

# Social Affinity Filtering: Recommendation through Fine-grained Analysis of User Interactions and Activities

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## ABSTRACT

Content recommendation in social networks poses the complex problem of learning user preferences from a rich and complex set of interactions (e.g., likes, comments and tags for posts, photos and videos) and activities (e.g., favourites, group memberships, interests). While many social collaborative filtering approaches learn from aggregate statistics over this social information, we show that only a small subset of user interactions and activities are actually useful for social recommendation, hence learning *which* of these are most informative is of critical importance. To this end, we define a novel social collaborative filtering approach termed social affinity filtering (SAF). On a preference dataset of Facebook users and their interactions with 37,000+ friends collected over a four month period, SAF learns which fine-grained interactions and activities are informative and *outperforms* state-of-the-art (social) collaborative filtering methods by over 6% in prediction accuracy. In addition, we carry out an analysis of various fine-grained social features and show among other insights that interactions on video content are more informative than other interaction modalities (e.g., photos), the most informative activity groups tend to have small memberships, and features corresponding to “long-tailed” content (e.g., music and books) can be much more predictive than those with fewer choices (e.g., interests and sports). In summary, this work demonstrates the substantial predictive power of fine-grained social interaction and activity features and the novel method of SAF to leverage them for state-of-the-art social recommender systems.

## Categories and Subject Descriptors

H.3.3 [Information Search and Retrieval]: Information Filtering

## Keywords

social networks, collaborative filtering, recommender systems

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Online social networks such as Facebook record a rich set of user preferences (likes of links, posts, photos, videos), user traits, interactions and activities (conversation streams, tagging, group memberships, interests, personal history, and demographic data). This presents myriad new dimensions to the recommendation problem by making available a rich labeled graph structure of social interactions and content from which user preferences can be learned and new recommendations can be made.

Existing recommendation methods for social networks aggregate this rich social information into a simple measure of user-to-user interaction that can be leveraged to model user homophily via social regularization [9, 19, 22, 23, 34], a trust ensemble [20], or a low-rank factorization of the social interactions matrix [21]. But in aggregating all of these interactions and common activities into a single strength of interaction, we ask whether important preference information has been discarded? Indeed, the point of departure for this work is the hypothesis that different fine-grained interactions (e.g. commenting on a wall or getting tagged in a video) and activities (e.g., being a member of a university alumni group or a fan of a TV series) *do* represent different preferential *affinities* between users, and moreover that effective *filtering* of this information (i.e., learning which of these myriad fine-grained interactions and activities are informative) will lead to improved accuracy in social recommendation.

To quantitatively validate our hypotheses and evaluate the informativeness of different fine-grained features for social recommendation, we have built a Facebook App to collect detailed user interaction and activity history available through the Facebook Graph API along with user preferences solicited by the App on a daily basis. Specifically, each day our App recommends three links to each App user that are collected from the timeline of other users (both friends and non-friends) and we record users’ explicit likes and dislikes of these recommended links. Given this data, we define *social affinity groups (SAGs)* of a target user (ego) as sets of

surrogate users (alters) serving as proxies for an ego’s preferences; these SAGs are defined according to fine-grained *interactions* (e.g., users who have been tagged in the target user’s video) and *activities* (e.g., users who have liked the same political party page that the target user has liked). Given a set of SAGs for a user, (1) we define a novel recommendation method called *social affinity filtering* (SAF), where we learn to predict whether a user will like an item based on the surrogate item preferences of members of each SAG, and (2) we analyse the relative informativeness of SAGs across a variety of dimensions such as type, exposure to friends’ preferences, and activity membership size.

In the four months that our App was active, we collected data for a set of Facebook app users and their full interactions with 38,000+ friends along with 22 distinct types of interaction and users activity for 3000+ groups, 4000+ favourites, and 10,000+ pages. In subsequent sections that outline our experimental methodology and results in detail, we make the following critical observations:

- We found that SAF significantly outperforms numerous state-of-the-art collaborative filtering and social recommender systems by over 6% in accuracy using just *page* (like) features. Because we have observed that the reluctance of a user to install an App increases with the number of permissions requested, this suggests a state-of-the-art social recommendation App need only request permissions for a user’s *page* likes in order to achieve state-of-the-art recommendation accuracy.
- We found that *groups*, *pages*, and *favourites* make for more informative SAGs than those defined by user-to-user interactions. This is likely because the former can be applied to SAGs over the entire Facebook population rather than just a user’s friends (where the available preference data is considerably more sparse).
- Among the *interactions*, we found that those on videos are more predictive than those on other content types (photos, post, link), and that outgoing interactions (performed by the ego on the alter’s timeline) are more predictive than incoming ones (performed by alters on the ego’s timeline), although the level of exposure of an ego to an alter’s preferences is more important than the directionality of the interaction with the alters.
- Among *groups*, *pages* and *favourites*, we found that only a small subset of the features were actually informative, bringing into question the efficacy of previous social recommendation approaches that aggregate social information between two users into a single numerical value. We found that the most predictive activity SAGs tend to have small memberships. We also found features corresponding to “long-tailed” dynamic content (such as music and books) can be much more predictive than those with fewer choices that add little new content over time (e.g. interests or sports).



Figure 1: Overview of social affinity for link recommendation. A *social affinity group* (SAG) consists of the set of alters of a user  $u$  (ego) who have a certain interaction or share an activity membership with  $u$ . Alters defined by SAGs serve as proxies for an ego’s interest with some SAGs showing stronger affinity with an ego as learned by *social affinity filtering* (SAF) and analysed subsequently.

As detailed in the subsequent sections, these findings not only demonstrate the power of leveraging fine-grained interaction and activity features but they also suggest what social information can be most informative to collect when building state-of-the-art SAF-based social recommenders.

## 2. SOCIAL AFFINITY FILTERING

As illustrated in Fig 1, the high-level objective of this work is to predict whether or not a user  $u$  will like an item  $i$  (in our test case, a link posted on Facebook that may correspond to a Youtube video, news or blog item, etc.). Since the Facebook App we have built for our experimental analysis collects explicit like and dislike feedback, we define our prediction target of user  $u$ ’s preference for link  $i$  as follows:

$$likes(u, i) := \begin{cases} true & u \text{ clicked } like \text{ for } i \\ false & u \text{ clicked } dislike \text{ for } i \\ unknown & u's \text{ preference for } i \text{ is unobserved} \end{cases}$$

From the observed data (i.e., instances of  $likes(u, i)$  evaluating to *true* or *false*) we learn to predict  $likes(u, i)$  based on the surrogate link preferences  $likes(v, i)$  of sets of other Facebook users  $v$  who have at least one interaction or activity in common with  $u$ . On Facebook, there are many ways to define such sets of alters for the ego’s preferences as detailed in the next section.

### 2.1 Interactions and Activities on Facebook

On Facebook, we use the term *interactions* and *activities* to refer to the range of user-user and user-community actions, respectively.

**Interactions** describes the communication between Facebook users. There are a few dozen different interaction types

that have distinct item modality, action and direction defined as follows:

- **Modality:** (4 possibilities) User  $u$  can interact with another user  $v$  via *links*, *posts*, *photos* and *videos* that appear in either user's timeline.
- **Action type:** (3 possibilities) A user  $u$  can *comment* or *like* user  $v$ 's item. He/she can also *tag* user  $v$  on an item, often indicating that user  $v$  is present when the content is created (for photo/video/post), or to explicitly raise user  $v$ 's attention for a post — with one exception in Facebook that  $u$  cannot tag a link with users  $v$  since the link is created by third parties and merely shared on Facebook.
- **Directionality:** (2 possibilities) We look at *incoming* and *outgoing* interactions, i.e., if user  $u$  comments on, tags, or likes user  $v$ 's item, then this is an outgoing interaction for  $u$ , and an incoming interaction for  $v$ . Although high correlation between *incoming* and *outgoing* interactions has been observed [28], whether interaction direction affects user preferences differently is still an open question we wish to answer in this work.

There are a total of 22 interaction types. Namely the cross-product of modalities, actions and directions, minus *link-tag-{incoming, outgoing}* since links cannot be tagged in Facebook.

**Activities** describes the user interactions with Facebook communities like groups, pages, and favourites defined as follows:

- **Groups** on Facebook <sup>1</sup> are analogous to community organisations in the real-world. It allows users to declare membership and supports people to organise activities, to post related content, and to have recurring discussions about them. Examples of groups include *Stanford Thai* (Fig 1 bottom left), or *Harvard Debate Club*.
- **Pages** on Facebook <sup>2</sup> are analogous to the homepages of people, organisations and events on the world-wide-web. They are publicly visible, and users can subscribe to the updates on the page, and also engage in discussions. Example pages include *DARPA* (an organisation, Fig 1 bottom middle), or *Beyonce* (a singer).

<sup>1</sup>From Facebook Blog: <http://www.facebook.com/blog/blog.php?post=324706977130>, "Groups are the place for small group communication and for people to share their common interests and express their opinion. Groups allow people to come together around a common cause, issue or activity to organise, express objectives, discuss issues, post photos and share related content."

<sup>2</sup>From Facebook Blog: (<http://www.facebook.com/blog/blog.php?post=324706977130>) "Facebook Pages enable public figures, businesses, organisations and other entities to create an authentic and public presence on Facebook. Facebook Pages are visible to everyone on the Internet by default. Facebook users can connect with these Pages by becoming a fan and then receive their updates and interact with them."

- **Favourites** are analogous to bookmarks (on physical books or on the web browser). It is a user-created list containing various items such as Facebook apps, books, music, and many other types of items to indicate their interest. Example favourite items include *Big Bang Theory* (TV series), or *FC Barcelona* (soccer club). Fig 1 bottom right shows a Facebook screenshot when a user adds a favourite. <sup>3</sup>

Our evaluation includes 3000+ *group*, 4000+ *page* and 10000+ *favourite* features as detailed in Sec 3.1.

## 2.2 Social Affinity Groups

Based on the definitions of *interaction* and *activities* above, we define two types of *social affinity groups* (SAGs) of a user  $u$ , namely *interaction social affinity groups* (ISAG) and *activity social affinity groups* (ASAG).

- **Interaction Social Affinity Groups (ISAGs):** Let the set of interaction affinity classes be the cross-product of interaction modality, action, and direction:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Interaction-Classes} &:= \{\text{link}, \text{post}, \text{photo}, \text{video}\} \\ &\quad \times \{\text{likes}, \text{tag}, \text{comment}\} \\ &\quad \times \{\text{incoming}, \text{outgoing}\} \end{aligned}$$

Then for  $k \in \text{Interaction-Classes}$  we define

$$\text{ISAG}(u, k) := \{v \mid \text{user } v \text{ has had interaction } k \text{ with } u\}$$

For example,

- $\text{ISAG}(u, \text{link-like-incoming})$  is the set of all users who have liked a link posted by user  $u$ , and
- $\text{ISAG}(u, \text{photo-comment-outgoing})$  is the set of all users whose photos user  $u$  has commented on.

- **Activity Social Affinity Groups (ASAGs):** We define activity affinity groups based on group membership, page likes and user favourites (of which there are over 17000 distinct activities in the set *Activity-Groups* collected from our data). For any one of these activities  $k \in \text{Activity-Groups}$  we define:

$$\text{ASAG}(k) := \{v \mid \text{user } v \text{ has taken part in activity } k\}$$

For example,

- $\text{ASAG}(\text{page-Beyonce})$  is the set of all users  $v$  who have liked *Beyonce's* Facebook page, and
- $\text{ASAG}(\text{group-Harvard Debate Club})$  is the set of all users  $v$  who have joined the *Harvard Debate Club's* Facebook group.

<sup>3</sup>According to Facebook Blog, (<https://www.facebook.com/help/232262810142682>) "Facebook facilitates a wide variety of user selected favourites (Activities, Favorite Athletes, Books, Interests, Movies, Music, Sports, Favorite Teams, Television). These favourites allow a user to associate themselves with other people who share their same favourite tendencies."

## 2.3 Social Affinity Features

Given the previous definition of SAGs, we can now define two sets of *social affinity features* that can be used to train classifiers for the purpose of social recommendation:

- **Interaction Social Affinity Features (ISAFs):** We define feature  $X_k^{u,i} \in \{true, false\}$  for user  $u$ , item  $i$  and interaction  $k \in \text{Interaction-Classes}$  as

$$X_k^{u,i} := \begin{cases} true & \exists v \in ISAG(u, k) \wedge likes(v, i) = true \\ false & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In short,  $X_k^{u,i}$  is *true* if any user sharing interaction  $k$  with  $u$  liked  $i$ . Here we note that  $v$  is implicitly limited to  $u$ 's Facebook friends (with whom  $u$  may interact with).

- **Activity Social Affinity Features (ASAFs):** We define feature  $X_k^{u,i} \in \{true, false\}$  for user  $u$ , item  $i$  and activity  $k \in \text{Activity-Groups}$  as

$$X_k^{u,i} := \begin{cases} true & u \in ASAG(k) \wedge \\ & \exists v \in ASAG(k) \wedge likes(v, i) = true \\ false & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In short,  $X_k^{u,i}$  is *true* if both  $u$  and some other  $v$  are a member of activity  $k$  and  $v$  has liked  $i$ . Here we note that  $v$  may range over all Facebook users (for which data has been collected), i.e.,  $v$  need not be a friend of  $u$  to share the same activity  $k$  since activities are public.

## 2.4 Social Affinity filtering

*Social affinity filtering (SAF)* is a novel social recommendation method that *learns* which sets of social network users — defined via their fine-grained interactions and shared activities with user  $u$  — are good proxies for  $u$ 's preference over item  $i$ . With the social affinity features as defined in Sec 2.3 relying on SAGs as defined in Sec 2.2, the task of SAF reduces to one of binary classification.

Formally, given a user  $u$  and item  $i$ , a SAF classifier is simply a function

$$f : \mathbf{X}(u, i) \rightarrow likes(u, i)$$

where we restrict  $likes(u, i) \in \{true, false\}$ <sup>4</sup> and specify a feature vector  $\mathbf{X}(u, i) = \langle \dots, X_k^{u,i}, \dots \rangle$  over social affinity features  $k$ . To train  $f$ , one simply provides a dataset of historical observations  $D = \{\mathbf{X}(u, i) \rightarrow likes(u, i)\}$  where  $f$  could be a linear classifier trained by an SVM, logistic regression, or naïve Bayes. For future predictions, we are simply given a new user  $u$  and item  $i$  to predict for and build the feature vector  $\mathbf{X}(u, i)$  from which we can predict  $likes(u, i) = f(\mathbf{X}(u, i))$  using the trained classifier  $f$ .

While a classification approach to recommendation might evoke comparisons to *content-based filtering* (CBF) [18],

<sup>4</sup>For training purposes, we omit any unobserved cases for which the class label  $likes(u, i) = unknown$ . At prediction time, the binary classifier must always select a class label of *true* or *false*.

we remark that CBF is not a *social* recommendation approach and unlike CBF, SAF does not require explicit user features (e.g., age, gender, location, etc.) or item descriptors (link text, link genre, etc.); in contrast, SAF uses interaction and/or activity data for social network users to define SAGs and learns the affinities between a user (ego) and the different set of alters as defined by these SAGs. Additionally, unlike state-of-the-art *social collaborative filtering* approaches [9, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 34], SAF does not aggregate user-user interaction and shared activity data into a single aggregate statistic, instead it uses fine-grained distinctions in this social data to define a large number of SAGs and learns which of these SAGs are informative for recommendation.

## 3. EVALUATION

### 3.1 Data Description

We built a Facebook App to collect detailed user interaction and activity history available through the Facebook Graph API. The purpose of the App was two-fold: (1) to build the SAG information as defined in Sec 2.2, and (2) to collect a user  $u$ 's preferences on recommended links  $i$  solicited by the App on a daily basis to build the  $likes(u, i)$  relation required in Sec 2.3. The data collection is performed with full permission from the user and in accordance with an approved Ethics Protocol<sup>5</sup>

In order to collect full interactions among App users as required in our experimentation, our App requested to collect information posted to *friends'* timelines. With such expressive permissions concerning friend interactions, most potential users were hesitant to install the App; after an intensive one month user drive period at our University, we were able to attract 119 App users. From these core App users, the App has access to their detailed Facebook profiles and their *complete* interactions with a total of 37,872 friends. The difficulty of collecting data with such expressive App permissions suggests the importance of identifying informative SAGs for social recommendation and the *minimal* set of permissions required to populate these SAGs to increase user uptake of a social recommendation App.

Our App tracks user's (and their friends') details and interactions on Facebook. Interactions that occur via wall posts provide a rich variety of content and interaction data. We distinguish four *modalities* for Facebook timeline post content defined previously: general wall posts (e.g., status updates, activity updates such as new friends), links, photos and videos. Four main *actions* on these items are permitted by Facebook: posting an item to a friend's wall, commenting, liking, and tagging. Furthermore, Facebook allows users to engage in public *activities* (groups, pages and favourites) via membership and liking. In addition to interactions, the App also tracks users' group membership, page likes, and favourites. We summarise relevant basic statistics of the data

<sup>5</sup>Ethics approval #2011/142 from the Australian National University.

	App Users	Ego network of App Users
Total	119	37,872
Male	85	20,840
Female	34	17,032

Table 1: App user demographics. The *ego network* is the friend network of the App users.

App Users	Tags	Comments	Likes
Post	7,711	22,388	15,999
Link	—	7,483	6,566
Photo	28,341	10,976	8,612
Video	2,525	1,970	843

Ego network of App Users	Tags	Comments	Likes
Post	1,215,382	3,122,019	1,887,497
Link	—	891,986	995,214
Photo	9,620,708	3,431,321	2,469,859
Video	904,604	486,677	332,619

Table 2: Statistics on user *interactions*, grouped by item *modality* and *action type*.

in Tables 2–4. Table 1 shows some demographics from user profiles. Table 2 summarises the number of records for each item *modality* (row) and *action* (column) combination. Table 3 shows the group membership, page like and favourite counts for users.

Our App recommends three links to users every day, where the users may give their feedback on the links indicating whether they liked or disliked it. Users are recommended links that are collected from *both* friends’ and non-friends’ timelines. We chose to display only three links per day in order to avoid rank-bias with preferences; each link could be independently rated. Table 4 shows the statistics of the App user rating for links taken from the timelines of friends and non-friends.

Lastly, we remark that all data used in the experiments is offline batch data that has been stored and analysed *after* the four month data collection period.

### 3.2 SAF Comparison

In this section, we wish to compare novel SAF-based methods with a variety of (social) collaborative filtering baselines. For baselines, we examine the following:

1. **Most Likely Class Constant Predictor (Const)**
2. **Nearest Neighbor (NN)** [6]
3. **Matrix Factorization (MF)** [29]
4. **Social Matchbox (SMB)** [23]

Here, Const serves as a lower bound on performance, NN and MF are two well-known state-of-the-art *non-social* col-

	App Users	Ego Network of App Users
Groups	3,469	373,608
Page Likes	10,771	825,452
Favourites	4,284	892,820

Table 3: Statistics on user *actions*, counted for *groups*, *pages* and *favourites* over the App users and their ego network.

	Friend recommendation	Non-Friend recommendation
Like	1392	1127
Dislike	895	2111

Table 4: Dataset breakdown of prediction target  $like(u, i)$  by the source of the link (friend/non-friend) and rating (Like=*true*, Dislike=*false*).

laborative filtering algorithms, and SMB is a state-of-the-art *social* collaborative filtering algorithm — a social extension of matrix factorization that encourages more homophily for pairs of users with more interactions.

Among the novel SAF methods, we analyse four different sets of social affinity features:

1. **Interaction Social Affinity Features (ISAF)**
2. **Activity-based Social Affinity Features (ASAF)** for
  - (a) **Group Memberships**
  - (b) **Page Likes**
  - (c) **Favourites**

Furthermore, for these four classes of features, we train one of three classifier types, leading to the following classes of SAF recommenders evaluated in our experiments:

1. **Naïve Bayes (NB-ISAF, NB-ASAF)**
2. **Support Vector Machines (SVM-ISAF, SVM-ASAF)**
3. **Logistic Regression (LR-ISAF, LR-ASAF)**

In all experiments, we report average accuracy using 10-fold cross validation and provide standard error bars corresponding to 95% confidence intervals on the accuracy.

Fig 2 compares the above baselines and SAF algorithms. In all of these experiments, SAF variants performed statistically significantly better than the best baseline (SMB), except for NB-ASAF which we conjecture is due to violation of feature independence assumptions that become more pronounced as the number of features increases by two orders of magnitude when moving from the NB-ISAF feature set (22 features) to any of the NB-ASAF feature sets (1000’s of features).

In terms of the best recommenders, we observe that LR-ASAF and SVM-ASAF perform comparably to each other

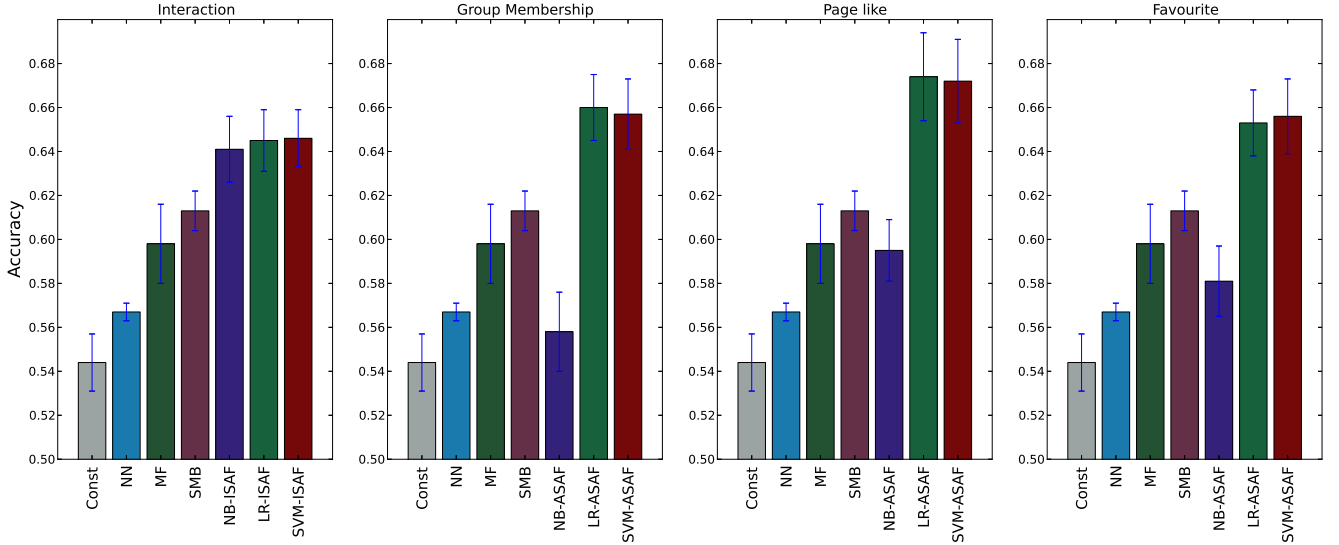


Figure 2: Comparison of a simple baseline (Const), two collaborative filtering baselines (NN and MF), a social collaborative filtering baseline (SMB) and novel SAF recommenders using different feature sets (one ISAF and three ASAF sets) and classifiers (NB, LR, SVM). The best SAF-based model (LR-ASAF) — for Page likes — significantly outperforms all baselines by at least 6%. Combining all four feature sets (not shown) does not lead to improvement over Page likes features alone.

and learn quite well despite the large size of this ASAF feature set. Overall, *LR-ASAF performs 6% better than the best baseline for page likes*. We combined all four features sets in a fifth experiment (not shown) and remark that it performed indistinguishably from LR-ASAF over page likes as shown. Hence, page likes would be the most informative feature set to collect if one wanted to minimise the permissions that an App was requesting. On the other hand, we note that even if only ISAF features were available, the performance of all ISAF variants is still sufficient to statistically significantly outperform all (social) collaborative filtering baselines.

It is important to consider why ASAF outperforms ISAF. We conjecture the reasons for this are quite simple: ISAFs can only evaluate the *friends* of user  $u$  whereas ASAFs are able to look at all users, independent of  $u$ 's friends. Hence, given the relative sparsity of friend-only data in Facebook compared to the greater Facebook population (at least the population that the App collected) and also the relative number of interaction SAGs compared to activity SAGs, ASAFs appear to draw on a much larger set of SAGs that in turn draw on a much larger user population. Among ASAF activities, page likes are the most predictive followed by group membership and favourites. This reinforces our conjecture that data sparsity can hurt SAF since we note from Table 3 that page likes are more prevalent than groups and favourites.

Comparing SAF to the state-of-the-art in social collaborative filtering as represented by Social Matchbox (SMB) [23], we observe that SAF consistently outperforms it. We note that the key difference of SAF vs. SMB is that SAF exploits the predictiveness of fine-grained interactions and activities

— it breaks them down into small subgroups, whereas most SCF approaches [9, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 34] instead collapse the diverse set of interactions into aggregate statistics such as the number of interactions between user  $u_1$  and user  $u_2$ , regardless of whether  $u_1$  tagged  $u_2$  in a photo or  $u_1$  liked a photo on  $u_2$ 's wall. Clearly there is a great deal of benefit to be derived from these fine-grained interactions and it suggests that one might rethink existing social collaborative filtering approaches that do aggregate interaction and activity information into aggregate statistics.

On two final notes, we remark that SAF yields a computational and optimization advantage over (social) collaborative filtering in that it is straightforward and efficient to find a globally optimal classifier with respect to certain training criteria (e.g., optimising log loss in logistic regression or hinge loss in SVMs) unlike (social) collaborative filtering approaches that generally rely on computationally expensive nearest neighbor or matrix factorization techniques that lack training optimality guarantees. Further, we also note quite surprisingly that SAF inherently scales to a large number of users and generalizes to completely new users without suffering from the cold-start problem: this is simply because nothing SAF learns is user-dependent, it learns to weight SAGs independent of any particular user.

Given the clearly demonstrated benefits of SAF, we now proceed in the next two sections to analyse the two primary types of SAG features (interactions and activities) to better understand characteristics of both informative and uninformative SAGs in each context and the social phenomena that may be responsible for these characteristics.

Table 5: Conditional entropy of various interactions (lower conditional entropies are more informative).

Modality ( $X$ )	$H(Y X = \text{true})$
video	0.850
link	0.915
post	0.918
photo	0.926

Action Type ( $X$ )	$H(Y X = \text{true})$
tags	0.920
comments	0.921
likes	0.924

Direction ( $X$ )	$H(Y X = \text{true})$
outgoing	0.928
incoming	0.935

Modality-Direction ( $X$ )	$H(Y X = \text{true})$
tags-outgoing	0.885
likes-outgoing	0.885
tags-incoming	0.900
likes-incoming	0.902
comments-outgoing	0.908
comments-incoming	0.912

Action-Direction ( $X$ )	$H(Y X = \text{true})$
photo-outgoing	0.857
video-outgoing	0.863
link-outgoing	0.895
link-incoming	0.896
post-incoming	0.902
post-outgoing	0.906
video-incoming	0.915
photo-incoming	0.921

### 3.3 Interaction Analysis

In this section we analyze the informativeness of Interaction SAGs, namely user interactions according to their modality, type, and direction, as described in Section 2.

A general method for measuring the amount of information that a feature  $X$  provides w.r.t. predicting another variable  $Y$  (in this case likes or dislikes) is to calculate its conditional entropy:

$$H(Y|X = \text{True}) = - \sum_{y \in (\text{likes}, \text{dislike})} p(y|X = \text{true}) \ln(p(y|X = \text{true}))$$

In general, a lower conditional entropy indicates a more informative feature. Here we use entropy conditioned on sparse features  $X = \text{True}$  instead of just  $H(Y | X)$  or mutual information  $I(Y; X)$ , as we found that the alternatives are highly correlated with (or dominated by) the number of occurrences of the feature (or  $P(X = \text{True})$ ), and give trivial results.

First we analyze various interactions individually and jointly to understand what interactions define SAGs with a high social affinity for a user  $u$ 's preferences. To this end, we make a few observations from the conditional entropy analysis of

Table 5:

- Interaction on *videos* seem to have a stronger preferential affinity than other modalities such as links, posts and photos. This could be due to the fact that video viewing is time-consuming and users inherently only watch the videos of those whose preferences they often share.
- Tagging has a slightly lower conditional entropy than commenting and liking, likely because the majority of tags contains person name(s) on Facebook, indicating a direct social interaction.
- A user is more likely to share preferences with someone who she initiates the interaction with (outgoing) vs. with someone who initiates the interaction with her (incoming). As an extreme instance of this, we note that while outgoing photo and video interactions are most informative, it appears that incoming photo and video interactions are least informative.

In figure 3 we plot conditional entropy of modality and action for incoming/outgoing interactions constrained to links liked by at least  $k$  friends in the SAG. Figure 3 reiterates many observations made above for various  $k$ . In addition, we note that preference affinity with a SAG increases as more people in the SAG like the item — then the more likely a user is to like an item. While incoming interactions were not as predictive as outgoing interactions for the same  $k$ , we note that higher  $k$  for an incoming interaction can be more predictive than lower  $k$  for an outgoing interaction. Note that these graphs are cumulative in  $k$ , different from the exposure curve on exactly  $k$  friends [27]. Our observations on user preference on items like by a number of Facebook friends suggest large cumulative number of friend interactions is more predictive — this can be translated into recommender system design. Further investigation is needed to pinpoint whether or not there is diminishing returns on repeated exposures [31, 27] on  $k$ , and how this could be leveraged to design recommendation algorithms.

### 3.4 Activity Analysis

We analyze the informativeness of Activity SAGs by looking at the correlation between the size and type of groups, pages and favourites.

Fig 4 shows the relationship between conditional entropy and logistic regression weights versus the size of activity groups. Here the size of a *group*, *page* and *favorite* is the number of total users in the activity group. For *Pages* and *Favorites* this is the total number of Facebook users, whether or not they are in the App users' ego network, while for *Groups* only the number of users in the App users' ego network is visible to our app. Both scatter plots shows that the activity groups of small size can be highly predictive (low conditional entropy or weights that deviate extremely from zero) whereas large groups are rarely predictive.



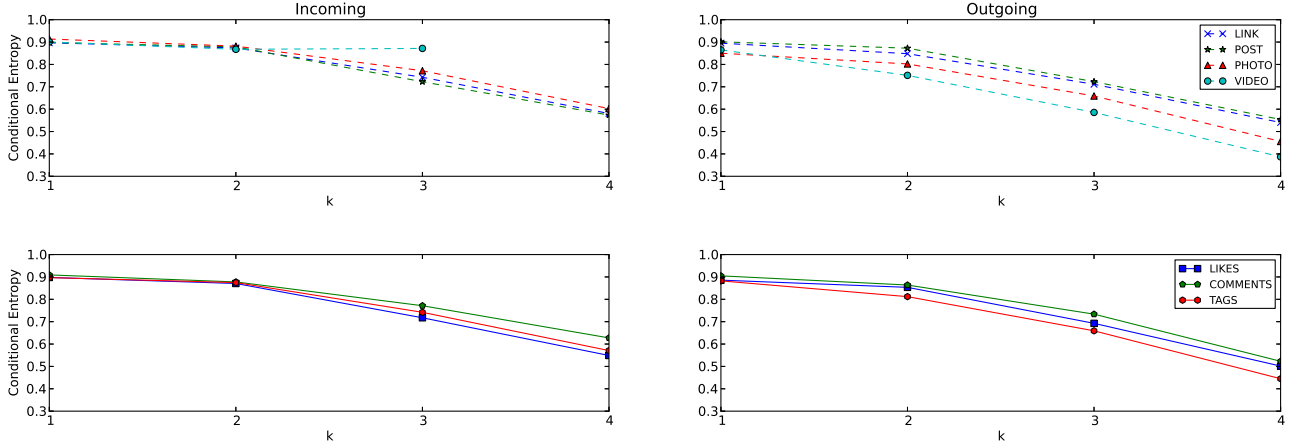


Figure 3: Conditional Entropy of modalities/activities for incoming/outgoing interactions vs item liked by at least k friends

In Fig 5 we plot the average conditional entropy of the top 10% of features cumulative up to the size of the activity group given on the x-axis; this allows us to determine the marginal contribution of larger groups to the average conditional entropy as larger groups are incrementally added in. This graph distinctly shows that the small sizes of groups, pages and favourites have low average conditional entropy that transitions sharply to a higher average once a size threshold has been met. From Fig 5 we can infer that the group sizes up to 50 and page/favourite sizes up to  $10^5$  are most predictive.

We also analyze predictiveness of favourites by categories in Fig 6, where the favorite categories are obtained from Facebook API. We can see that contents in the “long-tail”, i.e., having a large number of occurrences far from the most popular choices, tend to have the most predictive affinities. Examples of these include music, books, movies. On the contrary, generic affinities (e.g. interests) and those with a smaller number of choices (e.g. sports or fav-teams) tend to be less predictive.

#### 4. RELATED WORK

This work relates to many others in inferring user preferences on social and information networks. We structure the discussion into three parts: the first is concerned with the nature and observations on user traits, interactions and diffusion mechanisms; the second is concerned with correlating these user traits and interactions to user preferences and interests; the third is concerned with methods that use these observations for predicting user interest or recommending content on social networks.

The first group of related work studies the nature of user profile, interactions, and diffusion. Profile information and demographics is correlated with user behavior patterns. Chang et al.[8] showed that the tendency to initiate a Facebook friendship differs quite widely across ethnic groups, while

Backstrom et al.[3] have additionally showed that female and male users have opposite tendencies for dispersing attention for within-gender and across-gender communication. Two particular measurement studies on Facebook attention [33, 3] have inspired our work. Although the average number of friends for a Facebook user is close to the human psychological limit, known as the Dunbar number [14], the findings concur that a user’s attention (i.e., interactions) are divided among a much smaller subset of Facebook friends. [3] studied two types of attention: communication interaction and viewing attention (e.g. looking at profiles or photos). Users’ communication attention is focused on small numbers of friends, but viewing attention is dispersed across all friends. This finding supports our approach of looking at many types of user interactions across all of a user’s contact network, as a user’s interest is driven by where he or she focuses attention on.

The mechanisms of diffusion invites interesting mathematical and empirical investigations. The Galton-Watson epidemics model suits the basic setup of social message diffusion, and can explain real-world information cascade such as email chain-letters when adjusted with selection bias [12]. For social diffusions in a one-to-many setting, however, the epidemics model has been less accurate. Ver Steeg et al. [31] found that online message cascades (on Digg social reader) are often smaller than prescribed by the epidemics model, seemingly due to the diminishing returns of repeated exposure. Romero et al. [27], in an independent study, confirmed the effect of diminishing returns with Twitter hashtag cascades, and further found that cascade dynamics differ across broad topic categories such as politics, culture, or sports. Our observations on user preference on items like by a number of Facebook friends suggest large cumulative number of friend interactions is more predictive, further investigation is needed to pinpoint the effect of diminishing returns on repeated exposures.

The nature of social diffusion seem to be not only demo-



Top Groups	Top Pages	Top Favourites
Heavy Metal - (city name)	Avascular Necrosis	Avascular Necrosis
Stephen Conroy Should Not Filter Our Internet	Assidian	Tortured
Silicone Stripper	Tortured	Elysian
Hardcore dancing is not moshing	Elysian	Anno Domini
Metal bands come to (city name) cause I'm sick of...	Darker Half	Hellbringer
(city name) Rock Gigs	Johnny Roadkill	Johnny Roadkill
Let's Mosh - (city name) metal radio show - 2XX 9	Anno Domini	Darker Half
Bring Steel Panther to Australia	Billy Madison	Bane Of Isildur
(city name) Death/Heavy Metal Appreciation	Hellbringer	Katabasis
Robert The Bruce (Band)	Metalocalypse	Aeon of Horus

Table 6: Top 10 Groups/Pages/Favourites ranked by Conditional Entropy. The city name where our institution and many Facebook users resides is anonymized.

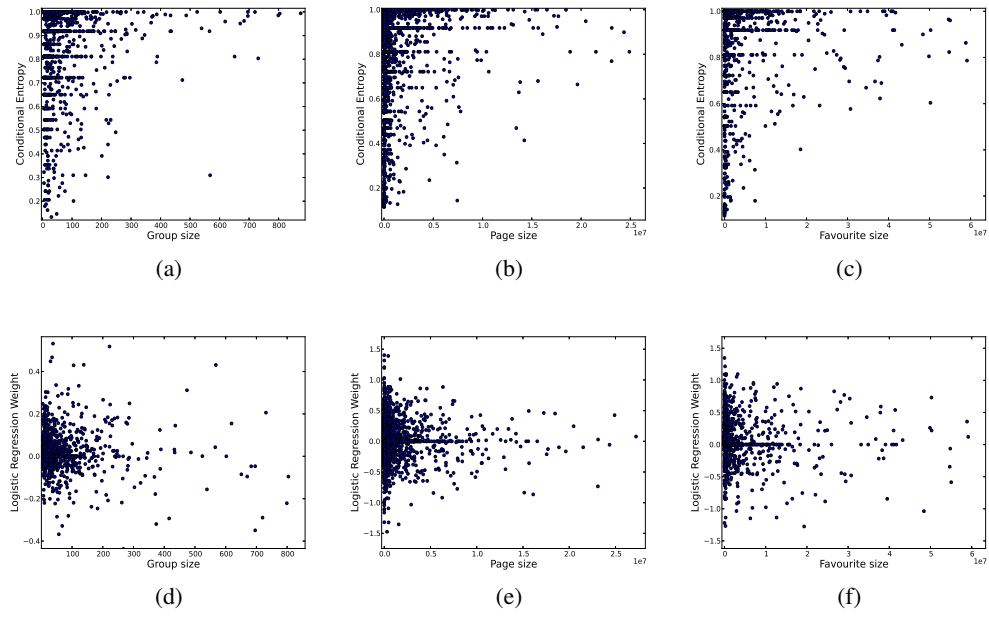


Figure 4: Conditional entropy vs size (a-c); logistic regression feature weights vs size (d-f)

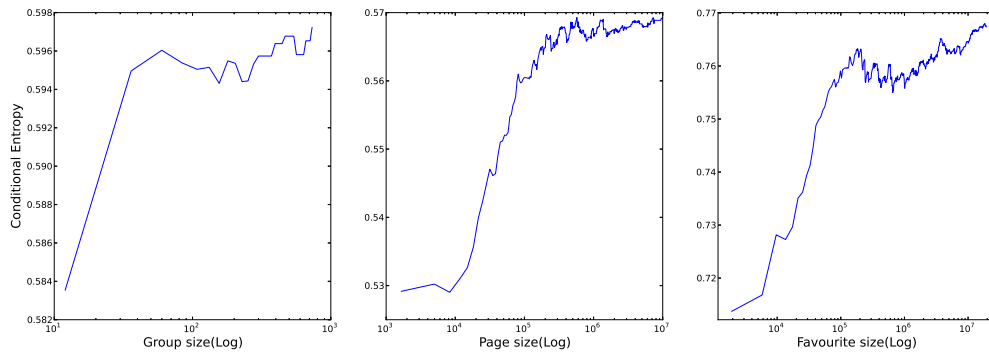


Figure 5: Average conditional entropy of top 10% groups, pages and favourites features cumulative over the size

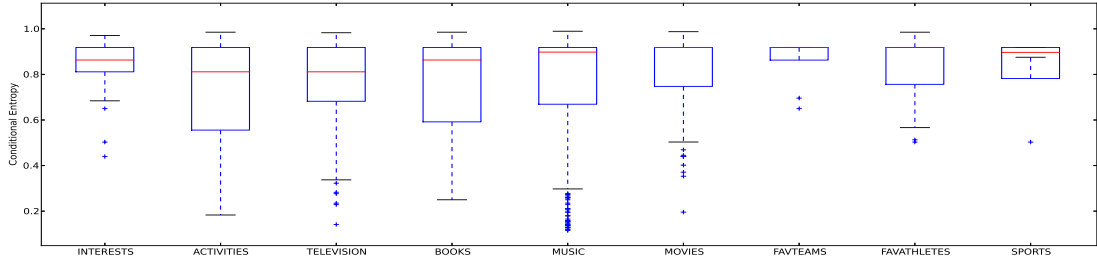


Figure 6: Conditional entropy for top 1000 favourites breakdown by categories

cratic [2, 4], but also broadening for users [5]. While influential users are important for cascade generation [4], large active groups of users are needed to contribute for the cascade to sustain [2]. Moreover, word-of-mouth diffusion can only be harnessed reliably by targeting large numbers of potential influencers, confirmed by observations on Twitter [4] and online ads [32]. In a study facilitated by A/B testing on Facebook links, [5] found that while people are more likely to share the information they were exposed to by their strong ties than by their weak ties, the bulk of information we consume and share comes from people with different perspectives (weak ties). Our Facebook App is intended to bridge this gap between insights from these observations and predicting user actions.

The second group of related work tries to correlate from user interactions to preferences and tie strength. Saez-Trumper et al [28] found that incoming and outgoing actives are highly correlated on broadcast platforms such as Facebook and Twitter, and such correlation does not hold in one-to-one mode of communication such as email. Multiple studies have found that online interactions tend to correlate more with interests than with user profile. Singla et al. [30] found that user who frequently interact (via MSN chat) tend to share (web search) interests. Anderson et al. [1] concluded that the level of user activities correlate with the positive ratings that they give each other, i.e., it is less about what they say (content of posts) but more about who they interacted with. Such findings echo those by Brandtzaag [7] that real-world interactions (e.g., appearing in the same photo) further strengthens friendship on Facebook, while virtual interactions reveal interests. Furthermore, ratings of real-world friendship strength and trust [10] seems to be better predicted from the intimacy, intensity, and duration of interactions, than from social distance and network structure. Our work is not only inspired by these observations, we also quantifying the strength of correlations of user interest with a large variety of user affinities – namely, activities, and group preferences in different categories.

The last group of related work is concerned with using social network and behavior information for recommendation. Matrix factorization is one of the prevailing approaches for recommender systems [17, 21]. Recent advances include ex-

tending matrix factorization to user social relation in regularization [22, 19], to take into account multiple relations [26, 16], and to model social context [15]. In particular, there are different designs for using social information to regularize objective functions [34], a trust ensemble [20], a low-rank factorization of the social interactions matrix [21], or social-spectral regularization that takes into account user and item features [23]. These systems have shown very promising performance across a range of problems, but their all collapse social affinity (fine-grained interactions and group affinity) into one or a very low-dimensional representation. The point of departure of this work is to explore the rich affinity structure, we compared a recent matrix factorization approach [23] and found SAF with simple classifiers outperform state-of-the-art.

Additional work on predicting user actions join multiple social networks, and explores logical representation of user actions. Nori et al. [24] examines the predictability of user actions on Twitter from actions in both Twitter and Del.icio.us. The study uses both linear regression and an bipartite graph model that outperformed state-of-the-art models. Gomes et al. [13] derived rules for Facebook interactions using a psychology-inspired formal symbolic language. Our affinity definition is based on direct interactions within a users’ ego network, this is complementary to a recent alternative [25] that uses number of paths between two users encodes the resilience of network structure, as it was recently found [11] that the vast majority of information diffusion happens within one step from the source node. These work are most closely related to ours, yet none has examined such a diverse set of user actions in the same context: one-on-one interactions (e.g. commenting), broadcast (e.g. posting, sharing), and co-preference (e.g. likes).

In summary, our study is motivated by overall utility of diverse and fine-grained user interactions. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first work that look at 10,000+ different types of social affinity. We show that rich affinity features outperform state-of-the-art recommendation approaches, and our observations confirm the effect of demising returns on repeated exposure, we observe that contents in the *long tail* tend to be more predictive, and quantified the correlation of a large variety of affinity traits with user preferences.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

We proposed Social Affinity Filtering (SAF) as a new method for social recommendation. We first defined social affinity groups (SAGs) of a target user by analysing their fine-grained interactions and activities. Then we learned which SAGs were most predictive of the target user's preferences leading to SAF. We evaluated the proposed algorithm on a dataset collected from a Facebook App we built, showing that SAF yields 6% absolute improvement in accuracy with respect to a state-of-the-art social recommendation engine. This is an important result given that SAF is built on standard supervised classification techniques unlike more complex matrix factorization approaches typically used in social collaborative filtering. Furthermore, we quantified the relative importance of interactions and activities for recommendation and we analysed what properties made some SAGs more predictive than others. Among many insights, our results show that video and photo interactions are more predictive than other modalities, and outgoing interactions are more predictive than incoming, and that smaller social groups are more predictive than larger ones. Future directions of research can investigate the nature of interactions by measuring the level of user engagement – e.g. if videos are inherently more engaging, or examine the nature of social groups via additional metrics – e.g. the social network within members of the group, or activity level of the group.

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