



Geographical Relevance Model for Long Tail Point-of-Interest Recommendation

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Abstract. Point-of-Interest (POI) recommendation plays a key role in people's daily life, and has been widely studied in recent years, due to its increasingly applications (e.g., recommending new restaurants for users). One of important phenomena in the POI recommendation community is the *data sparsity*, which makes deep impact on the quality of recommendation. Existing works have proposed various models to alleviate the bottleneck of the data sparsity, and most of these works addressed this issue *from the user perspective*. To the best of our knowledge, few attention has been made to address this issue *from the POI perspective*. In this paper, we observe that the “long tail” POIs, which have few check-ins and have less opportunity to be exposed, take up a great proportion among all the POIs. It is interesting and meaningful to investigate the long tail POI recommendation *from the POI perspective*. To this end, this paper proposes a new model, named GRM (geographical relevance model), that expands POI profiles via relevant POIs and employs the geographical information, addressing the limitations of existing models. Experimental results based on two public datasets demonstrate that our model is effective and competitive. It outperforms state-of-the-art models for the long tail POI recommendation problem.

Keywords: Long tail · Relevance model · Geographical information
Point-of-interest recommendation

1 Introduction

Nowadays, location-based services are widely used in our daily life [16,17,30,45,46]. For instance, Yelp and Meituan can help individuals discover favourite foods, shopping malls, hotels, etc. Foursquare and Webchat can assist people in discovering fun places, friends’ footprint, etc. Almost all these applications incorporate the function of Point-of-Interest (POI) recommendation (which is similar to *trip recommendation* [36]). Particularly, POI recommendation can help these applications understand individuals’ favourites more deeply, and so it has the potential to provide personalized services for individuals. Besides, it can also help merchants to solicit more potential customers.

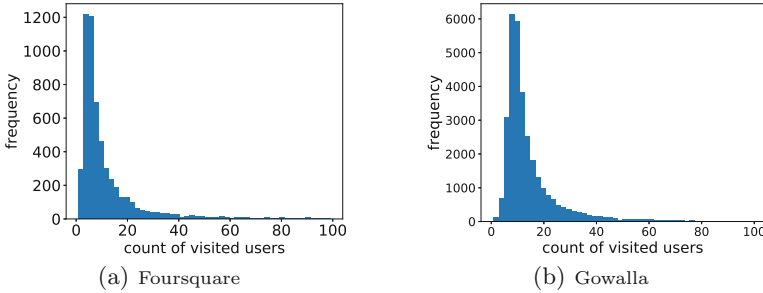


Fig. 1. Histogram of the visiting frequency of all POIs (a) distribution on Foursquare. (b) distribution on Gowalla.

In past decades, there are numerous papers studying the problem of POI recommendation [3,11]. For example, some works used the rich context information (e.g., geographical information [7,8,10,18,20,47] and content information [2,5,11]) to address data sparsity in POI recommendation. Some works (e.g., [12]) discussed the diversity of POI recommendation. In the existing literature, most of works focused on POI recommendation *from the user perspective* (e.g., [1–3,5]). That is, prior works mainly concentrated on developing effective solutions to recommend POIs for individuals (i.e., users). In addition, most of models/methods (e.g., [1,19]) developed in prior works are inclined to recommend “popular” POIs for users. As such, the *POIs with less check-ins* have less chance to be exposed, incurring a lot of “long tail” POIs. For example, Fig. 1 shows the distribution of check-ins on public datasets “Foursquare and Gowalla” (other details are listed in Table 1). From this figure, we can see that a few POIs’ records are more than 40, yet a majority of POIs have less than 10 records. Clearly, the distribution of check-ins on POIs is **extremely skewed**. This observation is consistent with the findings in recent works [14,15,17]. Note that, the frequently visited POIs mostly belong to popular locations, and existing models/systems usually tend to recommend these “popular” POIs. Naturally, this leads most of unpopular POIs left out (i.e., the long tail POIs appear). The above phenomenon is usually called the *long tail phenomenon*.

Table 1. Details of two datasets

Dataset	#User	POI	#Check-in	#Avg.check-in	#Avg.visited	Density
Foursquare	2,321	5,596	194,108	83.6	34.64	1.49%
Gowalla	10,162	24,250	456,988	44.97	18.8	0.18%

Essentially, existing works (e.g., [35, 37]) have already addressed the long tail phenomenon by recommending long tail POIs to users. By doing so, it is benefit for users (e.g., exploring the fresh environment) and also for merchants (e.g., the promotion of niche POIs contributes to the increase of revenue). Furthermore, it is worth noting that the good quality of POI recommendation includes not only the accuracy but also other ingredients such as serendipity and novelty. In this regard, recommending long tail POIs to users are also helpful for improving the recommendation quality. It can be seen that, the essence of their works is also from the user perspective, although they recommended “long tail” POIs instead of “popular” POIs. Specifically, in this paper we attempt to improve the recommendation quality by finding/recommending the best users for each long tail POI. For clarity, we call it **long tail POI recommendation**. To the best of our knowledge, few attention has been made to investigate the long tail POI recommendation. It is not hard to understand that, this idea should be especially effective for addressing the long tail phenomenon, since it can allow each (current) long tail POIs to match n best users, significantly alleviating the long tail POIs.

Although the idea above seems to be powerful, there are still many challenges needing to be addressed. (i) For long tail POI recommendation, the recommendation accuracy is also deeply troubled by *data sparsity*, it could incur the learning insufficient, when the recommender learns user’s preference features and POIs’ attributive features. (ii) The data structure of user-POI and check-in records is usually extremely skewed. For example, as shown in Table 1, the quantity of POIs is much more than the quantity of users, and the number of average check-ins of POIs is much less. It could be hard to characterize the features of POIs.

To alleviate various challenges and address the long tail recommendation problem, we propose a geographical relevance model (GRM) that employs two key ideas: (i) expanding POI profiles via relevant POIs to obtain candidate users, and (ii) developing the “mixed” similarity that employs the geographical information to further remedy the data sparsity. Our model builds a statistical relevance model for each long tail POI, which enables us to recommend target users for long tail POIs conveniently and effectively.

To summarize, our main contributions are as follows:

- We formally define the long tail recommendation problem from the POI perspective.
- We present geographical relevance model to address the long tail POI recommendation problem.

- We conduct extensive experiments to verify the effectiveness of our proposed model. Experimental results consistently demonstrate that our proposed model is effective and competitive.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Sect. 2, we review the related work and define the long tail POI recommendation problem formally. In Sect. 3, the geographical relevance model is proposed, and the experimental results are discussed in Sect. 4. Finally, we conclude the paper in Sect. 5.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we first review previous works most related to ours (Sect. 2.1), and then define our problem formally (Sect. 2.2).

2.1 Related Work

In recent years, *POI recommendation* has attracted much attention due to various applications [9, 24, 25, 27, 28, 33, 39–41, 44]. In existing works, many researches focused on improving the recommendation *accuracy*. There are many representative methods such as the memory-based *collaborative filtering* (CF) method [8, 20, 21], the model-based CF methods [7, 23], the weighted matrix factorization based methods [19], etc. Particularly, recent studies have also attempted to adapt implicit feedback data to improve the recommendation *quality* [1, 11, 24, 25].

It is well known that *data sparsity* makes deep impact on the recommendation quality [7, 25]. To cope with this issue, prior works have proposed many effective techniques by utilizing various context information. The main context information used in the POI recommendation community includes: (i) Geographical information [1, 7, 8, 19, 20, 27, 28]. For example, Zhang and Chow [8] suggested to depict individual’s personalized geographical distribution, instead of using a universal distribution for all individuals; the personalized *geographical distribution information* is utilized to improve the recommendation accuracy. Ye *et al.* [20] used the power law distribution to characterize geographical *clustering* [13] phenomenon, and they utilized the characterized *geographical clustering information* to improve the recommendation accuracy. (ii) Content information [5, 10, 11, 29, 30]. For instance, Wang *et al.* [10] exploited a general model to characterize individual’s interest and the crowd preference to help user explore unacquainted environments. He *et al.* [11] proposed an efficient method for POI recommendation, which learns individual’s category preference first (by a list-wise ranking approach), then selects POI candidates in the recommended category (by the spatial influence and the category ranking influence). (iii) Temporal information [24–26, 31, 32]. For example, Yuan *et al.* [26] and Gao *et al.* [31] split check-ins into different time bins, and then learnt the temporal pattern of individual’s preference. Feng *et al.* [24] and Liu *et al.* [25] utilized the sequential relationship between two check-ins to recommend POIs for users. (iv) Social relationship [2, 6, 14, 20, 35]. For example, Zhang and Chow [2] aggregated

the check-in frequency of a user’s friends on the POI, and modelled the social check-in frequency as a power-law distribution. And (v) trajectory information [4, 22, 34]. For example, Wang *et al.* [34] utilized a gravity model to estimate spatial influence using trajectory information.

Among the works mentioned above, the ones highly related to ours could be [1, 7, 8, 19, 20, 27, 28], since both these works and ours utilize the geographical information. Particularly, the work closest to our could be [8], since both their model and ours (i) belong to the collaborative filtering based methods; (ii) utilize the geographical information, e.g., some similar probability density functions are employed to estimate the spatial relationship. Nevertheless, our work is different from their work in several aspects at least: (i) their work directly utilized similar neighbourhoods as the candidates, but the long tail POI has few “check-ins” users, it is inaccurate to directly employ similar users. Therefore, to remedy data sparsity, our work utilize a relevance model to expand POI’s profile; (ii) their work utilized the probability density estimation for user-POI spatial relationship, whereas we utilize the kernel density estimation to calculate the spatial relationship between POIs; and (iii) their work employed the spatial relationship to represent part of user’s rating on POI, yet we utilize the spatial relationship to expand target POI’s neighbours and to remedy the data sparsity.

Besides the works mentioned above, another type of works [35, 37] are also highly related to ours, since both their papers and ours discuss the long tail issue in POI recommendation. For example, Yin *et al.* [35] represented the user-item information with undirected edge-weighted graph, and extended Hitting Time algorithm to help users find their favourite long tail items. Valcarce *et al.* [37] proposed an item relevance model to help vendors get rid of long tail products. Nevertheless, these models/methods cannot efficiently work for our problem, since their works addressed the long tail issue (in POI recommendation) from the user perspective. Instead, in this paper we focus on the long tail issue (in POI recommendation) from the POI perspective. That is, unlike the traditional POI recommendation, here we are interested in recommending users for long tail POIs, instead of recommending long tail POIs for users. We would like to point that, the work in [48] mentioned the inverted version of the classic POI recommendation problem. Nevertheless, the focus of their paper is still to address how to suggest POIs to users with a better quality. Hence, our work is essentially different from theirs.

2.2 Problem Definition

As discussed before, most of existing works for POI recommendation from the user perspective. That is, they focused on the recommendation task—finding POIs for users. Instead, in this paper we are interested in the inverted version of the classic recommendation task. That is, we want to find best users for each long tail POI. Addressing this problem is helpful for alleviating the long tail phenomenon, as mentioned earlier. In what follows, we formally formulate our problem.

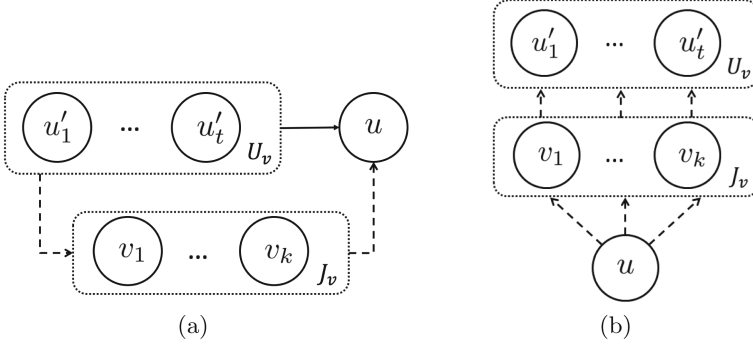


Fig. 2. Illustration of GRM. (a) Relevance model R_v for POI v . (b) Derivation of the estimating process.

Denote by U the set of (all) users, V the set of (all) POIs, and V' the set of long tail POIs, where $V' \subset V$. Similar to [20], let \mathbf{C} be the user-POI matrix that represents the relationship between each user and POI. The check-in activity of a user u at a POI v is denoted as $c_{u,v}$. Note that, $c_{u,v}$ could only be 1 or 0. When $c_{u,v} = 1$, it means u has a check-in at v in the past; otherwise, u has no check-in at v . It is easy to understand that each POI contains some “history” visitors. We use $U_v = \{u'_1, \dots, u'_t\}$ to denote the set of visitors, which can be viewed as the *POI profile*. Based on U_v , our task is to compute the probability $p(u|U_v)$ for each user u , and then recommend top- n users for the corresponding long tail POI v . For ease of discussion, we use a list, L_v^n , to represent/store the ranked top- n users for a POI v . Note that, the key challenge is to compute $p(u|U_v)$, since the long tail POI has few visitors. In the next section, we show how to address this problem in detail.

3 Geographical Relevance Model

We first describe the basic idea of our model, and then show how to obtain the important elements used in our model.

► **Basic idea.** The recommendation can be considered as a process of **expanding** POI profiles with **candidate users**, as shown in Fig. 2(a) (see the upper part). Here $U_v = \{u'_1, \dots, u'_t\}$ is the set of users who visited the POI v ; meanwhile, it also represents the profile of POI v , which shall be used to estimate the probability of a user u , $p(u|U_v)$.

To expand POI profiles, typically, one can directly employ similar users with visitors in POI profiles. Yet, for the long tail POI, it has few check-in records. Thus, directly obtaining similar users on the corresponding long tail POI is difficult for traditional collaborative filtering models. However, via relevance model R_v , the computation of the user probability on the profile of POI v can be estimated by the set of relevant POIs J_v . To understand, Fig. 2(a) (see the lower part) shows the set of relevant POIs J_v corresponding to the relevance model R_v ,

for a long tail POI v . The computation problem of $p(u|U_v)$ is transformed into $p(u|R_v)$. Note that, throughout this paper we assume users recorded in POI's profile are independent from each other, but dependent on the users recorded in the profiles of relevant POIs.

► **Computing the probability $p(u|R_v)$.** To this step, one can easily verify that the long tail POI recommendation can be roughly considered as the problem of computing the probability of a user u under the relevance model of long tail POI v . In what follows, we show how to obtain $p(u|R_v)$ for each user $u \in U$. This step is especially important, since it serves as a vital ingredient of our model. At a high level, our technique for estimating the probability is inspired by [38], in which a relevance-based Language Models is developed for pseudo-relevance feedback. Specifically, the derivation process is as follows:

- Since the probability of next user u (sampled from the relevance model) relies on the set of users $U_v = \{u'_1, \dots, u'_t\}$ who visited the POI v , one can have $p(u|R_v) \approx p(u|u'_1, \dots, u'_t)$. By applying the definition of conditional probability, one can have $p(u|u'_1, \dots, u'_t) = \frac{p(u, u'_1, \dots, u'_t)}{p(u'_1, \dots, u'_t)}$. Note that, the denominator in the fraction can be ignored, since it remains constant for the same POI v . So, we have

$$p(u|R_v) \approx p(u|u'_1, \dots, u'_t) = \frac{p(u, u'_1, \dots, u'_t)}{p(u'_1, \dots, u'_t)} \propto p(u, u'_1, \dots, u'_t) \quad (1)$$

- To estimate the relevance model of POI v , R_v , we pick a user u given the prior probability $p(u)$. The sampling probability of users u'_1, \dots, u'_t depends on user u , as shown in the lower part of Fig. 2(b). To estimate the conditional probability $p(u'|u)$, we sample a user $u' \in U_v$ from the relevant POI's v_j distribution with probability $p(u'|v_j)$, as depicted in the upper part of Fig. 2(b). The formula is shown as follows.

$$p(u, u'_1, \dots, u'_t) = p(u) \prod_{u' \in U_v} p(u'|u) \approx p(u) \prod_{u' \in U_v} \sum_{v_j \in J_v} p(u'|v_j) p(v_j|u) \quad (2)$$

- By Bayes' Theorem, we have $p(v_j|u) = \frac{p(u|v_j)p(v_j)}{p(u)}$. By combining Formula 2, we have $p(u, u'_1, \dots, u'_t) \approx p(u) \prod_{u' \in U_v} \sum_{v_j \in J_v} p(u'|v_j) \frac{p(u|v_j)p(v_j)}{p(u)}$. Further, by combining Formula 1, we have

$$p(u|R_v) \propto p(u) \prod_{u' \in U_v} \sum_{v_j \in J_v} p(u'|v_j) \frac{p(u|v_j)p(v_j)}{p(u)} \quad (3)$$

- We next show how to obtain each element in Formula 3. We can see that there are four main elements: $p(u|v_j)$, $p(u'|v_j)$, $p(u)$, and $p(v_j)$. We consider the uniform distribution for $p(u)$ and $p(v_j)$ in this paper (i.e., $p(u) = \frac{1}{|U|}$, $p(v_j) = \frac{1}{|V|}$). To compute $p(u|v_j)$, the maximum likelihood estimation of a multinomial distribution over the check-ins can be used for this task. However, this method may suffer from the data sparsity. In our paper, we use Absolute Discounting (AD) [42] to smooth the maximum likelihood estimation

$p(u|v_j) = \frac{c_{u,v_j}}{\sum_{u' \in U_{v_j}} c_{u',v_j}}$ with the user probability in the collection. In brief, we use AD to subtract the same constant, δ , from the count of all the seen check-ins. The selection of an appropriate δ will be detailed in experiment. Then, a count (proportional to the probability in the collection) is added to each user. Then, we have

$$p(u|v_j) = \frac{\max(c_{u,v_j} - \delta, 0) + \delta |U_{v_j}| p(u|C)}{\sum_{u' \in U_{v_j}} c_{u',v_j}} \quad (4)$$

where $p(u|C)$ is computed as follows:

$$p(u|C) = \frac{\sum_{j \in V} c_{u,v_j}}{\sum_{u' \in U, v_j \in V} v_{u',v_j}} \quad (5)$$

Note that, $p(u'|v_j)$ can be obtained using the same method above.

To this step, it remains to explain how to obtain J_v (i.e., relevant POIs), although we briefly describe it in Fig. 2(a). Note that, J_v is a critical component in our model. We next address how to obtain it in detail.

► **Computing relevant POIs J_v .** The key of point for obtaining J_v is the computation of the similarity of v_i and v_j . To achieve this, our method consists of several steps: (i) computing the general similarity of v_i and v_j (in our paper, we use the cosine similarity); (ii) computing the spatial similarity; (iii) combining the “mixed” similarity by combining the above two types of similarities. We next discuss each step.

- Since the similar POIs are the approximation of the real relevant POIs, we call the similar POIs with respect to POI v are the pseudo-relevant POIs in the relevance model R_v . In our paper, we employ k NN algorithm to compute the set of pseudo-relevant POIs based on the check-ins, according to the *pairwise similarity* [43]. Here, we utilize cosine similarity, which yields better results in our experiments. The cosine similarity s between two POIs v_i and v_j is as follows:

$$s(v_i, v_j) = \frac{\sum_{u \in U_{v_i} \cap U_{v_j}} c_{u,v_i} c_{u,v_j}}{\sqrt{\sum_{u \in U_{v_i}} c_{u,v_i}^2 \sum_{u' \in U_{v_j}} c_{u',v_j}^2}} \quad (6)$$

- It is easy to understand that, the normalized distance between two POIs can be used as the spatial similarity. However, the spatial similarity is not linear relationship with distance. To obtain POIs’ spatial similarity from the distance information and reflect their non-linear relationship, we use the kernel estimation method, which is a non-parametric way to estimate the probability density function of a random variable. The spatial similarity $sp(v_i, v_j)$ is computed as

$$sp(v_i, v_j) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}h} e^{-\frac{(d_{v_i v_j})^2}{2h^2}}, \quad (7)$$

where $d_{v_i v_j}$ is the spatial distance between v_i and v_j . The method to select the bandwidth h will be introduced in Sect. 4.2.

- To make our model comprehensive and robust, following prior works [7, 8, 20] we integrate multiple similarity functions into one. Specifically, we here integrate the general similarity and the spatial similarity. For clarity, we denote by $s_m(v_i, v_j)$ the “mixed” similarity, which is computed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} s_m(v_i, v_j) &= (1 - \alpha)s(v_i, v_j) + \alpha \cdot sp(v_i, v_j) \\ 0 \leq \alpha &\leq 1, \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where α is a parameter used to balance the weight. Since the above formula is a linear combination of different factors, there is an extra variable α to be inferred. One can easily understand that, when facing new datasets, the variable may need to re-adjust. To address this trouble, our proposed method utilizes the proportion of two factors in exponential space to replace the extra variable. This way, it can avoid this extra variable, as shown below.

$$\begin{aligned} s_m(v_i, v_j) &= \frac{\exp(s(v_i, v_j))}{Z} s(v_i, v_j) + \frac{\exp(sp(v_i, v_j))}{Z} sp(v_i, v_j) \\ Z &= \exp(s(v_i, v_j)) + \exp(sp(v_i, v_j)). \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

4 Performance Evaluation

In this section, we first cover the experimental settings including datasets, evaluation metrics and benchmark models, and then discuss the experimental results.

4.1 Experimental Settings

In the experiments, we use two real datasets to evaluate our proposed method. One is **Foursquare**¹, and another is **Gowalla**². The Foursquare dataset is made of 2,321 users on 5,596 POIs from August 2010 to July 2011. In contrast, the Gowalla dataset is made of 10,162 users on 24,250 POIs from February 2009 to October 2010. Both datasets are very sparse. More details about them can be found in Table 1 (recall Sect. 1).

Since this paper deals with a novel recommendation task, i.e., an inverted version of the classic POI recommendation problem, in our experiments we consider the POIs with less than 10 visitors as the long tail POIs. We randomly select 50% of the visited users as the training set, and the rest of users as a test set. We learn user’s preference to POIs from the training set, and then we recommend the best candidate users for each long tail POI. The recommendation model is to rate each users unvisited and rank them by the ratings. Then it returns the top- n users as the recommendation list (to the POI). By comparing the recommendation list and test set, we evaluate the model’s accuracy. Evaluation metrics include Pre@ n and Rec@ n , which are computed as

¹ Foursquare is available at <https://pan.baidu.com/s/1hrYNwJM>.

² Gowalla is available at <https://pan.baidu.com/s/1i4DgFmX>.

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Pre@}n &= \frac{1}{|V'|} \sum_{v=1}^{|V'|} \frac{|L_v^n \cap T_v|}{n} \\
\text{Rec@}n &= \frac{1}{|V'|} \sum_{v=1}^{|V'|} \frac{|L_v^n \cap T_v|}{|T_v|}.
\end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

where L_v^n represents the top- n users recommended by the model for POI v , T_v represents the user set in which the users really visited POI v , and $|V'|$ is the number of long tail POIs. In our experiments, we run 5 times for each test and report the average value.

To evaluate the performance of our proposed model, we compare it against five baselines. Since no targeted model exists for the task discussed in this paper, we adapt state-of-the-art models to achieve the task. The details are as follows.

- *Popularity.* This model is a classic and naive recommender model, but is usually used to compare sophisticated models. This model chooses the most popular users for all the POIs in traditional recommendation task. In our task, it implies that, for each POI, it recommends the same set of users. For concise, we call this baseline **Pop**.
- *User-based neighborhood recommender.* They employ the classic collaborative filtering technique, which is used to compute a set of k nearest neighbors (k NN) for each user or POI [43]. The neighbourhood relationships are computed using pairwise similarities (e.g. Pearson’s correlation coefficient). The recommender aims to predict the probability of the target user, based on the check-ins of the neighbourhoods. For short, we name the user-based neighborhood recommender as **k NN-UB**. For recommending users to long tail POIs, we generate a recommendation list L_v for each $v \in V'$. This list contains those users $u \in U$ with the largest prediction ratings.
- *Item-based neighborhood recommender.* It is almost the same with the above recommend, except the it is based on the item, while k NN-UB is based on the user. For short, we name it as **k NN-IB**.
- *Hitting time.* This recommender is designed for recommending long tails to users [35], which is contrary to our task. The method overcomes the data sparsity by considering the recommendation task as a random walk in a graph. We utilize this model to build an edge-weighted undirected graph, in which the nodes are POIs and users. Each rating is the weight of an edge that connects two nodes (i.e., user and POI). Given such a graph, their method computes the hitting time from POI v with respect to the target user u , which is the average number of steps that a random walker needs to take (from node v to node u). For short, we call it **HT**.
- *Rank-GeoFM.* It is a ranking-based model that learns users’ preference rankings, and includes the geographical influence of neighbouring POIs [1]. This technique is one of the strongest state-of-the-art top- N recommendation model. We first use this model to estimate each user’s rating on the target POI, and then get the recommendation list for each long tail POI.

4.2 Experimental Results

Figure 3(a) shows the results by varying k (the number of nearest neighbourhoods). In this set of experiments, we can see that, when k is small, the model has few relevant POIs to expand POI profiles. However, when k exceeds a threshold ($k = 40$ in Foursquare, $k = 30$ in Gowalla), the relevant POIs set introduce more noise data. At this time, it is not helpful to improve model performance by increasing k . Here the number of nearest neighborhoods k used in the rest of experiments is set to 40 for Foursquare and 30 for Gowalla, unless stated otherwise. To study the impact of bandwidth h in the spatial similarity (recall Sect. 3), we test different settings for this parameter. Figure 3(b) shows the results of Pre@5 on both datasets. We can see from the figure that GRM first increases and then decreases (for Foursquare), when h increases. Particularly, when $h = 0.2$, its performance reaches the best. One possible reason is that when the distance of two POIs is less than 0.2 km, POI's property is more likely to be similar. Yet, when the distance is more than 0.2 km, the similarity between POI's property is fluctuated drastically. The tendency on Gowalla is similar to that on Foursquare. In the rest of experiments, the parameter h is set to 0.2, unless stated otherwise. Besides, we set δ in Foursquare as 0.6, δ in Gowalla as 0.4.

As we expected, the popularity method is poor in our task (cf., Fig. 4). Interestingly, the classic neighbourhood methods (k NN-UB and k NN-IB) perform even worse than this naive strategy in most of experiments (cf., Fig. 4). It indicates that traditional neighbourhood algorithms could be unsuitable for this task. This is mainly because computing neighbourhoods for long tail POIs is difficult, due to the fact that the long tail POI has few check-ins. Essentially, this indirectly shows that the pairwise similarities, such as Pearson's correlation coefficient used in neighbourhood methods, has little help to improve the performance, when only few co-occurrences between vectors are available. On the other hand, it also implies that finding user neighbourhoods who have information about long tail POIs is even more challenging, although finding neighbourhoods for long tail POIs is also challenging.

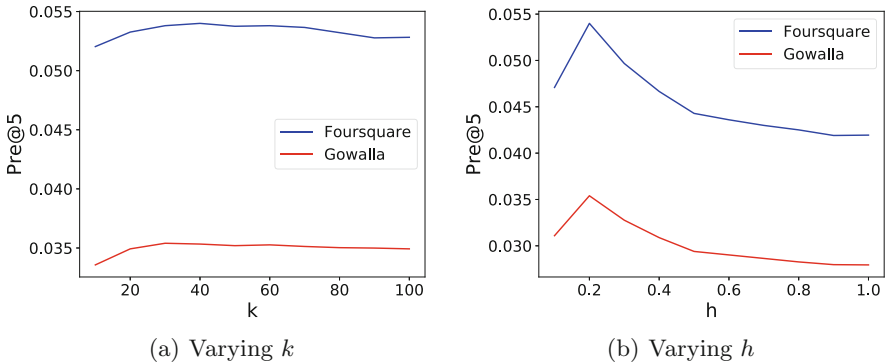


Fig. 3. Results by varying k and h on two public datasets: Foursquare and Gowalla

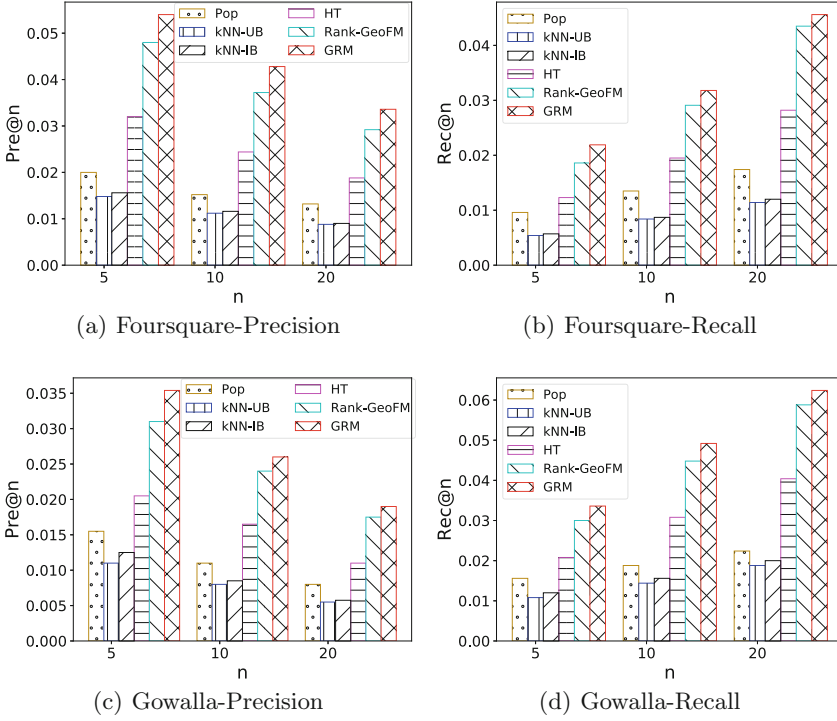


Fig. 4. Performance results by comparing GRM against others competitors.

Furthermore, we observe that the item-based approach (k NN-IB) performs similarly, or better than the user-based counterpart (k NN-UB) in all the tested scenarios (cf., Figs. 4 and 5). Note that, it has been verified [43] that, for the traditional recommendation task, the item-based approaches tend to achieve better accuracy, compared to most of methods. Fortunately, for the novel recommendation task, we observe from Fig. 4 that the item-based approaches are also not bad.

From Fig. 4, we can see that the performance of the HT method is good. This could be due to the fact that HT computes the average number of steps, for which a random walker needs to go from one node to another. This way, the model can generate recommendations for both users and POIs, because all of them are nodes in the same graph (connected by check-ins). Thus, this model does not establish any type of difference between users and POIs. The symmetry of this model between both entities is the key of point for achieving the good recommendation quality in this novel recommendation task.

Even so, the strongest baseline among these five baselines could be Rank-GeoFM, as shown in Fig. 4. We observe that, Rank-GeoFM produces scores for user and POIs. Thus, the creation of a recommendation list in this task is done by sorting users in descending order, with respect to the corresponding POI. The reason why Rank-GeoFM produces relatively good recommendation could

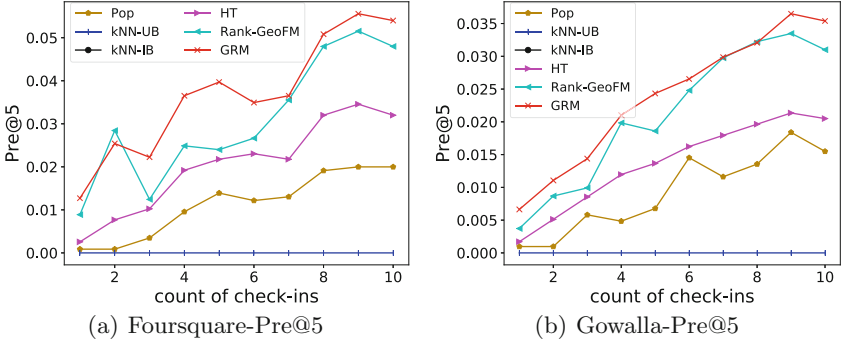


Fig. 5. Performance results on POIs with different sparsity.

be that, this method needs no adaptation to our task. Additionally, it utilizes a pairwise ranking method to learn user’s and POI’s feature vectors. Furthermore, it incorporates geographical information with the influence of nearest geographical neighbourhoods. Last but not least, this method is also symmetric with respect to users and POIs. All these properties could be responsible for the good results of this baseline method. Yet, the symmetry property could be still one of the major reasons.

At the same time, we also test each models’ performance for different sparsity degrees. Based on the number of check-in records, we divide POIs into ten parts. On Foursquare, we can observe that GRM outperforms the rest of baselines consistently, except when count of check-ins equals 2, as shown in Fig. 5. The performance of some baselines varies when we change the number of visitors. Also, the strongest baseline, Rank-GeoFM, outperforms other baselines except when we deal with POIs with very few visitors. Even so, GRM could be still more favourable, since it is able to effectively deal with both the scenarios with high sparsity degree, and the uncomplicated ones.

In summary, from the above analysis, one can see that, although all the baselines are designed for dealing with the traditional recommendation task—suggesting POIs to users—the results show that some models have good performance for the novel task—recommending users to the long tail POIs. Even so, our proposed model, GRM, is still the best for this task, demonstrating its competitiveness.

5 Conclusions

In this paper, we investigated POI recommendation from the POI perspective. That is, how to recommend potential users for the long tail POIs. We formulated this task formally and designed a novel model to address this problem. Our model is based on the probabilistic collaborative filtering model. We conducted experiments to verify the performance of our proposed model. Experimental

results demonstrated that it outperformed a set of representative state-of-the-art recommendation models for our proposed problem. In the future, we would like to incorporate various context information into our model to study the effect of various context information.

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