Temporal Matrix Factorization for Tracking Concept Drift in Individual User Preferences

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Abstract—The matrix factorization (MF) technique has been widely adopted for solving the rating prediction problem in recommender systems. The MF technique utilizes the latent factor model to obtain *static* user preferences (user latent vectors) and item characteristics (item latent vectors) based on historical rating data. However, in the real world, user preferences are not static but full of dynamics. Though there are several previous works that addressed this time-varying issue of user preferences, it seems (to the best of our knowledge) that none of them are specifically designed for tracking concept drift in *individual user preferences*. Motivated by this, we develop a temporal MF approach for tracking concept drift in each individual user latent vector. There are two key innovative steps in our approach: 1) we develop a modified stochastic gradient descent method to learn an individual user latent vector at each time step and 2) by Lasso regression, we learn a linear model for the transition of the individual user latent vectors. We test our method on a synthetic data set and several real data sets. In comparison with the original MF, our experimental results show that our temporal method is able to achieve lower root mean square errors (RMSEs) for both the synthetic and real data sets. One interesting finding is that the performance gain in RMSE is mostly from those users who indeed have concept drift in their user latent vectors at the time of prediction. In particular, for the synthetic data set and the Ciao data set, there are quite a few users with that property and the performance gains for these two data sets are roughly 20% and 5%, respectively.

Index Terms—Concept drift, matrix factorization (MF), rating prediction, recommender systems, temporal dynamics.

I. Introduction

WITH the accelerated growth of the Internet and a wide range of Web services such as electronic commerce and online video streaming, people are easily overwhelmed by massive amounts of information, and therefore, recommender systems are indispensable tools to alleviate the information overload problem. At the heart of each recommender system, there is an algorithm that handles the rating prediction task and the accuracy of the rating prediction algorithm is the foundation of the system. The most successful and widely used approach to implement such an algorithm is collaborative filtering (CF) with matrix factorization (MF). Such

an approach has the advantage of high accuracy, robustness, and scalability, and it is thus more favorable than the other approaches, such as the neighborhood-based approach and the graph-based approach [1], [2]. The MF approach proved its success in the Netflix Prize competition [3] as the winning submission of this competition was heavily relied on it to predict unobserved ratings. The MF approach decomposes a user-item rating matrix into two low-rank matrices, which directly profile *users* and *items* to the latent factor space, respectively, and these representative latent factors form the main basis for further prediction in the future.

Although MF is the state-of-the-art approach that can successfully process the relational rating data, its capability of capturing the temporal dynamics of users' preferences is quite limited. As we are facing the fast-moving business environment, the real world is not static but full of dynamics. There are a great variety of sources that can cause the changes of users' behavior, including shifting trends in the community, the arrival of new products, the changes in users' social networks, and so on. Recent research in [4] considered the aspect of personal development and pointed out that user's expertise may change from amateurs to connoisseurs as they become more experienced. To satisfy users' current taste and need, a key building block for recommender systems is to accurately model such user preferences as they evolve over time.

The need to model the temporal dynamics of user preferences raises some fundamental challenges. First of all, the amount of available data is significantly reduced in a specific time step, and the sparsity problem of recommender systems is more severe in this situation. In addition, how can we generally incorporate the temporal dimension and further capture the evolution of preferences at the individual level for every time step? Finally, what is the principled method to model this kind of transition for every user in order to make more accurate predictions in the future? Toward this end, we propose a general and principled temporal dynamic model for tracking concept drift in each individual user latent vector. Such an approach can further effectively and efficiently achieve a lower RMSE than that of MF.

The main contributions of this paper include the following.
1) We propose a temporal MF (TMF) approach for tracking concept drift in each individual user latent vector. Such a method not only breaks the limit of using static decompositions in the original MF approach, but also provides a tool for recommender systems to better serve "valuable" customers in the future.

2) We develop a modified stochastic gradient descent (SGD) method to learn an individual user latent vector at each time step by using both the overall rating logs and the rating logs within the specific time step.

3) By using the Lasso regression for the user latent vector at every time step, we learn a linear system model that can be used for modeling the transition pattern at the individual level.

4) We conduct comprehensive experiments on a synthetic data set and four real data sets, such as Ciao, Epinions, Flixster, and MovieLens. In comparison with the original MF, our experimental results show that our TMF approach is able to achieve lower root mean square errors (RMSEs) for both the synthetic and real data sets. In particular, there is roughly a 17%–26% improvement on the synthetic data set and a 5% improvement on the Ciao data set. Such an improvement is quite significant.

5) Our experiments also reveal one interesting finding. The performance gain in RMSE is mostly from those users who indeed have concept drift in their user latent vectors at the time of prediction. In particular, for the synthetic data set and the Ciao data set, there are quite a few users with that property and the performance gains for these two data sets are more significant than those for the other data sets.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section II, we provide a review of related work. We define the rating prediction problem in Section III and we propose the method of incorporating temporal dynamics including capturing and predicting the user preferences in Section IV. In Section V, we conduct experiments on both synthetic and several real data sets to validate our proposed temporal method. Finally, we conclude this paper and point out the future research directions in Section VI.

In Table I, we provide a list for the notations that are used in this paper.

II. RELATED WORK

In this section, we first briefly review the MF approach for recommender systems and several recent approaches that intend to incorporate temporal dynamics with MF, including time-dependent CF, tensor factorization (TF), and collaborative Kalman filter (CKF).

A. Matrix Factorization

MF performs well in the rating prediction task and has attracted considerable attention. The rationale behind the MF approach is to characterize each user and item by a series of latent factors that can be used for representing or approximating the interactions between users and items from the historical rating logs. Specifically, given an $M \times N$ rating matrix $R = (R_{i,j})$ with M users and N items, the MF approach considers the following optimization problem:

$$\min_{P,Q} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{M} \sum_{j=1}^{N} I_{ij} \left(R_{ij} - Q_j^T \cdot P_i\right)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2}(\|P\|^2 + \|Q\|^2) \quad (1)$$

TABLE I
LIST OF NOTATIONS

M	The number of users
N	The number of items
T	$T-1$ training periods and prediction at time T
D	The number of latent factors
$R = (R_{i,j})$	The $M \times N$ rating matrix
$\hat{R}_{i,j}$	The prediction of $R_{i,j}$ via a prediction algorithm
P	The $D \times M$ user latent matrix
P_i	The ith user latent vector
$P_i(t)$	The "learned" i^{th} user latent vector at time $t = 1, 2, \ldots, T-1$
$P_i(T)$	The predicted i^{th} user latent vector at time T
Q	The $D \times N$ item latent matrix
Q_j	The jth item latent vector
A_i	The transition matrix of user i in (15)
b_i	The bias vector of user i in (15)
$b_i^{(k)}$	The kth element of b_i
I	The identity matrix with an appropriate dimension
I_{ij}	The indicator function in (1) that is equal to 1 if user i rated item j and equal to 0 otherwise
$\tilde{A}_i$	The "modified" transition matrix with $\tilde{A}_i = A - I$
$Z_i(t)$	$Z_i(t) = P_i(t) - P_i(t-1)$
$Z_i^{(k)}(t)$	The kth element of $Z_i(t)$
α	The learning rate of the (modified) SGD method
$e_{i,j}$	The prediction error in (3) and (9)
λ	The regulator parameter for the Lasso regression

where P and Q are the latent matrices which record the latent factors of users and items, respectively. Also, P_i is the ith column of P, Q_j is the jth column of Q, and I_{ij} is an indicator function that is equal to 1 if user i rated item j and equal to 0 otherwise. The vector P_i, called the user latent vector of user i, is commonly used for representing (latent) user preferences, and the vector Q_j, called the item latent vector of item j, is commonly used for representing (latent) item characteristics. The regularization terms are added in the optimization problem to prevent overfitting.

We can also view MF from a probabilistic perspective. Probabilistic MF (PMF) [5], [6] defines the following conditional distribution over the observed ratings based on the linear model with Gaussian observation noise:

$$p(R|P, Q, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^{M} \prod_{j=1}^{N} \left[N\left(R_{ij}|Q_j^T \cdot P_i, \sigma^2\right)\right]^{I_{ij}} \quad (2)$$

where $N(x|\mu, \sigma^2)$ denotes the probability density function of the Gaussian distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2. With placing zero-mean spherical Gaussian priors on the latent factors, the problem of maximizing the log-posterior with the fixed variance is equivalent to the optimization problem in (1).

Note that both P_i and Q_j are unknowns in (1) and the objective function is not *convex* [7]. Simon Funk [8] popularized an SGD algorithm, which loops through all ratings in the training set to find the latent matrices P and Q. For each training example R_{ij}, one first computes the associated prediction error

$$e_{ij} = R_{ij} - Q_j^T \cdot P_i. \quad (3)$$

One then updates P_i and Q_j in the opposite direction of the gradient as follows:

$$P_i \leftarrow P_i + \alpha(e_{ij}Q_j - \lambda P_i) \quad (4)$$

$$Q_j \leftarrow Q_j + \alpha(e_{ij}P_i - \lambda Q_j) \quad (5)$$

where α is the learning rate and λ is the regulator parameter. This incremental and iterative approach provides a practical way to scale the MF method to large data sets.

B. Time-Dependent Collaborative Filtering

In order to provide recommendations that fit users' present preferences, time-dependent CF [2] employs the availability of temporal information (time stamps) associated with user-item rating logs to put more emphasis on the recent ratings. Such an approach is based on the plausible assumption that recent logs have bigger influence on future events than old and obsolete logs. There are many prior works on time-dependent CF, including neighborhood-based CF [9], [10], social influence analysis [11]–[13], temporal bipartite projection [14], and timeSVD++ [15]. Among all these prior works, timeSVD++ [15] is perhaps the most related work to MF. Koren [15] proposed adding a time-varying rating bias for each user and each item to the estimate from the original MF. As such, the temporal dynamics of user latent vectors are only modeled by a simple sum of three factors, the stationary portion, a possible gradual change with linear equation of a deviation function, and a day-specific parameter for sudden drift. Even so, it was reported in [15] that timeSVD++ significantly outperforms SVD and SVD++ [16] (that considered implicit feedback).

Although these methods improve the accuracy of the prediction compared with the baseline MF estimator, there are some difficulties in the time-dependent CF approach. The system model in timeSVD++ for the user latent vectors is too simple to have any structural characterizations or constraints on their parameters. As such, these parameters (in various aspects and time steps) have to be learned individually and need lots of efforts on fine tuning. Thus, timeSVD++ may be too data-specific to be used as a general model. Also, the assumption that claims recent ratings is always more important than old data may be oversimplified.

C. Tensor Factorization

TF extends MF into a 3-D tensor by incorporating the temporal features into the prediction model. The underlying physical meaning of TF is that the given ratings not only depend on the user preferences and the item characteristics but also the current trend. There are two kinds of popular TF models in CF [17]: the CANDECOMP/PARAFAC (CP) model that decomposes the tensor into same rank of latent factors, and the Tucker model that considers the problem as the higher order PCA.

There are some works that adopt the TF model for exploiting temporal information associated with user-item interactions. The Bayesian probabilistic TF (BPTF) [18] extended PMF to CP TF that models each rating as the inner product of the latent factors of user, item, and time slice as well. It also imposes constraints that the adjacent time slices should share similar latent factors. The advantage of BPTF is its almost parameter-free probabilistic TF algorithm with a fully Bayesian treatment derivation, while the drawback is it is

not sensitive enough to capture the local changes of preferences compared with timeSVD++. Recently, Rafailidis and Nanopoulos [19] modeled continuous user-item interactions over time and defined a new measure of user preference dynamics to capture the shifting rate for each user. In a broader sense, recommendation can be regarded as a bipartite link prediction problem that aims to infer new interactions between users and items, which are likely to occur in the near future. Based on this idea, Dunlavy *et al.* [20] considered bipartite graphs that evolve over time and demonstrated that tensor-based methods are effective for temporal data with varying periodic patterns. Apart from incorporating the temporal information, TF is a popular approach to integrate further information, such as the context of implicit feedback in content-based recommender systems. For instance, Moghaddam *et al.* [21] added *review* as the third dimension based on the Tucker tensor model to address the problem of personalized review quality prediction, and Shi *et al.* [22] directly trained the tensor model for creating an optimally ranked list of items for individual users in the context-aware recommender systems.

TF provides a principled and well-structured approach to incorporate the temporal dynamics in recommender systems; however, the structure also limits the flexibility of the model so that it is hard to process and solve the decomposition especially for a large-scale and sparse tensor. Given the same amount of rating data, the higher order the tensor model is, the more severe the sparsity problem is. The sparsity problem leads to time-consuming computing, high space complexity, and the convergence issues in the decomposition procedure.

D. Collaborative Kalman Filter

Inspired by the success of PMF that places Gaussian priors on the latent factors and formulates the matrix factorization problem as an optimization problem for obtaining the maximum *a posteriori* (MAP) estimate, there are some recent works that compute the MAP optimally by using the Kalman filter [23]. Considering the observed measurements over time with noise and uncertainties, the Kalman filter is the optimal linear estimator of unknown variables. Its recursive structure also allows new measurements to be processed as they arrive. The Kalman filter can be conceptualized in two phases: the *predict* phase is called *a priori* estimate, which produces an estimation without the observation at the current time step and the *update* phase is known as *a posteriori* estimate, which refines the estimation with the current observation. The refinements of the state and covariance estimates are based on the optimal Kalman gain computed at every time step.

Lu *et al.* [24] might be the first paper to use the Kalman filter in recommender systems. In that paper, they exploited the Kalman filter to model the change of user preferences in its temporal component. Though they provided a new perspective on the recommender systems, their approach is still not general enough as the transition matrix used in the Kalman filter was only modeled by an *identity* matrix. As such, one can only capture the drifts of user preferences. In another recent paper, Gultekin and Paisley [25] proposed the CKF approach that used a geometric Brownian motion to model the dynamically

evolving drift of each latent factor. The dynamic state-space model proposed in [26] and [27] is most related to this paper. To solve the system identification problem for the linear system in the Kalman filter, they develop an EM algorithm that performs the Kalman filter and the RTS smoother. The EM algorithm is an iterative two-pass algorithm that yields estimates for the model parameters by using all observations in the expectation step, and then refines the estimates of the model parameters in the maximization step. Although the model is comprehensive and provides better results compared with the SVD and timeSVD++ approaches, there are some limitations in practice. First, it makes a very strong assumption that assumes that the transition matrix is homogeneous for all users. Such a homogeneous assumption is needed to simplify the model (as otherwise it is very difficult, if not impossible, to determine all their parameters from the EM algorithm [27]). Second, it is not suitable for large data sets due to the tractability and runtime performance.

In this paper, we will remove the assumption that the transition matrix is homogeneous for all users. By doing so, we allow our system to track concept drift in each individual user latent vector. Our experiments further verify that users do have different transition matrices. Some of them are simply governed by the identity matrix and have no concept drift in their latent vectors. On the other hand, some of them have significant changes of their latent vectors, and the improvement of the rating for those users is the key factor for lowering RMSE in our temporal approach.

III. PROBLEM DEFINITION

In this paper, we study the rating prediction problem with time-stamped logs. Specifically, there are M users, indexed from $i = 1, 2, \ldots, M$, and N items, indexed from $j = 1, 2, \ldots, N$. For these users and items, we are given a set of time-stamped logs, where each log is represented by the four-tuple

$$\text{(user, item, rating, time)}.$$

We assume that every rating is a real-valued number and each item can be rated by a user at most once. If we neglect the time stamps of these logs, then the ratings of these logs can be represented by an $M \times N$ matrix $R = (R_{ij})$, where R_{ij} is the rating of user i on item j if item j has been rated by user i. On the other hand, if item j has not been rated by user i, then R_{ij} is said to be *missing*. In practice, the matrix R is a *sparse* matrix and there are many missing values. The rating prediction problem is then to predict the missing values in the matrix R.

To evaluate the performance of a rating prediction algorithm, the rating logs are partitioned into two sets: the training set and the testing set. The training set is given to a rating prediction algorithm to "learn" the needed parameters for rating prediction. On the other hand, the testing set is not revealed to a rating prediction algorithm and is only available for testing the accuracy of a rating prediction algorithm. Though there are many metrics for evaluating the performance of rating prediction algorithms, in this paper, we adopt the

RMSEs that can be computed as follows:

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{(i,j) \in \text{Testing Set}} (R_{ij} - \hat{R}_{ij})^2}{|\text{Testing Set}|}} \quad (6)$$

where $\hat{R}_{ij}$ is the prediction for R_{ij} via a rating prediction algorithm. The RMSE has been widely used in the literature, including the competition for the Netflix Prize. Although the range of RMSE might be quite small, there is evidence (see [16]) that small improvement in RMSE can have a significant impact on the quality of the top few recommendations from a rating prediction algorithm.

The original MF does not use the information of time stamps and simply decomposes the matrix R approximately into a product of two matrices: the user latent matrix and the item latent matrix. Though the item latent matrix could be quite stationary with respect to time, it is a general belief (see [15], [24], [26], [27]), and there might be concept drift in the user latent matrix as users tend to change their mind over time. In view of this, our aim is to develop a temporal dynamic model for tracking concept drift in each individual user latent vector by using the time stamps of rating logs. By doing so, we can effectively and efficiently achieve a lower RMSE than that of MF.

IV. TEMPORAL MATRIX FACTORIZATION

For the rating prediction problem described in Section III, we propose a TMF approach that is capable of tracking concept drift in each individual user latent vector. Our approach is based on the following assumptions that were previously used in the literature (see [15], [24], [26], [27]).

1) Like the original MF, there are a user latent matrix $P \in \mathcal{R}^{D \times M}$ and an item latent matrix $Q \in \mathcal{R}^{D \times N}$ that can be used for approximating the rating matrix R. The ith column of the user latent matrix P, denoted by P_i, is called the user latent vector of user i, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, M$, that can be viewed as the preferences of user i for the D latent factors. Similarly, the jth column vector of the item latent matrix Q, denoted by Q_j, is called the item latent vector of item j, $j = 1, 2, \ldots, N$. The rating for user i on item j is then predicted by the inner product of P_i and Q_j.

2) There is concept drift in each individual user latent vector as people might change their preferences over time. Though it is arguable whether user preferences can be predicted or tracked, in particular sudden and random changes of user preferences, in this paper, we assume that the changes of user preferences are rather smooth and can be tracked. For this, we denote by $P(t)$ the user latent matrix at time t, and $P_i(t)$ the user latent vector of user i at time t, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, M$.

3) As the characteristics of items are stationary, we assume that the item latent matrix Q is invariant with respect to time.

In view of these assumptions, the key ingredient of our TMF approach is to use the training data set to capture the dynamics of the concept drift in each individual user latent vector. For this, our approach consists of the following steps.

1) Use the rating logs in the training data set to construct a time series of $M \times N$ rating matrices, $\{R(t), t = 1, 2, \ldots, T - 1\}$.

2) Use the time series of rating matrices $\{R(t), t = 1, 2, \ldots, T - 1\}$ to learn a time series of $D \times 1$ user latent vectors, $\{P_i(t), t = 1, 2, \ldots, T - 1\}$, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, M$.

3) For each user i, use the time series of user latent vectors, $\{P_i(t), t = 1, 2, \ldots, T - 1\}$ to learn the dynamics of the concept drift in the user latent vector.

4) Use the dynamics of the concept drift in each individual user latent vector to predict the user latent vector at time T, i.e., $P(T)$. Then, use the product of $P(T)$ and the item latent matrix Q to predict the missing values in the testing data set.

A. Construction of a Time Series of Rating Matrices

The simplest way to construct a time series of rating matrices $\{R(t), t = 1, 2, \ldots, T - 1\}$ is to partition rating logs into equally spaced time slices according to their time stamps. But, as the original rating matrix in a real data set might have already been very sparse, further partitioning of the rating logs might yield a time series of extremely sparse rating matrices that might not have any statistical significance at all. In view of the sparsity problem, the number of time slices T cannot be too large. To further mitigate the sparsity problem, one can consider a sliding window approach that merges the rating logs in several consecutive time slices into a single step. By doing so, there are *overlapping* rating logs in such a time series of rating matrices. Such an approach can not only mitigate the sparsity problem but also ensure smooth change of rating matrices so that prediction could be possible.

B. Learning a Time Series of User Latent Vectors

To learn a time series of user latent vectors for each user, we first perform MF for the rating matrix R to obtain the user latent matrix P and the item latent matrix Q. As we assume that the item latent matrix Q is invariant with respect to time, one might expect that

$$R_i(t) = Q^T \cdot P_i(t) \tag{7}$$

where $R_i(t)$ is the rating vector for user i on the N items [that can be extracted from the rating matrix $R(t)$]. In view of this, a näive way to learn a time series of $D \times 1$ user latent vectors, $\{P_i(t), t = 1, 2, \ldots, T - 1\}$, is to simply compute the Moore–Penrose pseudoinverse of Q^T from (7). It is well known that the Moore–Penrose pseudoinverse computes a "best fit," i.e., the least squared solution to a system of linear equations and its uniqueness follows from the SVD theorem in matrix algebra. Such an approach works fine if all the entries in the vector $R_i(t)$ are known. In reality, there are many missing values in the vector $R_i(t)$ and thus make a direct computation of the Moore–Penrose pseudoinverse infeasible. One way to remedy this is to pad the missing values in $R_i(t)$ with the predicted values of user i by MF, i.e., $Q^T \cdot P_i$. In particular, one can generate another vector $\tilde{R}_i(t)$ as a linear combination of these two vectors, that is

$$\tilde{R}_i(t) = \beta R_i(t) + (1 - \beta) Q^T \cdot P_i. \tag{8}$$

If β is small, the padded values in $\tilde{R}_i(t)$ are all from the vector $Q^T \cdot P_i$. As such, the vectors $\tilde{R}_i(t), t = 1, 2, \ldots, T - 1$, are all very similar and the corresponding Moore–Penrose pseudo inverse vectors also very similar. As a result, there is basically no change of the user latent vectors and that defeats the purpose of tracking the dynamics of user latent vectors. On the other hand, if β is large, then we basically ignore all the missing values in $R_i(t)$ and that causes great fluctuation of the user latent vectors, which makes it extremely difficult to track the dynamics of user latent vectors. Also, as there are many missing values in $R_i(t)$, it is not clear whether the user latent vectors obtained this way possess any statistical significance.

The key insight to tackle this problem is that the user preferences at a specific time step are not only related to the ratings during that specific time step but also related to his/her overall behavior. In view of this, we first set $P_i(t)$ as the original user latent vector P_i. Then, we use the observed ratings during that time step to "learn" $P_i(t)$. Specifically, we propose the following modified SGD method:

$$e_{ij}(t) = R_{ij}(t) - Q_j^T \cdot P_i(t) \tag{9}$$
$$P_i(t) \leftarrow P_i(t) + \alpha[e_{ij}(t)Q_j - \lambda P_i(t)]. \tag{10}$$

Unlike the standard SGD method for MF in (3)–(5), here we only update the latent vector $P_i(t)$ for every rating provided by user i at time t (as the item matrix Q is stationary). By doing so, the user latent vector $P_i(t)$ only updates his/her preferences for those items rated during time t and thus retains his/her overall behavior for those items not rated during time t. Such an approach not only overcomes the obstacle of data sparsity but also possesses meaningful user preferences in the temporal setting.

C. Learning the Dynamics of the Concept Drift in the User Latent Vector

To track concept drift in the user latent vector, we need to identify a system model for the dynamics of the time series of the user latent vectors. Such a problem is known as the *system identification* problem in the literature [28]. One of the most commonly used models for system identification problems is the linear system model. As such, we consider the linear system model for the latent vector of each user. Specifically, we consider $P_i(t)$ as the state vector at time t and model the evolution of the state vector by

$$P_i(t) = A_i \cdot P_i(t - 1) + b_i \tag{11}$$

where A_i is a $D \times D$ matrix and b_i is a $D \times 1$ vector. The matrix A_i is called the *transition* matrix for user i and b_i is called the *bias* vector of user i.

We note that such a linear system model is not capable of detecting/tracking sudden and random changes of user preferences. However, as we use the sliding window approach (with overlapping rating logs) in Section IV-A to construct the time series of rating matrices and the modified SGD method in Section IV-B to learn the latent vectors, we believe that the latent vectors learned this way should be relatively smooth and could be tracked by using the simple linear system model

in (11). On the other hand, it is possible to approximate a more complicated nonlinear system by combining various linear systems that switch between the critical points of the original nonlinear system. However, as the number of time slices in our data sets is rather small, it would be difficult to use a set of linear systems and select the most appropriate linear system when a sudden change of user preference is detected.

It seems plausible to assume that the user latent vectors do not vary a lot in each time step. As such, we replace the transition matrix A_i by $(I + \tilde{A}_i)$ in (11). This then leads to

$$Z_i(t) = \tilde{A}_i \cdot P_i(t-1) + b_i \qquad (12)$$

where

$$Z_i(t) = P_i(t) - P_i(t-1). \qquad (13)$$

By doing so, we expect that the matrix $\tilde{A}_i$ is sparse and it only contains a small number of nonzero entries. It is known [29] that the Lasso regression provides parameter shrinkage and variable selection that limit the number of nonzero elements in the parameters. As such, we apply the Lasso regression to estimate $\tilde{A}_i$ and b_i in (12) from the $T-2$ "observations" of the output $\{Z_i(t), t = 2, \ldots, T-1\}$ with the input $\{P_i(t), t = 2, \ldots, T-1\}$. Specifically, for each factor k, $k = 1, 2, \ldots, D$, we let $A_i^{(k)}$ be the kth row of A_i, $b_i^{(k)}$ be the kth element in b_i, and $Z_i^{(k)}(t)$ be the kth element in $Z_i(t)$ and consider the following optimization problem:

$$\min_{\tilde{A}_i^{(k)}, b_i^{(k)}} \frac{1}{2(T-2)} \sum_{t=2}^{T-1} \left(Z_i^{(k)}(t) - \tilde{A}_i^{(k)} \cdot P_i(t) - b_i^{(k)} \right)^2$$
$$+ \lambda \| \tilde{A}_i^{(k)} \|_1 \qquad (14)$$

where $\| \tilde{A}_i^{(k)} \|_1$ is the L_1-norm of the vector $\tilde{A}_i^{(k)}$ and λ is a nonnegative regulator parameter for the Lasso regression. As λ increases, the number of nonzero elements in the vector $\tilde{A}_i^{(k)}$ decreases. In our experiments, we will use the MATLAB tool [30] to solve the above Lasso regression.

D. Rating Prediction

Once we obtain the transition matrix A_i and the bias vector b_i, we can use the system dynamic in (11) to predict the latent vector of user i at time T by the following equation:

$$P_i(T) = A_i \cdot P_i(T-1) + b_i. \qquad (15)$$

As in the original MF, the missing values in the testing data set are then predicted by using the product of the user latent vector and the item latent matrix, that is

$$R_i(T) = Q^T \cdot P_i(T). \qquad (16)$$

The complete learning procedure of our TMF method is outlined in Algorithm 1, and a pseudocode of the modified SGD method is given in Algorithm 2.

ALGORITHM 1 TMF Approach

Input: A collection of time-stamped rating logs $(user, item, rating, time)$ with M users and N items.

(0) (Matrix Factorization) Ignore the time stamps and represent the rating logs by an $M \times N$ rating matrix $R = (R_{i,j})$, where $R_{i,j}$ is the rating of user i on item j if item j has been rated by user i. Perform the matrix factorization by using LIBMF [31], [32] to obtain the $D \times M$ user latent matrix P and the $D \times N$ item latent matrix Q.

(1) (Construction of a time series of rating matrices) Construct a time series of rating matrices $\{R(t), t = 1, 2, \ldots, T-1\}$ by using the sliding window approach in Section IV-A.

(2) (Learning a time series of user latent vectors) Set $P_i(t)$ as the original user latent vector P_i (the ith column of P). Use the modified SGD method in (9) and (10) to "learn" $P_i(t)$

$$e_{ij}(t) = R_{ij}(t) - Q_j^T \cdot P_i(t)$$
$$P_i(t) \leftarrow P_i(t) + \alpha[e_{ij}(t)Q_j - \lambda P_i(t)].$$

The latent vector $P_i(t)$ is only updated for every rating provided by user i at time t. See the pseudocode in Algorithm 2.

(3) (Learning the dynamics of the user latent vectors) For each user i, solve the Lasso regression in (14) to find the $D \times D$ transition matrix A_i and the $D \times 1$ bias vector b_i for the linear system model

$$P_i(t) = A_i \cdot P_i(t-1) + b_i.$$

(4) (Rating prediction) Predict the latent vector of user i at time T by

$$P_i(T) = A_i \cdot P_i(T-1) + b_i.$$

Predict the (missing) rating of user i at time T by

$$R_i(T) = Q^T \cdot P_i(T).$$

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section, we perform various experiments to evaluate the performance and efficiency of our temporal method via a synthetic data set and four real data sets. All our experiments are implemented in MATLAB and executed on a server equipped with an Intel Core i7 (4.2 GHz) processor and 64-GB memory on the Linux system.

A. Experiments on the Synthetic Data Set

We first conduct our experiments on synthetic data. The main reason for doing this is to test our method in a *controllable* environment so that we can gain insights of the effects of various parameters and thus better understand when our method could be effective.

To generate the synthetic data, we set $M = 10\,000$ and $N = 10\,000$, i.e., there 10 000 users and 10 000 items. The density of the rating matrix R is set to 1%, and that gives 1 000 000 ratings. We generate all the entries in both the initial user latent matrix $P(1)$ and the item latent matrix Q by

ALGORITHM 2 Pseudocode of the Modified SGD Method

```
function P(t) = modifiedSGD(ratingLogs, P, Q, D, T,
iterations, α, λ)
for t = 1 : T − 1
    P(t) ← P;
    for iter = 1:iterations
        for index = 1:size(ratingLogs, 1)
            i ← ratingLogs(index,1,t);
            j ← ratingLogs(index,2,t);
            R_ij(t) ← ratingLogs(index,3,t);
            e_ij(t) ← R_ij(t) − Q_j^T · P_i(t);
            for d = 1 : D
                P_{i,d}(t) ← P_{i,d}(t) + α * (e_ij(t)*
                        Q_{j,d} − λ * P_{i,d}(t));
        end
    end
end
end
```

TABLE II

RMSE RESULTS ON THE SYNTHETIC DATA SET
FOR VARIOUS PARAMETER SETTINGS

Range of R'	Range of b_i	MF	TMF	Improvement
(-0.01, 0.01)		0.4566	0.4246	7.01%
(-0.05, 0.05)		0.8468	0.6758	20.19%
(-0.1, 0.1)	(-0.01, 0.01)	1.2667	0.9790	22.71%
(-0.3, 0.3)		1.7007	1.3780	18.97%
(-0.5, 0.5)		1.8046	1.4967	17.06%
(-0.01, 0.01)		0.5763	0.5124	11.09%
(-0.05, 0.05)		0.9645	0.7660	21.20%
(-0.1, 0.1)	(-0.1, 0.1)	1.2985	0.9539	26.54%
(-0.3, 0.3)		1.7092	1.3673	19.96%
(-0.5, 0.5)		1.8091	1.4787	18.26%

uniformly distributed random variables over $(0, 1)$. To model
the evolution of the user latent vector for each user i, the
transition matrix A_i is generated by the sum of the identity
matrix and a random matrix R' with all its entries generated
from a uniform distribution. The entries in the bias vector b_i
are also generated from a uniform distribution. Various ranges
of the entries in R' and b_i are specified in our experiments
(see Table II). The number of steps T is set to 10, and the
rating logs are then generated according to (7) and (11).

In Table II, we report the RMSE for both the original
MF (implemented by the LIBMF library [31], [32]) and our
method for various parameter settings. The parameters that
we choose for MF are the learning rate $\alpha = 0.02$, the regulator
parameter $\lambda = 0.02$, and the number of latent factors $D = 30$.
We run 50 iterations of SGD to obtain the latent factors in the
original MF. The learning rate α and the regulator parameter
λ in (10) for computing the user latent vector at every time
step in our method are set to be the same as those for MF.
As can be seen from Table II, our method consistently and
significantly outperforms MF in all the parameter settings.
The improvement depends on the transition matrix and the
bias vector that are selected to control the concept drift in
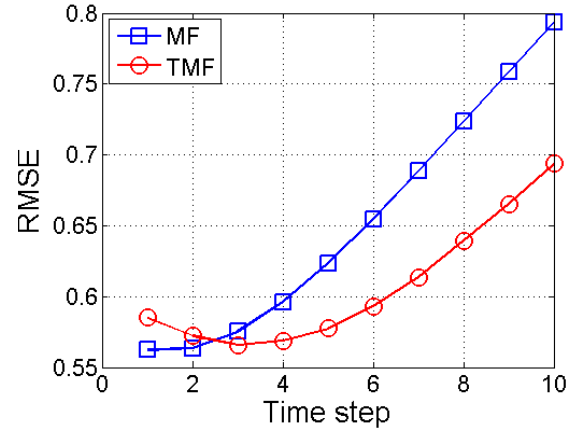the user latent vector. A more careful examination reveals

Fig. 1. Average dissimilarities among all users at each time step.

that the improvement for our method is relatively small if
the range of the entries in the random matrix R' is small,
e.g., $(-0.01, 0.01)$. This is because the transition matrix in
such a scenario is very close to the identity matrix and there
is almost no change of the user latent vectors. As such, MF
performs well and yields a low RMSE. On the other hand, if
such a range is large, the prediction accuracy of MF is low as
MF relies on the assumption of stationary user preferences.
As our method is capable of tracking the concept drift in
the user latent vector, our method achieves roughly 17%–26%
improvement in terms of RMSE.

Next, we study the effect of the range of b_i. In Table II, we
consider two different ranges of b_i. The experimental results
show that the values of RMSE are larger when the given range
is larger (under the condition of using the same transition
matrix). Moreover, the performance gain from our method
is also larger. This shows the importance of adding the bias
vectors in our linear system model.

In addition to the above-presented prediction results, we
demonstrate the state tracking ability of our temporal method.
Denote by $\hat{P}_i(t)$ the user latent vector of user i at time t (com-
puted by our temporal method) and $P_i(t)$ the given ground
truth in the synthetic data set. We compute the dissimilarity
measure of these two latent vectors by using the RMSE metric
as follows:

$$s(P_i(t), \hat{P}_i(t)) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{d=1}^{D}(P_{id}(t) - \hat{P}_{id}(t))^2}{D}} \tag{17}$$

where D is the dimensions of these two latent vectors. To com-
pare the tractability of the MF approach and our temporal
method, we measure the average of the dissimilarities among
all the users at a specific time step t and plot the results in
Fig. 1. As can be seen from Fig. 1, the gain of using our
temporal method to track the user latent vectors increases over
time, and at the time for prediction, i.e., the 10th time step,
the gain is near 13%.

To dig further, we examine the rating prediction result for
each user. We observe that our temporal method consistently
obtains better prediction results if the MF approach always
overestimates (or underestimates) all the ratings provided by a
user in the testing data set. For instance, we show in Table III a
user (user ID 26) who gives extreme high ratings and another

TABLE III
RATING PREDICTION RESULTS WITH EXTREME ACTUAL RATINGS

user ID	item ID	actual rating	MF	TMF
26	1139	5	4.51	4.95
	1303	5	4.62	5.07
	2092	5	3.87	4.26
	2200	5	4.22	4.63
	2625	5	3.83	4.21
	2867	5	4.43	4.86
	3515	5	4.69	5.14
	6495	5	4.67	5.13
	7864	5	3.71	4.07
	8693	5	4.21	4.62
28	92	1	2.24	0.88
	1440	1	2.44	0.96
	1626	1	3.08	1.18
	1917	1	3.15	1.27
	3234	1	2.95	1.15
	3556	1	2.62	0.98
	4425	1	2.91	1.10
	8990	1	2.23	0.85
	9262	1	2.37	0.94
	9978	1	2.79	1.09

TABLE IV
RATING PREDICTION RESULTS WHEN ACTUAL RATINGS ARE
DISTRIBUTED OVER THE ENTIRE RANGE

user ID	item ID	actual rating	MF	TMF
32	976	3	2.74	3.09
	1224	4	2.63	2.98
	1379	5	3.17	3.64
	1691	2	2.72	3.06
	3989	4	2.86	3.25
	5079	1	2.62	2.95
	6541	2	2.60	2.95
	7455	4	2.58	2.93
	9691	3	2.46	2.79
	9944	3	2.47	2.81

Fig. 2. Comparison results for various values of D with MF, TMF, and CKF on the synthetic data set.

synthetic data set and set the learning rate $\alpha = 0.01$, the regulator parameter $\lambda = 0.02$, and 50 iterations for each run. We run CKF by using the default setting in the source code. As shown in Fig. 2, TMF is rather insensitive to the number of latent factors D and has a lower RMSE than those of MF and CKF in this range of D.

B. Experiments on the Real Data Sets

To validate our temporal method in practical environments, in this section, we conduct our experiments on real data sets. Motivated by the increasing importance of recommender systems on electronic commerce and online video streaming services, we consider Ciao, Epinions, Flixster, and MovieLens. With Web 2.0 technique to gather users' feedbacks such as explicit ratings and implicit reviews, Ciao and Epinions are two of the most popular online-shopping websites. Ciao is a European-based online-shopping portal with websites and claims, and it reaches an audience of 28.4 million monthly unique visitors in Europe [33]. Epinions is established in 1999 and now is the largest consumer review site with thousands of product reports in the world. Another focus is the movie/video recommendation platform, which becomes more popular in our daily life. For this, we consider Flixster and MovieLens in this paper. Flixster is an American social movie site, which also provides applications in Facebook and MySpace for users to share film reviews and ratings, whereas MovieLens is a recommender system for research of collaborative filtering run by GroupLens Research. These data sets with the information of ratings and the associated time stamps are publicly available in [34]–[36], and their statistics information is shown in Table V.

All of these platforms provide services for users to rate items using a 5-point Likert scale, while Flixster adopts ten discrete numbers in the range $[0.5, 5]$ with a step size of 0.5. Each log in a data set contains the information of user ID, item ID, rating, and time stamp. First of all, we sort these logs in the chronological order to form a time series. Note that this setting is more practical than the traditional approach, because we are only allowed to use the past data to predict future

user (user ID 28) who gives extremely low ratings. This is because the MF approach cannot track the concept drift in the user latent vector even when there is a distinct downward (or upward) trend in the evolution of user preferences. On the other hand, if the ratings provided by a user are distributed over the entire range as shown in Table IV, then the ratings predicted by our temporal method are not always better than those from those predicted by the MF. But, the overall accuracy of our temporal method is still better. In summary, our temporal method is good at capturing the general trend and thus yields improvement on the overall performance.

To further understand the effect of the number of latent factors D, we show in Fig. 2 the comparison results on the synthetic data set [with both R' and b_i being $(-0.1, 0.1)$ in Table II] for the three approaches: MF, TMF, and CKF [25]. As in the previous experiment, we use the LIBMF library [31], [32] to implement MF. We are very grateful to Mr. S. Gultekin (one of the authors of [25]) for providing us the source code for CKF. In order to have a fair comparison of MF and TMF, we use the same parameter setting for the
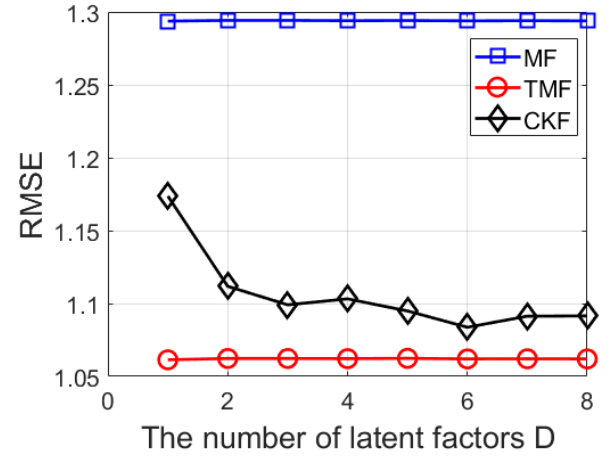
TABLE V

STATISTICS OF THE REAL DATA SETS

	Ciao	Epinions	Flixster	MovieLens
Users	1,947	21,752	114,747	125,041
Items	5,004	242,842	44,439	17,951
Training Ratings	22,068	830,043	7,376,472	18,000,243
Testing Ratings	826	23,621	416,293	353,575
Density	0.23%	0.02%	0.14%	0.80%
Earliest Rating	Jun. 2000	Jul. 1999	Dec. 2005	Jan. 1995
Latest Rating	Apr. 2011	May 2011	Nov. 2009	Mar. 2015

TABLE VI

RMSE RESULTS FOR THE FOUR REAL DATA SETS

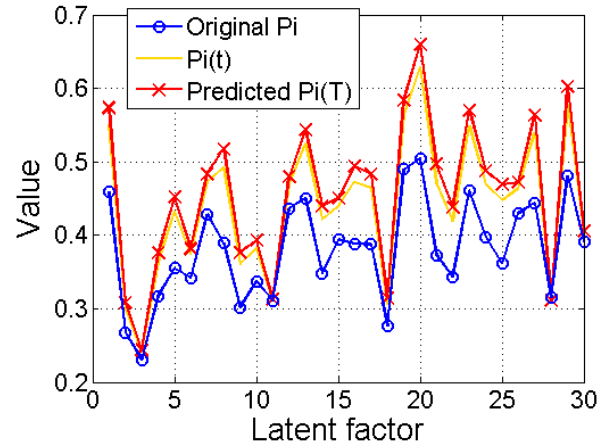|	Ciao	Epinions	Flixster	MovieLens
MF	1.1099	1.1287	1.1189	0.8170
TMF	1.0540	1.1189	1.1102	0.8150
Improvement	5.04%	0.87%	0.78%	0.24%

Fig. 3. Evolution of the user latent vector for user 49 in the Ciao data set.

Fig. 4. Evolution of the user latent vector for user 108 in the Ciao data set.

Fig. 5. Evolution of the user latent vector for user 339 in the Epinions data set.

events. We partition the whole data set into ten time slices equally and leave the last slice as the testing set. In order to have an enough number of representative ratings and have smooth and trackable transitions, we apply the sliding window approach to combine the logs in every five consecutive time slices to form a time step. By doing so, four of the slices in each step overlap with those in the next time step, and there are totally six time steps ($T = 6$) in this setting. Next, we remove new users and new items, i.e., the users and items appear only once in the testing set, and focus on tracking the evolution for the latent vectors of existing users. We adopt the same parameter settings as those in the synthetic data set except that we choose the learning rate $\alpha = 0.01$ [in (10)] for the Flixster and MovieLens data sets. The experimental results for RMSE by the MF method and our method are shown in Table VI.

In comparison with the MF approach, we can see from Table VI that our temporal method improves the performance in RMSE in all four real data sets. However, the gain varies from one to another. In Ciao, we obtain 5% improvement. For the other three data sets, the improvements are not that significant. One possible explanation for this is that the temporal effect depends on the data set due to its intrinsic properties. We also observe that the improvements in real data sets are not as significant as those in the synthetic data set. The main reason is that we purposely construct the synthetic data set so that it possesses the desired concept drift in the user latent vector. It is not clear whether there are concept drifts in the user latent vectors in the Epinions, Flixster, and MovieLens data sets.

To see whether there is a performance gain by tracking concept drift in the latent vector of a user, we further examine the evolution of various user latent vectors and their corresponding rating prediction results (see Figs. 3–5). An interesting finding is that users basically can be classified into two types: one is *beneficial* to track concept drift in his/her user latent vector and the predicted latent vector from our method is substantially different from that from MF, and the other is *worthless* to track concept drift in his/her user latent vector as the predicted latent vector from our method is quite close to that from MF. In the Ciao data set, we observe that the majority of improvement made by the users whose latent vectors evolve in a consistent direction. A plain example of this case is that the user latent vector changes in only one step from the original latent vector. We list the evolution of the first five latent factors of the
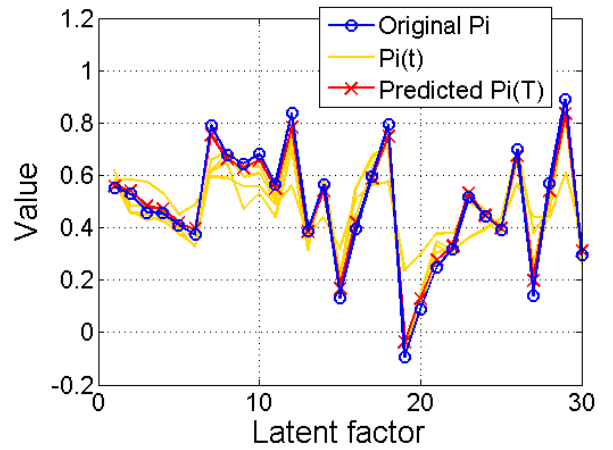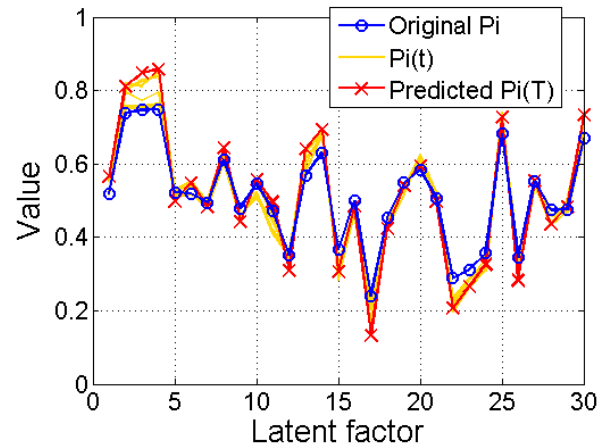
TABLE VII

FIRST FIVE FACTORS OF USER 49 IN THE CIAO DATA SET AND THE CORRESPONDING PREDICTION RESULTS

Factor	1	2	3	4	5
P_i	0.4592	0.2673	0.2304	0.3172	0.3549
$\hat{P}_i(1)$					
$\hat{P}_i(2)$					
$\hat{P}_i(3)$	0.4592	0.2673	0.2304	0.3172	0.3549
$\hat{P}_i(4)$					
$\hat{P}_i(5)$	0.5507	0.3000	0.2411	0.3640	0.4328
$\hat{P}_i(6)$	0.5737	0.3082	0.2438	0.3757	0.4522

user ID	item ID	actual rating	MF	TMF
	36	4	3.13	3.76
	138	4	3.50	4.20
49	711	5	3.11	3.74
	712	5	3.80	4.57
	713	5	3.78	4.55

TABLE VIII

FIRST FIVE FACTORS OF USER 108 IN THE CIAO DATA SET AND THE CORRESPONDING PREDICTION RESULTS

Factor	1	2	3	4	5
P_i	0.5814	0.5842	0.5738	0.5327	0.4485
$\hat{P}_i(1)$	0.5814	0.5842	0.5738	0.5327	0.4485
$\hat{P}_i(2)$	0.5777	0.4566	0.4518	0.4261	0.3749
$\hat{P}_i(3)$	0.6218	0.4630	0.4285	0.4449	0.3949
$\hat{P}_i(4)$	0.5849	0.4845	0.4855	0.4655	0.4043
$\hat{P}_i(5)$	0.5590	0.5398	0.4818	0.4703	0.4174
$\hat{P}_i(6)$	0.5534	0.5287	0.4588	0.4547	0.4096

user ID	item ID	actual rating	MF	TMF
	122	5	4.16	4.12
	251	4	3.57	3.59
	447	5	4.47	4.49
	469	5	4.83	4.88
	531	5	4.49	4.57
	768	5	5.01	5.01
	823	5	3.78	3.86
108	1258	5	3.65	3.70
	1319	4	4.16	4.13
	1320	5	3.74	3.78
	1321	5	5.17	5.16
	1322	5	4.78	4.82
	1323	4	3.72	3.62
	1324	5	4.74	4.79
	1325	5	4.74	4.77
	1326	5	5.03	5.14

TABLE IX

FIRST FIVE FACTORS OF USER 339 IN THE EPINIONS DATA SET AND THE CORRESPONDING PREDICTION RESULTS

Factor	1	2	3	4	5
P_i	0.4953	0.5479	0.4734	0.5847	0.5540
$\hat{P}_i(1)$	0.4781	0.5194	0.4089	0.6105	0.5400
$\hat{P}_i(2)$	0.4810	0.5245	0.4178	0.6249	0.5505
$\hat{P}_i(3)$	0.4968	0.5065	0.4450	0.6246	0.5427
$\hat{P}_i(4)$	0.4793	0.5483	0.4625	0.6249	0.5398
$\hat{P}_i(5)$	0.4825	0.5496	0.4789	0.5966	0.5512
$\hat{P}_i(6)$	0.4837	0.5571	0.4964	0.5932	0.5540

user ID	item ID	actual rating	MF	TMF
	9188	4	3.57	3.59
	9189	1	0.95	0.96
	9190	4	3.38	3.39
339	9191	4	3.93	3.93
	9192	4	3.54	3.56
	9193	5	3.98	4.11
	9194	3	4.02	4.03

latent vector (due to space limitation) and the corresponding ratings in Table VII. To visualize this case more clearly, we also plot the factors of the latent vector for the original P_i (computed by MF and marked in blue), the factors of the user latent vector at time step $T - 1$ (marked in yellow), and the factors of the predicted user latent vector $P_i(T)$ with $T = 6$ (marked in red) for user 49 in the Ciao data set in Fig. 3. As can be seen from Fig. 3, the predicted latent vector from our method is substantially different from that from MF. For this user, the corresponding ratings in Table VII show that such a user is beneficial to track concept drift in his/her user latent vector. On the other hand, we plot in Fig. 4 the factors of the latent vector for the original P_i (computed by MF and marked in blue), the factors of the user latent vector at time step t (marked in yellow), and the factors of the predicted user latent vector $P_i(T)$ with $T = 6$ (marked in red) for user 108 in the Ciao data set. For user 108, the predicted latent vector by our method is very close to that from MF. As such, the predicted rating by using our method and MF is also very close, as shown in Table VIII. For such a user, there is little performance gain to track concept drift in his/her latent vector.

In Epinions, Flixster, and MovieLens data sets, we observe that the latent vectors of most users change smoothly but not usually in a consistent direction. As such, the predicted $P_i(T)$ is similar to the original latent factors P_i. The corresponding latent vectors and the prediction results are shown in Table IX and Fig. 5 for a typical user (user 339) in the Epinions data set. In this case, considering the overall ratings without using the information of time stamps (such as MF) is capable of yielding good estimations and there is little performance gain to track concept drift in the user latent vector for most users.

Now, we report the runtime of our temporal method on these data sets in Table X. The runtime includes learning the user latent vectors, learning the transition matrices, and further performing rating prediction, which quantify the additional efforts after obtaining the original latent matrices P and Q from MF. As we use MATLAB to implement our temporal method (except we use LIBMF [31], [32] in the step for MF), we also implement MF by using MATLAB and report the runtime for performing MF on these data sets. As shown in Table X, the runtime of MF by LIBMF is in the order of seconds, and the runtime of TMF and MF by MATLAB is in

TABLE X
RUNTIME FOR OUR TEMPORAL METHOD
AND MF ON VARIOUS DATA SETS

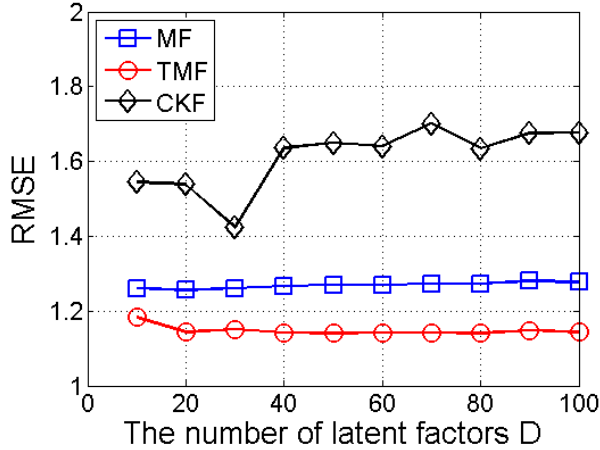|	Synthetic	Ciao	Epinions	Flixster	MovieLens
TMF	57.60m	3.79m	25.90m	78.42m	143.08m
MF (LIBMF)	2.32s	0.18s	6.85s	20.47s	44.27s
MF (Matlab)	27.61m	0.67m	24.58m	218.75m	532.93m

Fig. 6. Comparison results for various values of D with MF, TMF, and CKF on the Ciao data set.

the order of minutes. The additional efforts of our temporal methods (in terms of runtime) are comparable with those for performing MF by using MATLAB.

To further understand the effect of the number of latent factors D, we show in Fig. 6 the comparison results on the Ciao data set for the three approaches: MF, TMF, and CKF [25]. For MF and TMF, we set the learning rate $\alpha = 0.02$, the regulator parameter $\lambda = 0.02$, and 50 iterations for each run. We run CKF by using the default setting in the source code. We note that there is a version update of the LIBMF library [31], [32] and the MF version of this experiment, i.e., the 2016 version, is different from the old version used in Table VI. As such, the RMSE results for both MF and TMF are slightly different from those in Table VI.

VI. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In this paper, we proposed a TMF approach for tracking concept drift in each individual user latent vector. There are two key innovative steps in our approach: 1) a modified SGD method to learn an individual user latent vector at each time step and 2) a linear model for the transition of the individual user latent vectors by the Lasso regression. In comparison with the other approaches that intend to incorporate temporal dynamics with MF in the literature, there are several distinctive features of our temporal method.

1) Our modified SGD method is able to alleviate the data sparsity problem for learning the user preferences at a certain time step. This overcomes the data sparsity problem in TF.
2) Unlike the CKF approach [27], we do not need to assume that the transition matrix is *homogeneous*.

TABLE XI
RMSE RESULTS OF MF, TMF, AND BIASED MF FOR THE SYNTHETIC
DATA SET UNDER VARIOUS PARAMETER SETTINGS

Range of R'	Range of b_i	MF	TMF	biased MF
(-0.01, 0.01)		0.4566	0.4246	0.4898
(-0.05, 0.05)		0.8468	0.6758	0.9122
(-0.1, 0.1)	(-0.01, 0.01)	1.2667	0.9790	1.3884
(-0.3, 0.3)		1.7007	1.3780	1.9489
(-0.5, 0.5)		1.8046	1.4967	2.1029
(-0.01, 0.01)		0.5763	0.5124	0.7690
(-0.05, 0.05)		0.9645	0.7660	0.9791
(-0.1, 0.1)	(-0.1, 0.1)	1.2985	0.9539	1.4003
(-0.3, 0.3)		1.7092	1.3673	1.9552
(-0.5, 0.5)		1.8091	1.4787	2.0997

TABLE XII
RMSE RESULTS OF MF, TMF, AND BIASED
MF FOR THE FOUR REAL DATA SETS

	Ciao	Epinions	Flixster	MovieLens
MF	1.1099	1.1287	1.1189	0.8170
TMF	1.0540	1.1189	1.1102	0.8150
biased MF	0.9131	1.0564	0.9855	0.7866

Thus, we are allowed to track concept drift in each individual user latent vector.

In comparison with the original MF, our temporal method is able to achieve lower RMSEs for both the synthetic and real data sets. One interesting finding is that the performance gain in RMSE is mostly from those users who indeed have concept drift in their user latent vectors at the time of prediction. As our temporal method is specifically designed for each user, one can save a lot of efforts by only tracking those users who indeed have concept drift in their user latent vectors at the time of prediction. However, identifying those users is not an easy task and might require further study. One possible approach for this is to examine the transition matrix for each user. In our experiments, we found that there are many users whose transition matrices are the identity matrix and those users are not worth tracking.

Another research direction is to study the effect of cold start users (who have very few ratings). One might think that cold start users are difficult to predict and then immediately filter out their ratings in the preprocessing step. However, in our temporal method, the ratings of cold start users might be valuable as they contribute to the item latent matrix Q, which, in turn, affects the accuracy of estimating the time series of the latent vectors of other users.

As pointed out by one of the reviewers, the effects of user-biases and item-biases could be important for real data sets. Such effects are not taken into account in our TMF approach. To see the effects of user-biases and item-biases, we compare the MF, the biased MF [7], and the TMF for the synthetic data set and the four real data sets. In Table XI, we show the comparison results for the synthetic data set by using various parameter settings as in Table II. As there are no user-biases and item-biases in the synthetic data set, the RMSE of the biased MF is even worse than that of MF. This is because the biased MF has to "learn" additional bias parameters that are

known to be 0 in the synthetic data set. On the other hand, we show in Table XII the comparison results for the four real data sets used in Table VI. The RMSE of the biased MF is better than that of MF and that of TMF. This suggests that there are indeed user-biases and item-biases in the four real data sets and exploiting the effects of user-biases and item-biases in the real data sets can lead to good performance improvement. In view of this, one of our future research directions is to incorporate the user-biases and item-biases into our TMF approach.

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