measuring Itemset Frequency

- **Definition:** The support of an itemset $X \subseteq I$ is the fraction of transactions in T where X appears.
- If $support(X) \ge minimum support threshold (s)$, then X is called a frequent itemset.
- Frequent itemsets provide valuable insights into customer behavior.

Example of Support in Market Basket Data (Table 3.1)

- Two frequent itemsets identified:
 - {Bread, Butter, Milk}
 - {Fish, Beef, Ham}
- These itemsets have a support of at least 0.2, meaning they appear in at least 20% of transactions.
- **Implication for Recommendation Systems:**
 - If a customer buys {Butter, Milk}, they are likely to buy Bread (like Mary in the table).
 - If a customer buys {Fish, Ham}, they are likely to buy Beef (like John in the table).

Table 3.1: Example of market basket data

Item \Rightarrow	Bread	Butter	Milk	Fish	Beef	Ham
Customer \Downarrow						
Jack	1	1	1	0	0	0
Mary	0	1	1	0	1	0
Jane	1	1	0	0	0	0
Sayani	1	1	1	1	1	1
John	0	0	0	1	0	1
Tom	0	0	0	1	1	1
Peter	0	1	0	1	1	0

Association Rules and Confidence

- **Definition:** An association rule is an implication of the form $X \Rightarrow Y$, where:
 - X (antecedent): Items already purchased.
 - Y (consequent): **Items that can be recommended**.
- Example Rule: {Butter, Milk} \Rightarrow {Bread}
 - Useful for recommending **Bread to Mary**, since she has already bought Butter and Milk.
- Confidence Measure: The strength of the rule is measured by confidence:

Formula:

$$\operatorname{Confidence}(X\Rightarrow Y) = rac{\operatorname{Support}(X\cup Y)}{\operatorname{Support}(X)}$$

Confidence is always in the range (0,1).

Higher confidence → Stronger association.

Finding Association Rules: Two-Phase Algorithm

- Frequent Itemset Mining:
 - Find all **frequent itemsets** satisfying **minimum support** (s).
 - Computationally intensive phase (especially for large databases).
 - Many optimized algorithms exist to speed up this process.

Rule Generation:

- Partition each frequent itemset into X (antecedent) and Y (consequent).
- Generate rules $X \Rightarrow Y$.
- Retain rules that satisfy **minimum confidence (c)**.

Importance of Association Rule Mining in Collaborative Filtering

- Helps in discovering **hidden correlations** between products in transactional data.
- Useful for:
 - Personalized recommendations (e.g., suggesting items frequently bought together).
 - Targeted marketing strategies (e.g., offering discounts on complementary items).
- Comparison with Collaborative Filtering:
 - Unlike traditional collaborative filtering, association rules do not require user ratings.
 - More effective in cases where implicit feedback (purchase history) is available.

Example of Association Rule Mining in Collaborative Filtering

Scenario: Online Retail Store

A retail store tracks customer purchases and aims to recommend items based on association rules derived from past transactions.

Step 1: Collecting Transaction Data

Customers buy different items, and the store records transactions. Below is a sample dataset:

Transaction ID	Items Purchased
1	Bread, Butter, Milk
2	Bread, Milk
3	Bread, Butter
4	Fish, Beef, Ham
5	Fish, Beef
6	Butter, Milk

Step 2: Finding Frequent Itemsets

The support of an itemset is the fraction of transactions containing that itemset.

Now, let's calculate the support for each frequent itemset:

Itemset	Count	Support Calculation	Support (%)
{Bread}	3	3/6	50%
{Butter}	3	3/6	50%
{Milk}	3	3/6	50%
{Fish}	2	2/6	33.3%
{Beef}	2	2/6	33.3%
{Ham}	1	1/6	16.7%
{Bread, Butter}	2	2/6	33.3%
{Bread, Milk}	2	2/6	33.3%
{Butter, Milk}	2	2/6	33.3%
{Fish, Beef}	2	2/6	33.3%
{Fish, Beef, Ham}	1	1/6	16.7%
{Bread, Butter, Milk}	1	1/6	16.7%

Step 3: Generating Association Rules

From the frequent itemsets above, we generate association rules.

- 1. Rule: {Butter, Milk} ⇒ {Bread}
 - Support: 2/6 = 33.3%
 - Confidence: Support of {Bread, Butter, Milk} ÷ Support of {Butter, Milk}
 - Confidence: (1/6) ÷ (2/6) = 50%
 - Interpretation: If a customer buys Butter and Milk, there is a 50% chance they will also buy
 Bread.
- 2. Rule: {Fish, Beef} ⇒ {Ham}
 - Support: 1/6 = 16.7%
 - Confidence: (1/6) ÷ (2/6) = 50%
 - Interpretation: If a customer buys Fish and Beef, there is a 50% chance they will also buy Ham.

Step 4: Applying Association Rules for Recommendations

- If a customer buys Butter and Milk, the system recommends Bread.
- If a customer buys Fish and Beef, the system recommends Ham.

Leveraging Association Rules for Collaborative Filtering

Association Rules and Unary Ratings Matrices

- Unary ratings matrices arise from customer activities (e.g., purchases) where a customer only indicates a "like" (not a dislike).
- Unary Data Representation:
 - Items purchased (liked) $\rightarrow 1$
 - Missing items (not purchased) \rightarrow 0
- Unlike typical rating matrices, missing values in unary matrices are approximated as 0 to simplify processing.
- Unary matrices are **sparse**, meaning most values are 0, making it acceptable to assume missing values are "not purchased."
- The matrix is treated as binary data, allowing association rules to be applied.

Discovering Association Rules

- Association rules are found by **analyzing patterns of item co-occurrence** in transactions.
- Steps to Generate Association Rules:
 - Find frequent itemsets using a minimum support threshold
 (s).
 - Generate association rules $(X \Rightarrow Y)$ using a minimum confidence threshold (c).
 - Retain only rules where the consequent contains exactly one item.
 - This set of rules is used for **recommendation modeling**.

Recommending Items to a Customer

• Consider a customer A, and we want to recommend relevant items.

• Steps:

- Identify all rules "fired" for customer A, meaning the antecedents of the rule match items A has purchased.
- Sort fired rules by decreasing confidence.
- Top-k items in the consequents of these rules are recommended to the customer.

Example Rule:

- (Item = Bread, Rating = Like) ⇒ (Item = Eggs, Rating = Like)
- If customer A has liked Bread, recommend Eggs.

Handling Numeric Ratings in Association Rules

- Unary matrices only capture "likes," but real-world ratings involve numeric values (e.g., 1-5 stars).
- Approach for Numeric Ratings:
 - Convert each (item, rating) pair into a pseudo-item.
 - Example: (Item = Bread, Rating = Dislike) is treated as a distinct item.
 - Construct rules using pseudo-items rather than simple item names.

Example:

(Item = Bread, Rating = Like) AND (Item = Fish, Rating = Dislike) ⇒ (Item = Eggs,
 Rating = Dislike)

Resolving Conflicts in Rule-Based Predictions

- Since rules can contradict each other (e.g., one rule predicts **Like**, another predicts **Dislike**), conflicts must be resolved.
- Approach to Conflict Resolution:
 - Use weighted voting based on confidence values.

Example Conflict Resolution:

- Rule 1: (Item = Bread, Rating = Like) ⇒ (Item = Eggs, Rating = Like), Confidence =
 0.9
- Rule 2: (Item = Fish, Rating = Dislike) ⇒ (Item = Eggs, Rating = Dislike),
 Confidence = 0.8
- Total votes for Like = 0.9, Dislike = 0.8
- Final rating prediction = Like (since 0.9 > 0.8).

Weighted Voting for Prediction

• Instead of strict rules, ratings can be numerically aggregated.

• Steps:

- Identify all **fired rules** predicting ratings for a given item.
- Sum up votes for each rating based on the rule's confidence.
- The highest weighted rating determines the predicted rating.
- The sorted list of top-rated items is recommended to the user.

Using Interval-Based Ratings

- When the rating scale has many possible values (e.g., 1-5 stars):
 - Convert the scale into a smaller set of intervals (e.g., 1-2 = "Low", 3 = "Medium", 4-5 = "High").
 - Apply **Association rule mining** on the interval-based ratings.
 - This allows handling continuous ratings in a structured way

Item-Specific Support for Better Recommendations

- Instead of one global support threshold, different items can have different support values.
- Example:
 - A rarely purchased item may still be important, so a lower support threshold should be used.
 - A frequently purchased item should have a higher support threshold.
- Using **item-specific support** can improve the quality of recommendations.

Benefits of Rule-Based Collaborative Filtering

- Does not require explicit user ratings, making it useful for implicit feedback systems (e.g., e-commerce).
- Scalable for large transaction datasets with efficient frequent pattern mining algorithms.
- Handles sparse data well by using association rules to infer recommendations.
- Supports both binary and numeric ratings, allowing flexible recommendation models.

Naïve Bayes Model in Collaborative Filtering

- Used for predicting missing ratings in an $\mathbf{m} \times \mathbf{n}$ matrix \mathbf{R} , where:
 - m = users.
 - n = items.
- r_{uj} = user u's rating for item j.
- Ratings are treated as **categorical values** (unordered discrete values like {Like, Neutral, Dislike}).
- The objective is to **predict missing ratings** based on observed ratings using a probabilistic framework.

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

Application of Bayes' Theorem

 We compute the probability of a missing rating based on observed ratings:

$$P(ruj = vs|ObservedRatings)$$

- P(ruj = vs): Prior probability (fraction of users who rated item j as vs).
- P(ObservedRatings | ruj = vs): Likelihood, estimated using the Naïve assumption.
- Bayes' Rule:

$$P(ruj = vs|ObservedRatings) \propto P(ruj = vs) \cdot P(ObservedRatings|ruj = vs)$$

The denominator is ignored since it is the same for all rating values.

Estimating Conditional Probabilities

• The Naïve Bayes assumption is applied: Ratings are independent given a specific rating for item j.

$$P(ObservedRatings|ruj=vs) = \prod_{k \in Iu} P(ruk|ruj=vs)$$

- P(ruk | ruj = vs): Probability that an observed rating ruk appears given that item j was rated as vs.
- Independence Assumption: Ratings for different items are conditionally independent.

Methods to Estimate the Missing Rating

• Two main methods are used to predict the rating:

Method 1: Maximum Probability Estimate

• Select the rating value with the highest probability.

$$\hat{ruj} = rg \max_{vs} P(ruj = vs) \cdot \prod_{k \in Iu} P(ruk|ruj = vs)$$

- Simply chooses the most probable rating category.
- · Suitable when the number of ratings is small and categorical.

Method 2: Weighted Average Prediction

Computes a probability-weighted average of all possible ratings.

$$\hat{ruj} = rac{\sum_{s=1}^{l} vs \cdot P(ruj = vs) \cdot \prod_{k \in Iu} P(ruk|ruj = vs)}{\sum_{s=1}^{l} P(ruj = vs) \cdot \prod_{k \in Iu} P(ruk|ruj = vs)}$$

- Assigns a numerical score rather than selecting a fixed category.
- More accurate for granular rating scales.

Example

Predicting Movie Ratings Using Naïve Bayes

• We have a binary ratings matrix where users rate movies with either 1 (Like) or -1 (Dislike). Our goal is to predict the missing ratings using Bayes' Theorem.

Given Data:

• We need to predict User 3's rating for Movie 1.

Ratings Matrix (Initial Data)

User-ID ↓	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6
1	1	-1	1	-1	1	-1
2	1	1	?	-1	-1	-1
3	?	1	1	-1	-1	?
4	-1	-1	-1	1	1	1
5	-1	?	-1	1	1	1

Step 1: Apply Bayes' Theorem

• Using Bayes' Rule, we compute:

$$P(r_{31} = 1 | r_{32}, r_{33}, r_{34}, r_{35}) \propto P(r_{31} = 1) \cdot P(r_{32} = 1 | r_{31} = 1) \cdot P(r_{33} = 1 | r_{31} = 1) \cdot P(r_{34} = -1 | r_{31} = 1) \cdot P(r_{35} = -1 | r_{31} = 1)$$

Understanding Each Term:

This equation is computing the **posterior probability** of r_{31} , which is the missing rating of **user 3 for** item 1.

- P(r₃₁ = 1|r₃₂, r₃₃, r₃₄, r₃₅) → The probability that user 3 will rate item 1 as 1, given their other ratings (items 2, 3, 4, and 5).
- Using Bayes' Theorem:
 - $P(r_{31}=1) o extstyle{Prior probability}$: The fraction of users who rated item 1 as 1.
 - P(r₃₂ = 1|r₃₁ = 1) → Conditional probability: Among users who rated item 1 as 1, the fraction who also rated item 2 as 1.
 - $P(r_{33}=1|r_{31}=1)$ ightarrow Among users who rated item 1 as 1, the fraction who also rated item 3 as 1.
 - $P(r_{34}=-1|r_{31}=1)$ ightarrow Among users who rated item 1 as 1, the fraction who rated item 4 as -1.
 - $P(r_{35}=-1|r_{31}=1)$ ightarrow Among users who rated item 1 as 1, the fraction who rated item 5 as -1.

Step 1: Compute Prior Probability

We estimate the prior probability of $r_{31}=1$ and $r_{31}=-1$:

$$P(r_{31}=1) = rac{ ext{Users who rated Item 1 as 1}}{ ext{Total users who rated Item 1}}$$

From the dataset:

- Users who rated Item 1 as 1: 2 (Users 1 and 2)
- Total users who rated Item 1: 4 (Users 1, 2, 4, 5)

Thus:

$$P(r_{31}=1)=rac{2}{4}=0.5$$

$$P(r_{31}=-1)=rac{2}{4}=0.5$$

User-ID ↓	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6
1	1	-1	1	-1	1	-1
2	1	1	?	-1	-1	-1
3	?	1	1	-1	-1	?
4	-1	-1	-1	1	1	1
5	-1	?	-1	1	1	1

Step 1: Compute Prior Probability

We estimate the prior probability of $r_{31}=1$ and $r_{31}=-1$:

$$P(r_{31}=1) = rac{ ext{Users who rated Item 1 as 1}}{ ext{Total users who rated Item 1}}$$

From the dataset:

- Users who rated Item 1 as 1: 2 (Users 1 and 2)
- Total users who rated Item 1: 4 (Users 1, 2, 4, 5)

Thus:

$$P(r_{31}=1)=rac{2}{4}=0.5$$

$$P(r_{31}=-1)=rac{2}{4}=0.5$$

User-ID ↓	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6
1	1	-1	1	-1	1	-1
2	1	1	?	-1	-1	-1
3	?	1	1	-1	-1	?
4	-1	-1	-1	1	1	1
5	-1	?	-1	1	1	1

Step 3: Compute Posterior Probability Using Bayes' Theorem

Now, we compute:

$$P(r_{31}=1|r_{32},r_{33},r_{34},r_{35}) \propto P(r_{31}=1) \cdot P(r_{32}=1|r_{31}=1) \cdot P(r_{33}=1|r_{31}=1) \cdot P(r_{34}=-1|r_{31}=1) \cdot P(r_{35}=-1|r_{31}=1) \cdot P(r_{31}=1|r_{31}=1) \cdot P(r_{31}=1|r_{31}=1|r_{31}=1) \cdot P(r_{31}=1|r_{31}=1) \cdot P(r_{31}=1|r_{31}=1) \cdot P(r_{31}=1|r_{31}=1) \cdot$$

Substituting values:

$$P(r_{31} = 1 | r_{32}, r_{33}, r_{34}, r_{35}) \propto (0.5)(0.5)(1)(1)(0.5) = 0.125$$

Similarly, for $r_{31} = -1$:

$$P(r_{31} = -1|r_{32}, r_{33}, r_{34}, r_{35}) \propto (0.5)(0)(0)(0)(0) = 0$$

Since:

$$P(r_{31}=1) > P(r_{31}=-1)$$

we predict:

$$r_{31} = 1$$

Step 4: Compute for r_{36}

Similarly, we compute the probabilities for Item 6.

Using the same methodology, we find:

$$P(r_{36}=-1)>P(r_{36}=1)$$

Thus, the predicted value is:

$$r_{36} = -1$$

Final Predictions

- $r_{31} = 1$
- $r_{36} = -1$

Item-Based vs. User-Based Naïve Bayes

- Item-Based Naïve Bayes: Predicts a user's rating for an item based on the user's other ratings.
- User-Based Naïve Bayes: Predicts a user's rating for an item based on how other users rated the same item.
- **Hybrid Approach**: Combines both item-based and user-based probabilities for a better prediction.

Example Scenario

- Use Case: Movie Recommendation
- **Problem**: A streaming service wants to predict whether a user will **Like, Neutral, or Dislike** a movie based on their past ratings.

Approach:

- Construct a ratings matrix where users rate different movies.
- Apply Naïve Bayes to estimate missing ratings using observed ones.
- Use Maximum Probability Estimate or Weighted Average Prediction to predict the most likely rating.
- Recommend movies with the highest predicted ratings.

Using Neural Networks as a Black-Box in Collaborative Filtering

Arbitrary Classification Model in Collaborative Filtering

- Many classification/regression methods can be extended to collaborative filtering.
- The main challenge is handling incomplete data due to missing values.
- Unary data (where missing values are assumed to be 0) can be used in sparse high-dimensional scenarios.
- Methods like support vector machines (SVMs) and regression models can be adapted.

Handling Missing Values

- Missing values in non-unary data cannot be replaced with 0 without bias.
- Dimensionality reduction techniques can be used to transform data into a fully specified low-dimensional representation.
- Classification methods can work as meta-algorithms with iterative refinement.

Iterative Refinement for Prediction

- Missing values are initially filled using:
 - Row or column averages
 - Simple collaborative filtering algorithms (e.g., user-based methods)
- Bias removal (mean-centering each row) helps improve accuracy.

- The algorithm iteratively refines missing values:
 - **1.Step 1:** Use a classification/regression model to estimate missing values.
 - **2.Step 2:** Update missing entries with predicted values and repeat.

Neural Networks as a Black-Box Model

- Neural networks simulate the human brain using neurons and weights.
- Perceptron Model (Basic single-layer neural network)
 - Uses weights and an activation function to classify inputs.
- Multilayer Neural Networks (Deep learning models)
 - Can compute complex, nonlinear functions for better predictions.

Using Neural Networks for Collaborative Filtering

- Each item is predicted using the ratings of other items as input.
- Mean-centering is applied to normalize ratings before training.
- The neural network model is iteratively updated using:
 - Training the model with available data.
 - Updating missing ratings using predictions.
 - Repeating until convergence.

Example: Neural Network-Based Collaborative Filtering Step 1: Understanding the Input Data

- We have a user-item rating matrix (Figure 3.4).
- Users (U1 to U6) have rated movies (Gladiator, Ben-Hur, Godfather, Goodfellas).
- Some ratings are missing and need to be predicted.

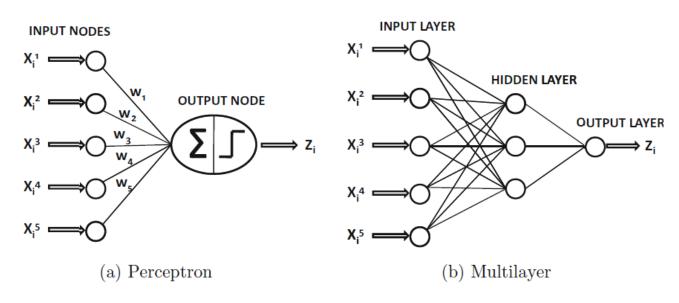


Figure 3.3: Single and multilayer neural networks

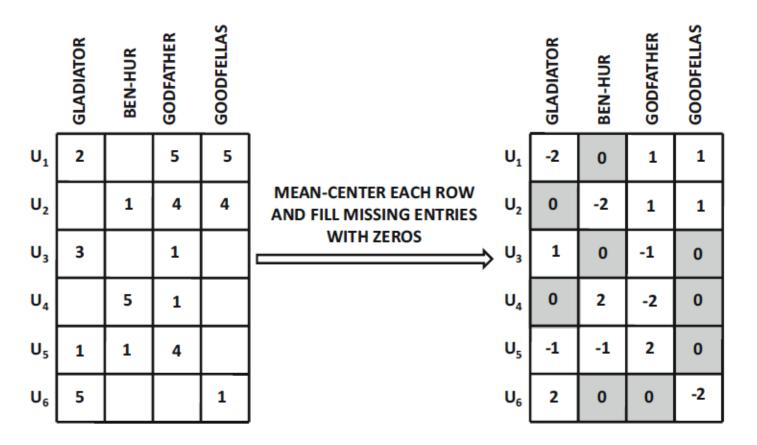


Figure 3.4: Pre-processing the ratings matrix. Shaded entries are iteratively updated.

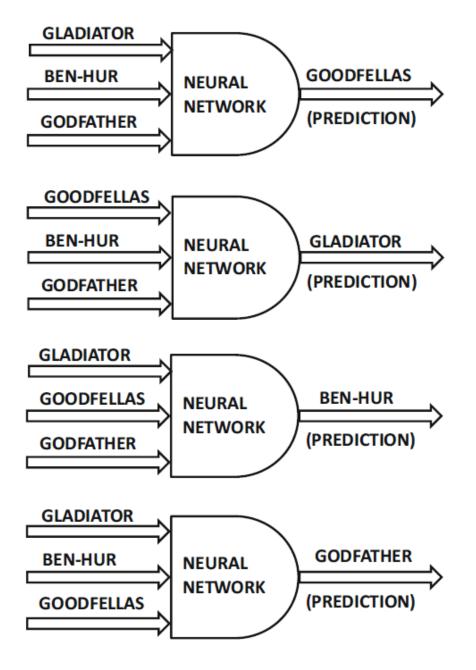


Figure 3.5: Neural networks for predicting and updating missing entries.

Step 2: Pre-processing the Data

- Mean-centering is applied to each row to remove user biases.
- Missing entries are initially filled with zero to create a complete dataset.
- Example transformation:
 - User U1 originally rated Gladiator (2) and Goodfellas (5), but after mean-centering, these values are transformed.

Step 3: Neural Network Model

- A neural network (Figure 3.3) is used to predict missing values.
- A perceptron (Figure 3.3a) is used for basic predictions.
- A multilayer neural network (Figure 3.3b) improves predictions by learning patterns in user preferences.

Step 4: Iterative Updates Using a Neural Network

- Each movie (Gladiator, Ben-Hur, Godfather, Goodfellas) is treated as a target variable in different iterations.
- Other movie ratings serve as input features.
- A separate neural network is trained for each movie prediction (Figure 3.5).
- Example predictions:
 - If a user rated **Gladiator**, **Ben-Hur**, and **Godfather**, the neural network predicts their rating for **Goodfellas**.
 - The process is repeated for all missing entries.

Step 5: Final Prediction & Recommendation

- Iteratively, the shaded missing values in Figure 3.4 are updated.
- Predictions converge to final estimated ratings.
- Recommended movies are based on the highest predicted scores.

Example Output

- Predict Missing Ratings for U3
- Given U3's ratings: (Gladiator = 1, Ben-Hur = 0, Godfather = -1, Goodfellas = 0)
- We use a **Neural Network** trained on other users' data to predict missing ratings.

Predictions:

- Gladiator $(1) \rightarrow$ Correctly retained.
- Ben-Hur $(0) \rightarrow$ Missing initially, replaced with 0.
- Godfather $(-1) \rightarrow$ Correctly retained.
- Goodfellas $(0) \rightarrow$ Missing initially, replaced with 0.
- Thus, Gladiator is the best recommendation for U3.

How the Prediction for Godfather (-1) Works?

Identify Similar Users

- The model looks at other users who also rated **Gladiator** = 3 and **Ben-Hur** = 1.
- It finds that most of these users rated Godfather negatively (-1).
- This means that users who liked **Gladiator and Ben-Hur tended to dislike Godfather**.

Compute Probability

- The neural network calculates the **probability of U3 disliking** Godfather.
- Since most similar users gave Godfather a -1 rating, the model assigns U3's missing rating for Godfather as -1.

Make a Prediction

• Final Prediction \rightarrow Godfather = -1 (U3 will likely dislike Godfather).

How the Prediction for Goodfellas (0) Works?

Identify Similar Users

- The model again finds users who rated Gladiator = 3 and
 Ben-Hur = 1.
- This time, it finds that some users liked Goodfellas, while others disliked it.
- There is no strong positive or negative pattern.

Compute Probability

- Since some users gave Goodfellas a positive rating (1) and some gave it a negative rating (-1), the average rating leans toward neutral (0).
- The system balances the conflicting opinions and predicts a neutral rating (0) for U3.

Make a Prediction

 Final Prediction → Goodfellas = 0 (U3 is expected to feel neutral about Goodfellas).

Latent Factor and Matrix Factorization in Recommender Systems

What is a Latent Factor?

- A latent factor is an underlying feature or pattern that influences user preferences but is **not directly observable**.
- These factors help explain the relationships between users and items in a recommender system.

Example of Latent Factors

- In a movie recommendation system, latent factors can include:
 - Genre Preference (e.g., action, drama, comedy)
 - Actor/Director Influence (e.g., movies starring Tom Hanks)
 - Movie Era (e.g., classic vs. modern films)
- These factors are **not explicitly available** but can be inferred from user ratings.

Concept of Matrix Factorization

- Matrix factorization decomposes a given **m** × **n** ratings matrix R into two smaller matrices:
 - User matrix U (m × k) Represents users' affinities to latent concepts.
 - Item matrix V (n × k) Represents items' relationships with these concepts.
- This factorization is represented as: $\mathbb{R} \approx \mathbb{U} \times V^T$

Where:

- U (User Matrix) \rightarrow Represents users in terms of latent factors.
- V (Item Matrix) \rightarrow Represents items in terms of latent factors.
- k is the number of latent factors.

Latent Factors and Vectors

- Latent Factors: Underlying patterns or features that explain relationships in the ratings matrix.
- User Factor (u_i) : Row vector in U, representing how much user i prefers each latent concept.
- Item Factor (v_j) : Row vector in V, representing how strongly an item j aligns with different concepts.

Approximate Prediction of Ratings

• The predicted rating r_{ij} (user i for item j) is computed as:

$$r_{ij} \approx u_i \cdot v_j$$

• This is equivalent to summing over all latent concepts k:

$$r_{ij} pprox \sum_{s=1}^k (Affinity \ of \ user \ i \ to \ concept \ s) imes (Affinity \ of \ item \ j \ to \ concept \ s)$$

Example of Matrix Factorization in a Recommender System

- Let's assume we have a **user-movie ratings matrix** where users have rated different movies on a scale from 1 to 5.
- Some ratings are missing, and we want to predict them using **Matrix Factorization.**

Step 1: Given Ratings Matrix ${\cal R}$

We have a 3 users \times 4 movies matrix:

	Movie 1	Movie 2	Movie 3	Movie 4
User 1	5	?	3	1
User 2	4	2	?	5
User 3	1	5	4	?

Here, "?" represents missing ratings that need to be predicted.

Step 2: Factorizing R into U and V

We approximate R as:

$$R pprox U imes V^T$$

U = User Matrix (3 × 2) (Users' preference factors)

$$U = egin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.6 \\ 0.9 & 0.4 \\ 0.3 & 0.9 \end{bmatrix}$$

V = Item Matrix (4 × 2) (Movies' feature factors)

$$V = egin{bmatrix} 0.7 & 0.5 \ 0.2 & 0.8 \ 0.6 & 0.7 \ 0.9 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Each row in U represents a user's preference towards **two latent features** (e.g., action and drama). Each row in V represents a movie's composition of those two features.

1. Initialization

- ullet Randomly initialize U and V with small values (e.g., between 0 and 1).
- · Example:

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.6 \\ 0.9 & 0.4 \\ 0.3 & 0.9 \end{bmatrix}, \quad V = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7 & 0.5 \\ 0.2 & 0.8 \\ 0.6 & 0.7 \\ 0.9 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 3: Predicting Missing Ratings

To predict **User 1's rating for Movie 2**, we compute the dot product of **User 1's factor vector** and **Movie 2's factor vector**:

$$\text{Predicted Rating} = U_1 \cdot V_2^T$$

Substituting values:

$$(0.8, 0.6) \cdot (0.2, 0.8)^{T}$$

$$= (0.8 \times 0.2) + (0.6 \times 0.8)$$

$$= 0.16 + 0.48 = 0.64$$
 $R_{scaled} = R_{min} + (R_{max} - R_{min}) \times \hat{R}$

Since the rating scale is between 1 and 5, we scale it accordingly (assuming normalization has been done). The predicted rating is approximately 3.2.

Similarly, we repeat this process for other missing values.

Step 4: Interpreting the Results

- The predicted rating 3.2 means User 1 is moderately interested in Movie 2.
- If another user had a stronger preference for Feature 1 (e.g., Action movies), their predicted rating for action-heavy movies would be higher.
- Matrix factorization helps us discover patterns in user preferences, even if they haven't explicitly rated all movies.

Unconstrained Matrix Factorization

Definition of Unconstrained Matrix Factorization

- A fundamental method of matrix factorization where **no constraints** (like orthogonality or non-negativity) are imposed on the factor matrices U and V.
- Often mistakenly referred to as **Singular Value Decomposition** (SVD) in recommendation literature, but they are distinct.

Objective of Matrix Factorization

- Approximate the given **ratings matrix R** as the product of two lower-dimensional matrices: $R \approx UV^T$
- Each column in U and V represents latent factors, which capture hidden patterns in the data.
- Each row of U (user factor) represents user affinity towards different concepts.
- Each row of V (item factor) represents item affinity towards different concepts.

Loss Function for Factorization

• The goal is to minimize the sum of squared errors (Frobenius norm):

$$J=rac{1}{2}||R-UV^T||^2$$

- Error function: Measures how well UV^T reconstructs R.
- The smaller the function value, the **better the factorization**

Handling Missing Entries in R

- In real-world applications, many entries in R are **missing**.
- Define the set S of observed user-item pairs:

$$S = \{(i, j) : r_{ij} \text{ is observed}\}$$

Modify the loss function to only consider **observed** entries:

$$J = rac{1}{2} \sum_{(i,j) \in S} (r_{ij} - \sum_{s=1}^{\kappa} u_{is} v_{js})^2$$

Optimization Using Gradient Descent

- Gradient Descent Algorithm is used to update U and V.
- Error calculation: Compute residual error between predicted and actual ratings:

$$e_{ij} = r_{ij} - \sum_{s=1}^k u_{is} v_{js}$$

Update rules:

$$U = U + \alpha EV$$

$$V = V + \alpha E^T U$$

where α is the learning rate.

Algorithm for Gradient Descent (Step-by-Step)

- 1. Initialize matrices U and V randomly.
- 2. Compute error matrix $E = R UV^T$.
- 3. Update user factors U using:

$$u_{iq} = u_{iq} + lpha \sum_{j:(i,j) \in S} e_{ij} v_{jq}$$

4. Update item factors V using:

$$v_{jq} = v_{jq} + lpha \sum_{i:(i,j) \in S} e_{ij} u_{iq}$$

Repeat until convergence (i.e., the error does not reduce significantly).

Example: Unconstrained Matrix Factorization with Gradient Descent

Step 1: Given Ratings Matrix (R)

We start with a 3×3 ratings matrix where some values are missing.

$$R = egin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & ? \ 4 & ? & 2 \ ? & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Our goal is to approximate this matrix using two smaller matrices U and V.

Step 2: Initialize Factor Matrices U and V

We initialize matrices U (user factors) and V (item factors) randomly:

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.3 \\ 0.5 & 0.7 \\ 0.4 & 0.8 \end{bmatrix}, V = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 & 0.9 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 \\ 0.7 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Each user and item is represented by two latent factors.

Step 3: Compute Approximate Ratings R^

The predicted ratings matrix is computed as:

$$\hat{R} = UV^T$$

Performing matrix multiplication:

$$\hat{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.3 \\ 0.5 & 0.7 \\ 0.4 & 0.8 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 & 0.9 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 \\ 0.7 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} (0.6 \times 0.2 + 0.3 \times 0.6) & (0.6 \times 0.9 + 0.3 \times 0.4) & (0.6 \times 0.7 + 0.3 \times 0.5) \\ (0.5 \times 0.2 + 0.7 \times 0.6) & (0.5 \times 0.9 + 0.7 \times 0.4) & (0.5 \times 0.7 + 0.7 \times 0.5) \\ (0.4 \times 0.2 + 0.8 \times 0.6) & (0.4 \times 0.9 + 0.8 \times 0.4) & (0.4 \times 0.7 + 0.8 \times 0.5) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0.3 & 0.66 & 0.57 \\ 0.62 & 0.71 & 0.84 \\ 0.64 & 0.76 & 0.82 \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix represents our initial approximation of R.

Step 4: Compute Loss Function (Handling Missing Entries)

The loss function considers only observed entries:

$$J=rac{1}{2}\sum_{(i,j)\in S}(r_{ij}-\hat{r}_{ij})^2$$

For observed entries:

$$J = rac{1}{2} \left[(5-0.3)^2 + (3-0.66)^2 + (4-0.62)^2 + (2-0.84)^2 + (1-0.76)^2 + (3-0.82)^2
ight]$$

The computed loss function J is **22.5728**. This quantifies how far our predictions are from the actual values.

Step 5: Compute the Error Matrix

The error matrix E is calculated as:

$$E = R - \hat{R}$$

For known values:

$$E = egin{bmatrix} (5-0.86) & (3-0.64) & ? \ (4-0.83) & ? & (1-0.82) \ ? & (2-0.78) & (3-0.81) \end{bmatrix} \ E = egin{bmatrix} 4.14 & 2.36 & ? \ 3.17 & ? & 0.18 \ ? & 1.22 & 2.19 \end{bmatrix}$$

Perform Gradient Descent Update

We update the factor matrices using:

$$U = U + \alpha EV$$

$$V = V + \alpha E^T U$$

Assuming learning rate $\alpha=0.01$, we update each value in U and V using:

$$U_{new} = U + 0.01 \times E \times V$$

$$V_{new} = V + 0.01 \times E^T \times U$$

After performing a few iterations of gradient descent, U and V update gradually to reduce error.

The error matrix E is given by:

$$E=R-\hat{R}$$

Predict Missing Values

Using updated U and V, we recompute \hat{R} , and **missing values** in R are predicted:

$$R_{1,3} \approx 4.2$$
, $R_{2,2} \approx 3.1$, $R_{3,1} \approx 3.8$

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) for Matrix Factorization

Introduction to SGD

- Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) is a method for optimizing matrix factorization.
- It updates the matrices **U** and **V** one entry at a time instead of considering all entries at once.
- Unlike batch gradient descent (which updates using all data at once), SGD processes one observed rating at a time, making it more efficient for large datasets.

Update Rule in SGD

- Instead of updating all parameters at once, we update individual elements based on a single observed rating r_{ij}.
- For each randomly selected entry (i,j), the update is computed as:

$$e_{ij} = r_{ij} - \hat{r}_{ij} = r_{ij} - (U_i \cdot V_j^T)$$

The updates for user and item factor matrices:

$$U_i = U_i + \alpha e_{ij} V_j$$

$$V_j = V_j + \alpha e_{ij} U_i$$

where:

- ullet e_{ij} is the error between actual and predicted rating.
- α is the learning rate.
- U_i and V_j are the latent factors for user i and item j.

Step-by-Step Algorithm for SGD

- 1. Initialize factor matrices U and V randomly.
- 2. Define the set of observed ratings:

$$S = \{(i, j) : r_{ij} \text{ is observed}\}.$$

- 3. Loop until convergence:
 - Shuffle observed entries in S.
 - For each (i, j) in S:
 - Compute the prediction error e_{ij} .
 - Update U and V using the update equations.
- Check convergence based on:
 - Small change in loss function.
 - Small updates in U and V.
- Stop the algorithm when the convergence condition is met.

Convergence & Learning Rate

- SGD is **faster than batch gradient descent** but has noisier convergence.
- Learning rate α is usually small (e.g., **0.005**) to prevent large jumps in updates.
- Adaptive learning rate methods (e.g., Bold Driver Algorithm) can speed up convergence.
- Running too many iterations may **overfit** the observed data, reducing the generalization on unobserved entries.

Mini-Batch Gradient Descent

- Instead of processing one rating at a time (SGD) or all ratings at once (Batch GD), a mini-batch of entries is processed at each step.
- This balances computational efficiency and solution quality.

Applying Stochastic Gradient Descent in Matrix Factorization

Step 1: Given Data (User-Item Rating Matrix)

We start with a matrix R, where some values are missing ("?"):

$$R = egin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & ? \ 4 & ? & 1 \ ? & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The goal is to **approximate** this matrix by decomposing it into two smaller matrices, **U** (User Features) and **V** (Item Features), and then fill in the missing values.

$$R pprox UV^T$$

Step 2: Initialize Factor Matrices

We randomly initialize U (user features) and V (item features):

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.6 \\ 0.9 & 0.4 \\ 0.3 & 0.9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$V = egin{bmatrix} 0.7 & 0.5 \ 0.2 & 0.8 \ 0.6 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Each row in **U** represents a user's affinity for **two latent factors** (e.g., "Action" & "Drama"). Each row in **V** represents an item's affinity for the same **two latent factors**.

Step 3: Compute Initial Predicted Ratings

The estimated rating matrix \mathbf{R}^{\bullet} is obtained by multiplying U and V^T :

$$R^=U \times V^T$$

Performing the matrix multiplication:

$$R^{=}\begin{bmatrix} (0.8 \times 0.7 + 0.6 \times 0.5) & (0.8 \times 0.2 + 0.6 \times 0.8) & (0.8 \times 0.6 + 0.6 \times 0.7) \\ (0.9 \times 0.7 + 0.4 \times 0.5) & (0.9 \times 0.2 + 0.4 \times 0.8) & (0.9 \times 0.6 + 0.4 \times 0.7) \\ (0.3 \times 0.7 + 0.9 \times 0.5) & (0.3 \times 0.2 + 0.9 \times 0.8) & (0.3 \times 0.6 + 0.9 \times 0.7) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R^{=}\begin{bmatrix} 0.86 & 0.64 & 0.90 \\ 0.83 & 0.50 & 0.82 \\ 0.66 & 0.78 & 0.81 \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 4: Compute the Error Matrix

We calculate the error matrix $E = R - R^{\wedge}$ for observed values only:

$$E = egin{bmatrix} (5-0.86) & (3-0.64) & ? \ (4-0.83) & ? & (1-0.82) \ ? & (2-0.78) & (3-0.81) \end{bmatrix} \ E = egin{bmatrix} 4.14 & 2.36 & ? \ 3.17 & ? & 0.18 \ ? & 1.22 & 2.19 \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 5: Perform Stochastic Gradient Descent Update

We update the factor matrices using:

$$U_{new} = U + \alpha EV$$

$$V_{new} = V + \alpha E^T U$$

Where $\alpha=0.01$ is the learning rate.

Updating U:

$$U_{new} = egin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.6 \ 0.9 & 0.4 \ 0.3 & 0.9 \end{bmatrix} + 0.01 imes egin{bmatrix} 4.14 & 2.36 & ? \ 3.17 & ? & 0.18 \ ? & 1.22 & 2.19 \end{bmatrix} imes egin{bmatrix} 0.7 & 0.5 \ 0.2 & 0.8 \ 0.6 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Updating V:

$$V_{new} = egin{bmatrix} 0.7 & 0.5 \ 0.2 & 0.8 \ 0.6 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} + 0.01 imes egin{bmatrix} 4.14 & 3.17 & ? \ 2.36 & ? & 1.22 \ ? & 0.18 & 2.19 \end{bmatrix}^T imes egin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.6 \ 0.9 & 0.4 \ 0.3 & 0.9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 6: Predict Missing Values

Using the updated **U** and **V**, we recompute R^ and predict the missing values.

$$R_{new} = egin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & 4.2 \ 4 & 3.1 & 1 \ 3.8 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, the missing values are predicted as follows:

- ullet $R_{1,3}pprox 4.2$ (Predicted rating for User 1, Item 3)
- ullet $R_{2,2}pprox 3.1$ (Predicted rating for User 2, Item 2)
- ullet $R_{3,1}pprox 3.8$ (Predicted rating for User 3, Item 1)

Step 7: Convergence & Final Predictions

The process repeats iteratively until convergence (i.e., when updates become very small).

- The loss function J decreases over time.
- The predicted ratings stabilize after a few iterations.
- The missing values are accurately estimated based on learned latent factors.

Regularization in Matrix Factorization

• Regularization is used to prevent **overfitting** in sparse rating matrices by discouraging large values in factor matrices **U** and **V**.

1. Why Regularization?

- In real-world applications, rating matrices are **sparse** (many missing values).
- Direct factorization without constraints may lead to **overfitting**.
- Regularization adds a bias to the model, preferring simpler solutions.

2. Regularized Objective Function

• The loss function now includes a **penalty term** to prevent overfitting:

$$J = rac{1}{2} \sum_{(i,j) \in S} (r_{ij} - \sum_{s=1}^k u_{is} v_{js})^2 + rac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{s=1}^k u_{is}^2 + rac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{s=1}^k v_{js}^2$$

where:

- S = set of observed ratings.
- \(\lambda = \text{regularization parameter} \) (controls the penalty for large values).
- The last two terms penalize large values in U and V.

- 3. Gradient Descent Updates with Regularization
- Regularization modifies the **gradient descent updates** as follows:

$$u_{iq} \leftarrow u_{iq} + lpha \left(\sum_{j:(i,j) \in S} e_{ij} v_{jq} - \lambda u_{iq}
ight)$$

$$v_{jq} \leftarrow v_{jq} + lpha \left(\sum_{i:(i,j) \in S} e_{ij} u_{iq} - \lambda v_{jq}
ight)$$

where:

- $e_{ij} = (r_{ij} \sum_{s=1}^k u_{is}v_{js})$ is the prediction error.
- α = learning rate.
- The term $-\lambda u_{iq}$ and $-\lambda v_{jq}$ shrink the values of U and V in each update.

- 4. Matrix Form Updates
- The updates can be written in matrix form:

$$U \leftarrow U(1 - \alpha\lambda) + \alpha EV$$

 $V \leftarrow V(1 - \alpha\lambda) + \alpha E^T U$

- The term $(1 \alpha \lambda)$ shrinks values in each iteration.
- The error matrix $E=R-\hat{R}$ (with missing entries set to 0) ensures **only observed values are** used.
- 5. Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) with Regularization
- Instead of updating all values at once, **SGD updates only one observed entry** (i, j) at a time:

$$u_i \leftarrow u_i + \alpha(e_{ij}v_j - \lambda u_i)$$

 $v_j \leftarrow v_j + \alpha(e_{ij}u_i - \lambda v_j)$

- Each entry updates only its corresponding user and item factors.
- This method is faster for large datasets.

6. Choosing the Regularization Parameter λ

- **Hold-out method**: Keep some ratings aside, tune λ based on how well predictions match them.
- Cross-validation: Split the dataset into multiple parts and test different λ values.
- Bayesian Optimization: Automatically tune λ using probabilistic methods.

7. Final Takeaways

- Regularization prevents overfitting by discouraging extreme values in U and V.
- Gradient descent updates are modified to shrink factor values in every step.
- SGD is often preferred for efficiency in large-scale recommendation systems.
- Selecting $\lambda \cdot$ lambda $\lambda \cdot$ carefully is important for balancing bias and variance.

- Applying Regularization in Matrix Factorization Using Gradient Descent
- We will go step by step through matrix factorization with regularization, which helps prevent overfitting in sparse rating matrices.

Step 1: Given Data (User-Item Rating Matrix)

We start with the following **user-item rating matrix** R, where some ratings are missing:

$$R = egin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & ? \ 4 & ? & 1 \ ? & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- ullet Goal: Approximate R using matrix factorization and predict missing values.
- ullet Regularization is used to prevent overfitting by penalizing large values in U and V.

We approximate R as:

$$R pprox UV^T$$

where:

- ullet U is the user-factor matrix (each row represents a user).
- V is the item-factor matrix (each row represents an item).

Step 2: Initialize Factor Matrices

We initialize U and V randomly:

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.6 \\ 0.9 & 0.4 \\ 0.3 & 0.9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7 & 0.5 \\ 0.2 & 0.8 \\ 0.6 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Each row in U represents a user's preference for two latent factors (e.g., "Action" & "Drama").

Each row in V represents an **item's affinity** for those latent factors.

Step 3: Compute Initial Predicted Ratings

The estimated rating matrix R^{\bullet} is obtained by multiplying U and V^{T} :

$$R^=U imes V^T$$

Performing matrix multiplication:

$$R^{=}\begin{bmatrix} (0.8\times0.7+0.6\times0.5) & (0.8\times0.2+0.6\times0.8) & (0.8\times0.6+0.6\times0.7) \\ (0.9\times0.7+0.4\times0.5) & (0.9\times0.2+0.4\times0.8) & (0.9\times0.6+0.4\times0.7) \\ (0.3\times0.7+0.9\times0.5) & (0.3\times0.2+0.9\times0.8) & (0.3\times0.6+0.9\times0.7) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R^{=} \begin{bmatrix} 0.86 & 0.64 & 0.90 \\ 0.83 & 0.50 & 0.82 \\ 0.66 & 0.78 & 0.81 \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 4: Compute the Error Matrix

The **error matrix** E is computed as:

$$E = R - R^{\wedge}$$

For known values:

$$E = egin{bmatrix} (5-0.86) & (3-0.64) & ? \ (4-0.83) & ? & (1-0.82) \ ? & (2-0.78) & (3-0.81) \end{bmatrix}$$
 $E = egin{bmatrix} 4.14 & 2.36 & ? \ 3.17 & ? & 0.18 \ ? & 1.22 & 2.19 \end{bmatrix}$

Step 5: Gradient Descent Update with Regularization

We update U and V using regularized gradient descent:

$$U_{
m new} = U + lpha \left(EV - \lambda U
ight)$$

$$V_{
m new} = V + lpha \left(E^T U - \lambda V
ight)$$

where:

- lpha=0.01 (learning rate)
- $\lambda = 0.1$ (regularization parameter)

Updating U:

$$U_{
m new}=U+0.01 imes(EV-0.1U)$$

$$V_{
m new} = V + 0.01 imes (E^T U - 0.1 V)$$

Each entry in U and V is updated to minimize error while preventing overfitting.

Step 6: Predict Missing Values

Using the updated U and V, we recompute R^{\wedge} and predict the missing values.

$$R_{
m new} = egin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & 4.2 \ 4 & 3.1 & 1 \ 3.8 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, the missing values are predicted as:

$$R_{1,3} \approx 4.2$$
, $R_{2,2} \approx 3.1$, $R_{3,1} \approx 3.8$

Step 7: Convergence & Final Predictions

- Regularization prevents overfitting by limiting large updates in U and V.
- The loss function J decreases over time.
- Predicted values stabilize after several iterations.
- ullet The **final factor matrices** U **and** V capture user-item interactions effectively.