# Stanford CS224W: Recommender Systems: Task and Evaluation

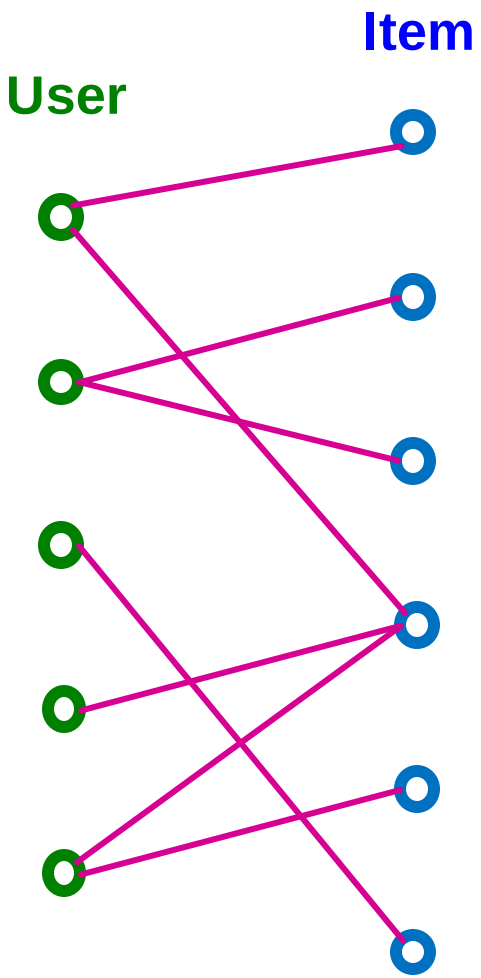
CS224W: Machine Learning with Graphs
Jure Leskovec, Stanford University
http://cs224w.stanford.edu

# Preliminary of Recommendation

- **Information Explosion in the era of Internet**
  - 10K+ movies in Netflix
  - 12M products in Amazon
  - 70M+ music tracks in Spotify
  - 10B+ videos on YouTube
  - 200B+ pins (images) in Pinterest
- **Personalized recommendation (i.e., suggesting a small number of interesting items for each user)** is critical for users to effectively explore the content of their interest.

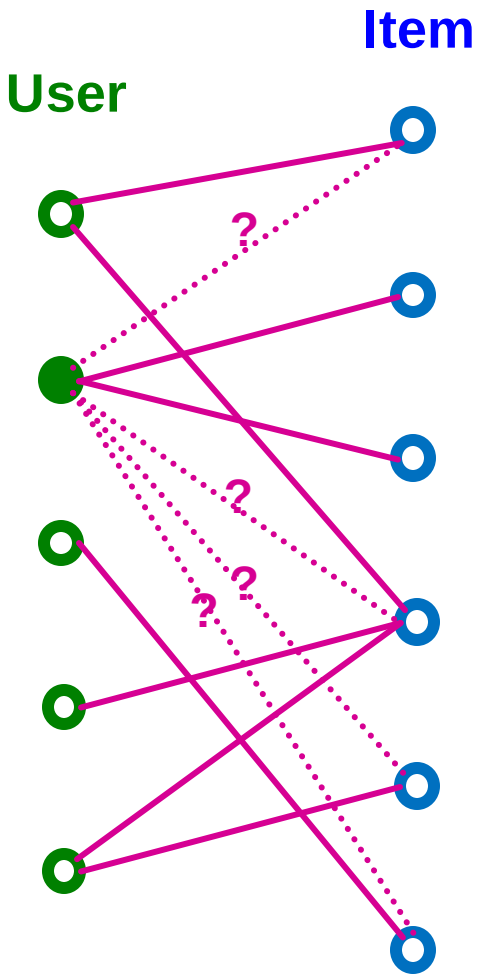
# Recommender System as a Graph

- Recommender system can be naturally modeled as a **bipartite graph**
  - A graph with two node types: **users** and **items**.
  - **Edges** connect users and items
    - Indicates user-item interaction (e.g., click, purchase, review etc.)
    - Often associated with timestamp (timing of the interaction).



# Recommendation Task

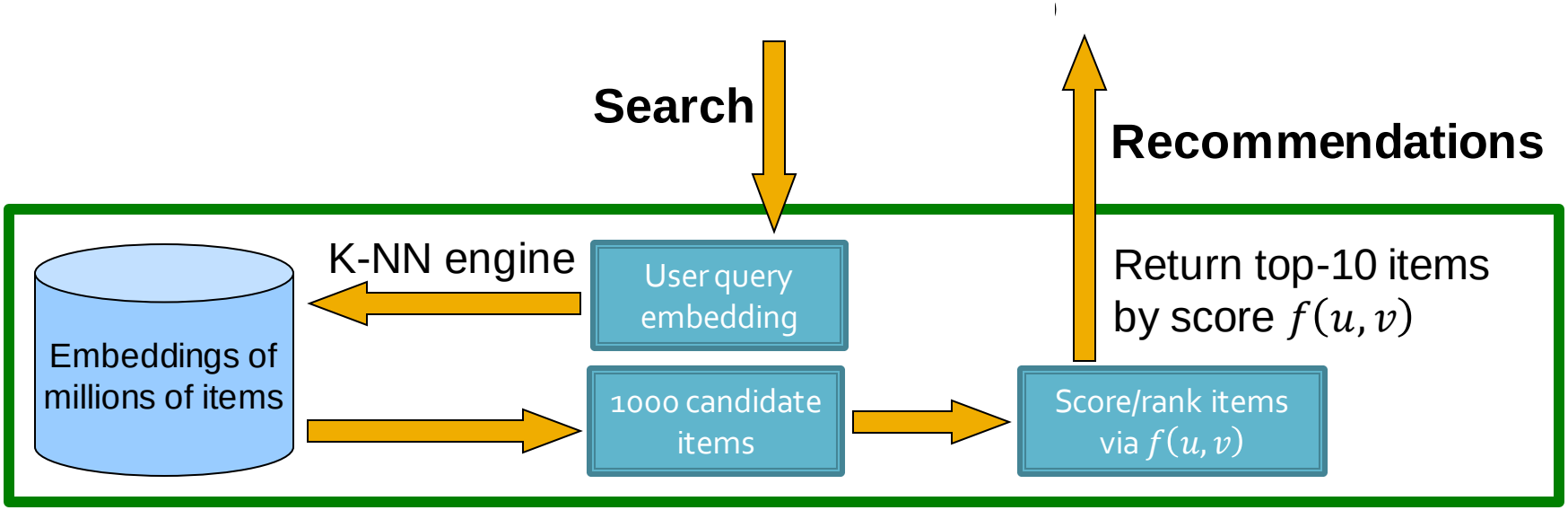
- **Given**
  - Past user-item interactions
- **Task**
  - Predict new items each user will interact in the future.
  - Can be cast as **link prediction** problem.
    - Predict new user-item interaction edges given the past edges.
  - For $u \in \boldsymbol{U}, v \in \boldsymbol{V}$, we need to get a real-valued **score** $f(u, v)$.



# Modern Recommender System

- **Problem:** Cannot evaluate $f(u, v)$ for every user $u$ – item $v$ pair.
- **Solution:** 2-stage process:
  - Candidate generation (cheap, fast)
  - Ranking (slow, accurate)

Example $f(u, v)$:
$f(u, v) = z_u \cdot z_v$

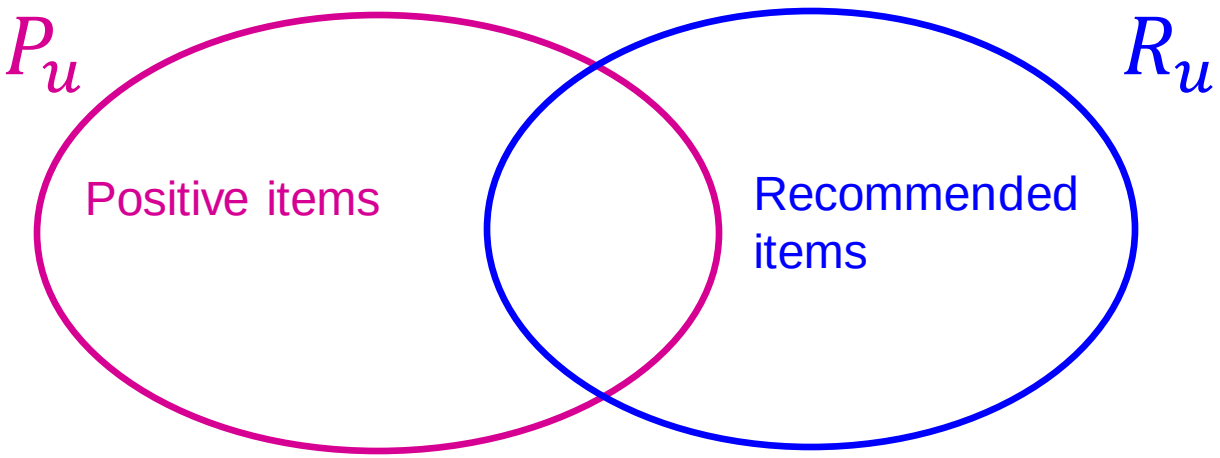


# Top-$K$ Recommendation

- For each user, we recommend $K$ items.
  - **For recommendation to be effective, $K$ needs to be much smaller than the total number of items (up to billions)**
  - $K$ is typically in the order of 10—100.
- The goal is to include as many **positive items** as possible in the top-$K$ recommended items.
  - **Positive items = Items that the user will interact with in the future.**
- **Evaluation metric**: Recall@$K$ (defined next)

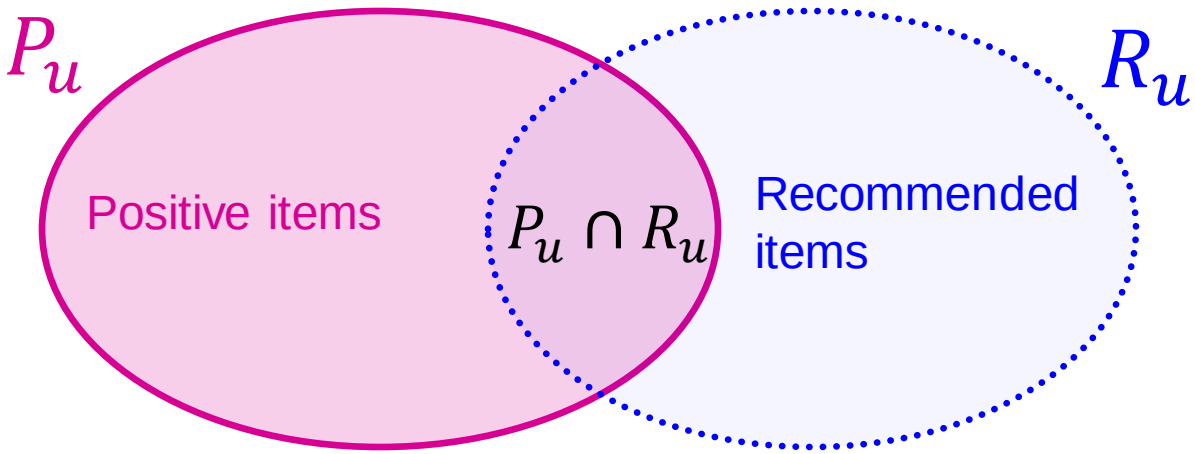
# Evaluation Metric: Recall@$K$ (1)

- **For each user $u$,**
  - Let $P_u$ be a set of positive items the user will interact in the future.
  - Let $R_u$ be a set of items recommended by the model.
    - In top-$K$ recommendation, $|R_u| = K$.
    - Items that the user has already interacted are excluded.



# Evaluation Metric: Recall@$K$ (2)

- **Recall@$K$ for user $u$ is $|P_u \cap R_u|/|P_u|$.**
  - Higher value indicates more positive items are recommended in top-$K$ for user $u$.




- The final Recall@$K$ is computed by averaging the recall values across all users.

# Stanford CS224W: Recommender Systems: Embedding-Based Models

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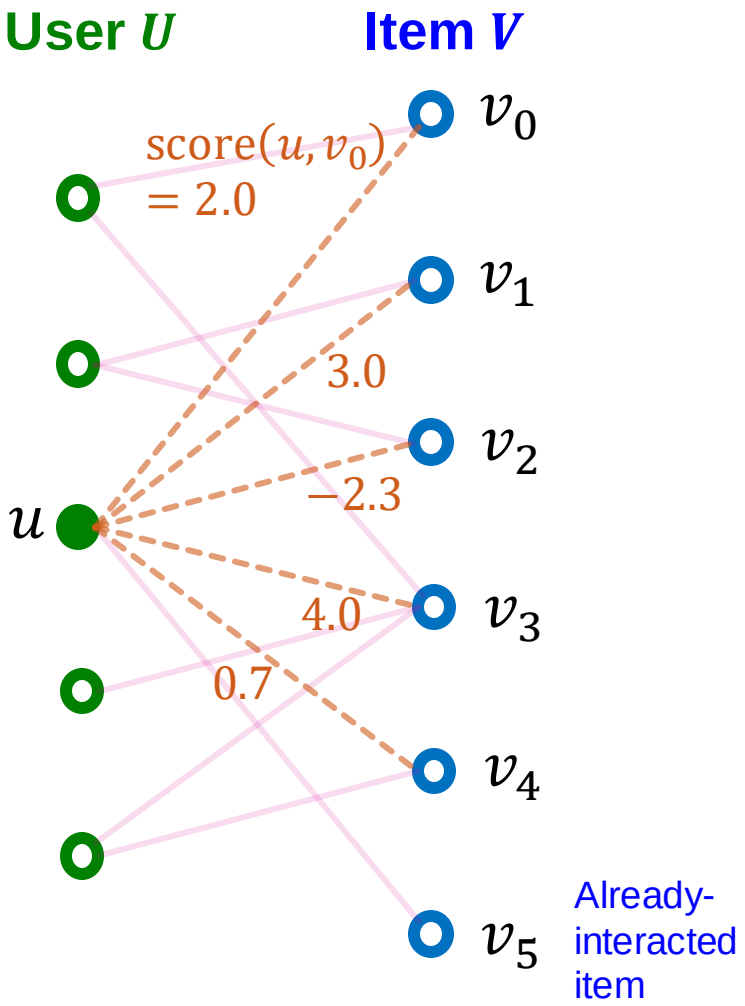
# Notation

- **Notation**:
  - $\boldsymbol{U}$: A set of all users
  - $\boldsymbol{V}$: A set of all items
  - $\boldsymbol{E}$: A set of observed user-item interactions
    - $\boldsymbol{E} = \{(u, v) \mid u \in \boldsymbol{U}, v \in \boldsymbol{V}, u \text{ interacted with } v\}$

# Score Function

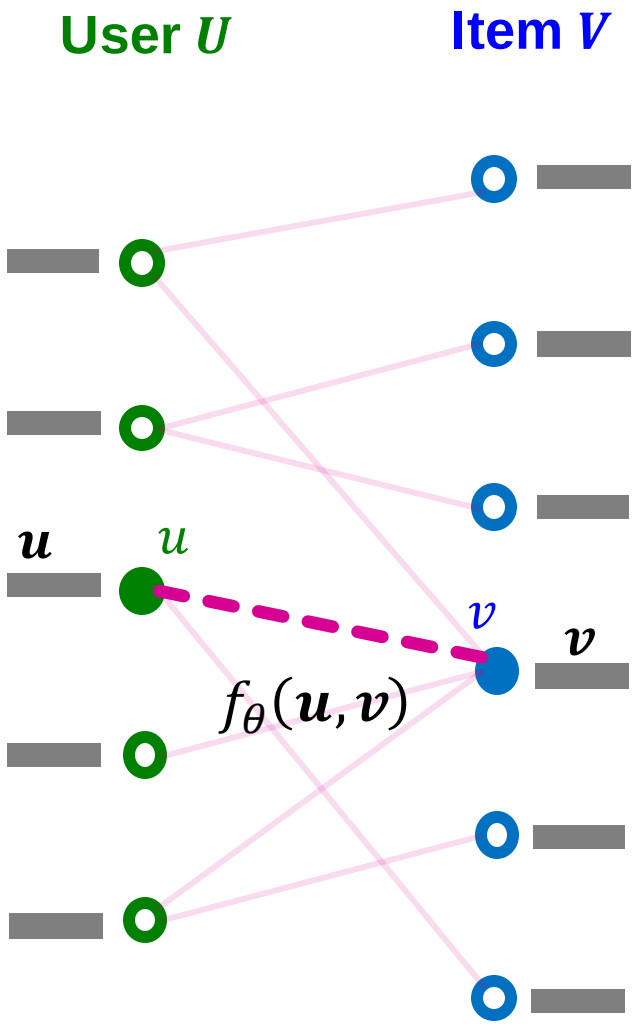
- To get the top-$K$ items, we need a score function for user-item interaction:
  - For $u \in \boldsymbol{U}, v \in \boldsymbol{V}$, we need to get a real-valued scalar **score**$(u, v)$.
  - ***K* items with the largest scores for a given user** $u$ (excluding already-interacted items) are then recommended.




For $K = 2$, recommended items for user $u$ would be $\{v_1, v_3\}$.

# Embedding-Based Models

- We consider **embedding-based models** for scoring user-item interactions.
  - For each user $u \in \boldsymbol{U}$, let $\boldsymbol{u} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ be its $D$-dimensional embedding.
  - For each item $v \in \boldsymbol{V}$, let $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ be its $D$-dimensional embedding.
  - Let $f_\theta(\cdot,\cdot): \mathbb{R}^D \times \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{R}$ be a parametrized function.
  - Then, $\text{score}(u, v) \equiv f_\theta(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$



# Training Objective

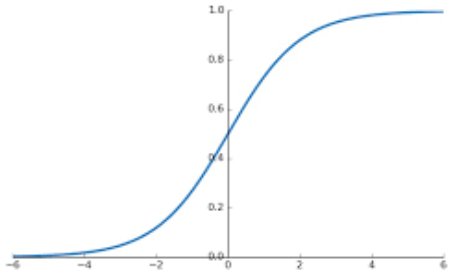
- Embedding-based models have three kinds of parameters:
  - An encoder to generate user embeddings $\{\boldsymbol{u}\}_{u \in U}$
  - An encoder to generate item embeddings $\{\boldsymbol{v}\}_{v \in V}$
  - Score function $f_\theta(\cdot, \cdot)$
- **Training objective**: Optimize the model parameters to achieve high recall@$K$ on *seen* (i.e., *training*) user-item interactions
  - We hope this objective would lead to high recall@$K$ on *unseen* (i.e., *test*) interactions.

# Surrogate Loss Functions

- The original training objective (recall@$K$) is ***not* differentiable**.
  - *Cannot* apply efficient gradient-based optimization.
- Two **surrogate loss functions** are widely-used to enable efficient gradient-based optimization.
  - Binary loss
  - Bayesian Personalized Ranking (BPR) loss
- Surrogate losses are **differentiable** and should **align well with the original training objective**.

# Binary Loss (1)

- Define **positive/negative edges**
  - A set of **positive edges** $\boldsymbol{E}$ (i.e., observed/training user-item interactions)
  - A set of **negative edges** $\boldsymbol{E_{\text{neg}}} = \{(u, v) \mid (u, v) \notin E, u \in \boldsymbol{U}, v \in \boldsymbol{V}\}$
- Define **sigmoid function** $\sigma(x) \equiv \frac{1}{1+\exp(-x)}$
  - Maps real-valued scores into binary likelihood scores, i.e., in the range of [0,1].



# Binary Loss (2)

- **Binary loss**: Binary classification of **positive**/**negative** edges using $\sigma(f_\theta(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}))$:

$$\underbrace{-\frac{1}{|\boldsymbol{E}|}\sum_{(u,v)\in \boldsymbol{E}} \log\left(\sigma(f_\theta(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}))\right)}_{} \underbrace{-\frac{1}{|\boldsymbol{E}_{\text{neg}}|}\sum_{(u,v)\in \boldsymbol{E}_{\text{neg}}} \log\left(1-\sigma(f_\theta(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}))\right)}_{}$$

During training, these terms can be approximated using mini-batch of positive/negative edges

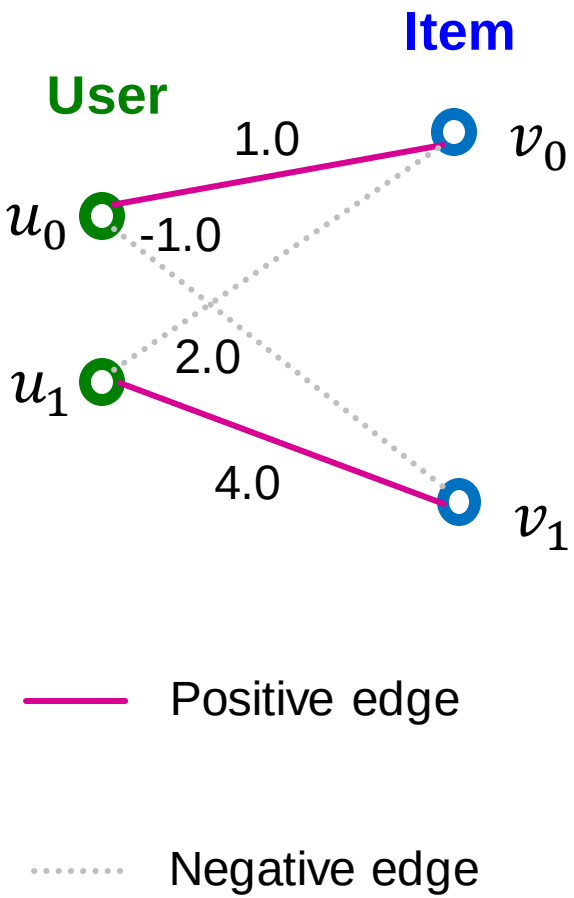
- Binary loss pushes the scores of **positive edges** higher than those of **negative edges**.
  - This aligns with the training recall metric since positive edges need to be recalled.

# Issue with Binary Loss (1)

- **Issue**: In the binary loss, the scores of ***ALL*** positive edges are pushed higher than those of ***ALL*** negative edges.
- This would unnecessarily penalize model predictions even if the training recall metric is perfect.
- **Why?** (example in the next slide)

# Issue with Binary Loss (2)

- **Let's consider the simplest case:**
  - Two users, two items
  - Metric: Recall@1.
  - A model assigns the score for every user-item pair (as shown in the right).
- Training **Recall@1 is 1.0** (perfect score), because $v_0$ (resp. $v_1$) is correctly recommended to $u_0$ (resp. $u_1$).
- However, **the binary loss would still penalize the model prediction** because the negative $(u_1, v_0)$ edge gets the higher score than the positive edge $(u_0, v_0)$.

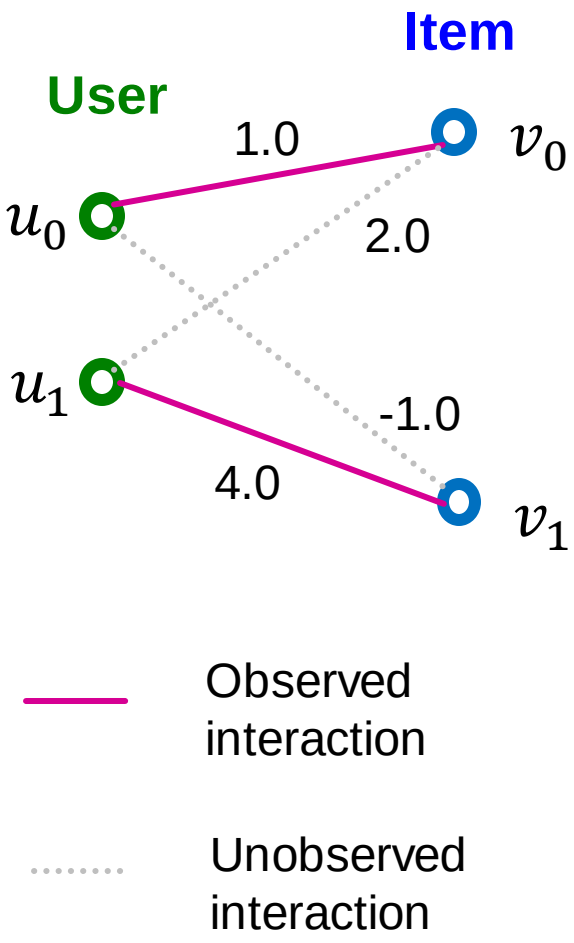


# Issue with Binary Loss (3)

- **Key insight**: The binary loss is **non-personalized** in the sense that the **positive/negative edges are considered *across ALL users at once*.**
- However, the recall metric is inherently **personalized (defined for each user)**.
  - The non-personalized binary loss is overly-stringent for the personalized recall metric.

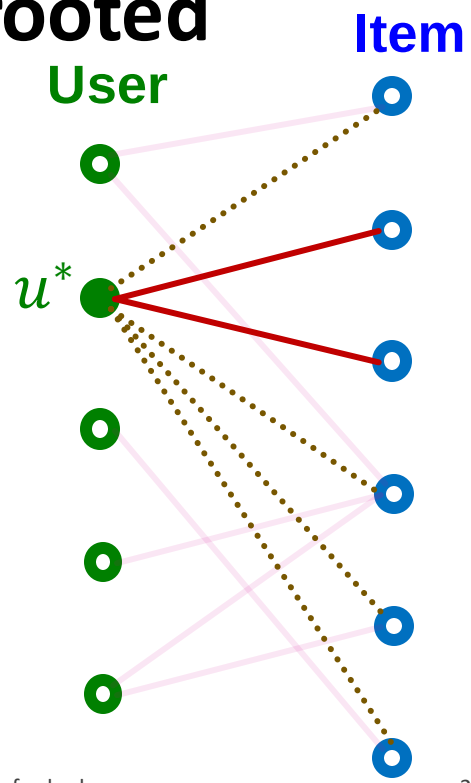
# Desirable Surrogate Loss

- **Lesson learned**: Surrogate loss function should be defined in a **personalized** manner.
  - **For each user**, we want the scores of positive items to be higher than those of the negative items
  - We do *not* care about the score ordering across users.
- **Bayesian Personalized Ranking (BPR)** loss achieves this!



# Loss Function: BPR Loss (1)

- **Bayesian Personalized Ranking (BPR) loss** is a personalized surrogate loss that aligns better with the recall@K metric.
- For each user $u^* \in \boldsymbol{U}$, define the **rooted positive/negative edges** as
  - Positive edges rooted at $u^*$
    - $\boldsymbol{E}(u^*) \equiv \{(u^*, v) \mid (u^*, v) \in \boldsymbol{E}\}$
  - Negative edges rooted at $u^*$
    - $\boldsymbol{E}_{\mathbf{neg}}(u^*) \equiv \{(u^*, v) \mid (u^*, v) \in \boldsymbol{E}_{\mathbf{neg}}\}$




Note: The term "Bayesian" is not essential to the loss definition. The original paper [Rendle et al. 2009] considers the Bayesian prior over parameters (essentially acts as a parameter regularization), which we omit here.

# Loss Function: BPR Loss (2)

- **Training objective**: **For each user** $u^*$, we want the scores of rooted positive edges $\boldsymbol{E}(u^*)$ to be higher than those of rooted negative edges $\boldsymbol{E}_{\mathbf{neg}}(u^*)$.
  - **Aligns with the personalized nature of the recall metric.**
- **BPR Loss for user $u^*$:**

**Encouraged to be positive for each user**
=positive edge score is higher than negative edge score

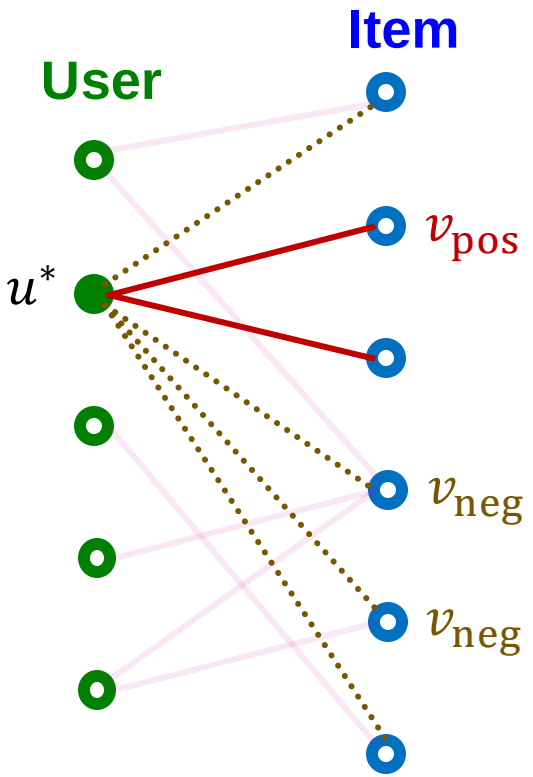
$$\text{Loss}(u^*) = \frac{1}{|E(u^*)| \cdot |\boldsymbol{E}_{\mathbf{neg}}(u^*)|} \underbrace{\sum_{(u^*, v_{\text{pos}}) \in \boldsymbol{E}(u^*)} \sum_{(u^*, v_{\text{neg}}) \in \boldsymbol{E}_{\mathbf{neg}}(u^*)} -\log\left(\sigma\left(f_\theta(\boldsymbol{u}^*, \boldsymbol{v}_{\text{pos}}) - f_\theta(\boldsymbol{u}^*, \boldsymbol{v}_{\text{neg}})\right)\right)}$$

Can be approximated using a mini-batch

- Final BPR Loss: $\frac{1}{|\boldsymbol{U}|} \sum_{u^* \in \boldsymbol{U}} \text{Loss}(u^*)$

# Loss Function: BPR Loss (3)

- **Mini-batch training for the BPR loss:**
  - In each mini-batch, we sample a subset of users $\boldsymbol{U}_{\text{mini}} \subset \boldsymbol{U}$.
    - For each user $u^* \in \boldsymbol{U}_{\text{mini}}$, we sample one positive item $v_{\text{pos}}$ and a set of sampled negative items $V_{\text{neg}} = \{v_{\text{neg}}\}$.
  - The mini-batch loss is computed as




$$\frac{1}{|\boldsymbol{U}_{\text{mini}}|} \sum_{u^* \in \boldsymbol{U}_{\text{mini}}} \frac{1}{|\boldsymbol{V}_{\text{neg}}|} \sum_{v_{\text{neg}} \in \boldsymbol{V}_{\text{neg}}} -\log\Big(\sigma\big(f_\theta(u^*, \boldsymbol{v}_{\text{pos}}) - f_\theta(u^*, \boldsymbol{v}_{\text{neg}})\big)\Big)$$

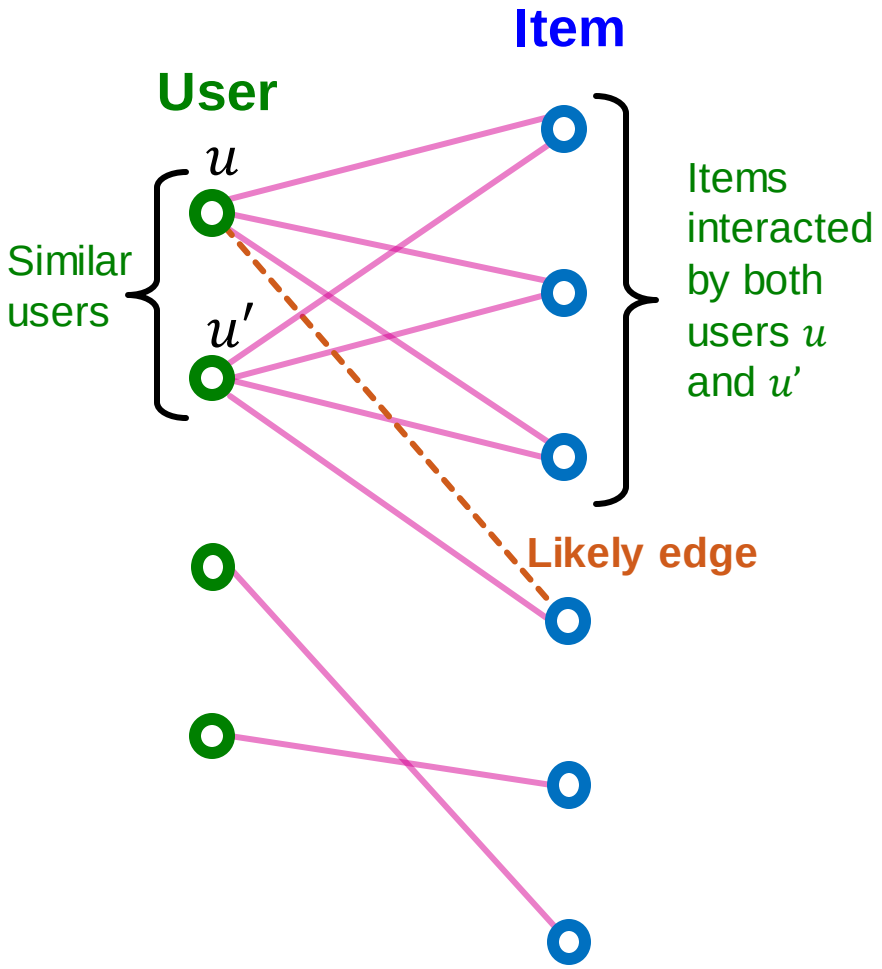
**Average over users in the mini-batch**

# Summary So Far

- **We have introduced**
  - Recall@$K$ as a metric for personalized recommendation
  - Embedding-based models
    - Three kinds of parameters to learn
      - **user encoder** to generate user embeddings
      - **item encoder** to generate item embeddings
      - **score function** to predict the user-item interaction likelihood.
  - Surrogate loss functions to achieve the high recall metric.
- Embedding-based models have achieved SoTA in recommender systems.
  - **Why do they work so well?**

# Why Embedding Models Work?

- **Underlying idea: Collaborative filtering**
  - Recommend items for a user by **collecting preferences of many other similar users.**
  - **Similar users tend to prefer similar items.**
- **Key question: How to capture similarity between users/items?**



# Why Embedding Models Work?

- Embedding-based models can capture similarity of users/items!
  - **Low-dimensional embeddings *cannot* simply memorize all user-item interaction data.**
  - Embeddings are forced to **capture similarity between users/items to fit the data.**
  - This allows the models to make effective prediction on *unseen* user-item interactions.

# This Lecture: GNNs for Recsys

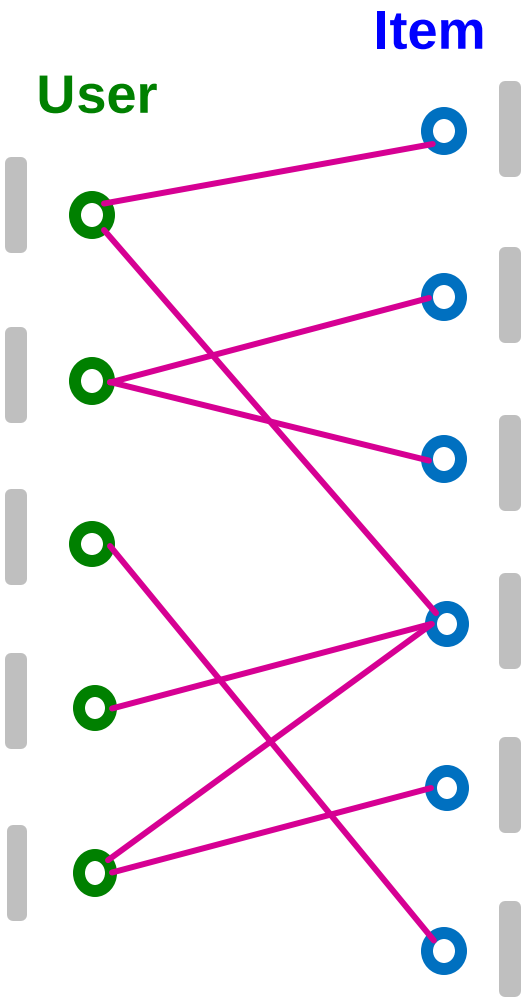
- **In this lecture, we teach two representative GNN approaches for recommender systems.**
- **(1) Neural Graph Collab. Filtering (NGCF)** [Wang et al. 2019]
- **(2) LightGCN** [He et al. 2020]
  - Improve the conventional collaborative filtering models (i.e., shallow encoders) by explicitly modeling graph structure using GNNs.
  - Assumes no user/item features.
- **PinSAGE** [Ying et al. 2018]
  - Use GNNs to generate high-quality embeddings by simultaneously capturing rich node attributes (e.g., images) and the graph structure.

# Stanford CS224W: Neural Graph Collaborative Filtering

CS224W: Machine Learning with Graphs
Jure Leskovec, Stanford University
http://cs224w.stanford.edu

# Conventional Collaborative Filtering

- Conventional collaborative filtering model is based on **shallow encoders**:
  - No user/item features.
  - Use shallow encoders for users and items:
    - For every $u \in \boldsymbol{U}$ and $v \in \boldsymbol{V}$, we prepare shallow learnable embeddings $\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v} \in \mathbb{R}^D$.
  - Score function for user $u$ and item $v$ is $f_\theta(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}) \equiv \boldsymbol{z_u}^T \boldsymbol{z_v}$.




Learnable shallow user/item embeddings

# Limitations of Shallow Encoders

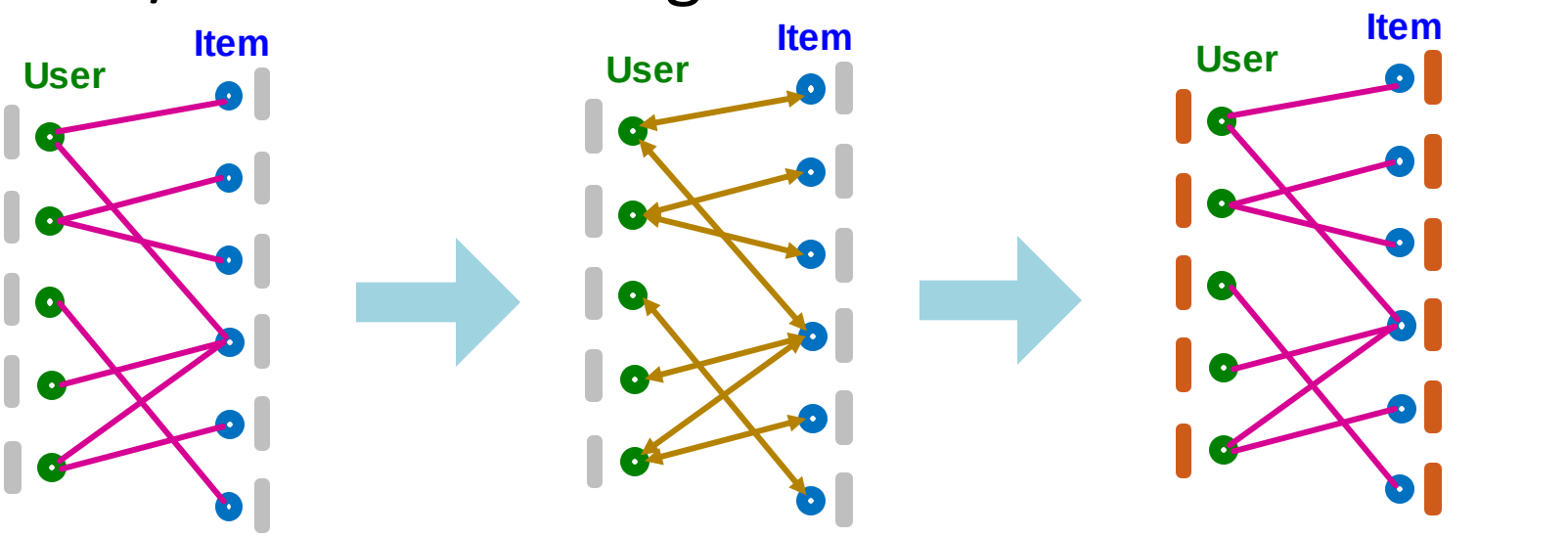
- The model itself does ***not explicitly*** capture graph structure
  - The graph structure is ***only implicitly*** captured in the training objective.
- Only the **first-order graph structure** (i.e., edges) is captured in the training objective.
  - **High-order graph structure** (e.g., $K$-hop paths between two nodes) is ***not*** **explicitly captured.**

# Motivation

- We want a model that…
  - **explicitly captures graph structure** (beyond implicitly through the training objective)
  - captures **high-order graph structure** (beyond the first-order edge connectivity structure)
- **GNNs are a natural approach to achieve both!**
  - **Neural Graph Collaborative Filtering** (NGCF) [Wang et al. 2019]
  - **LightGCN** [He et al. 2020]
    - A simplified and improved version of NGCF

# NGCF: Overview

- **Neural Graph Collaborative Filtering (NGCF)** ***explicitly*** incorporates high-order graph structure when generating user/item embeddings.
- **Key idea**: Use a GNN to generate graph-aware user/item embeddings.



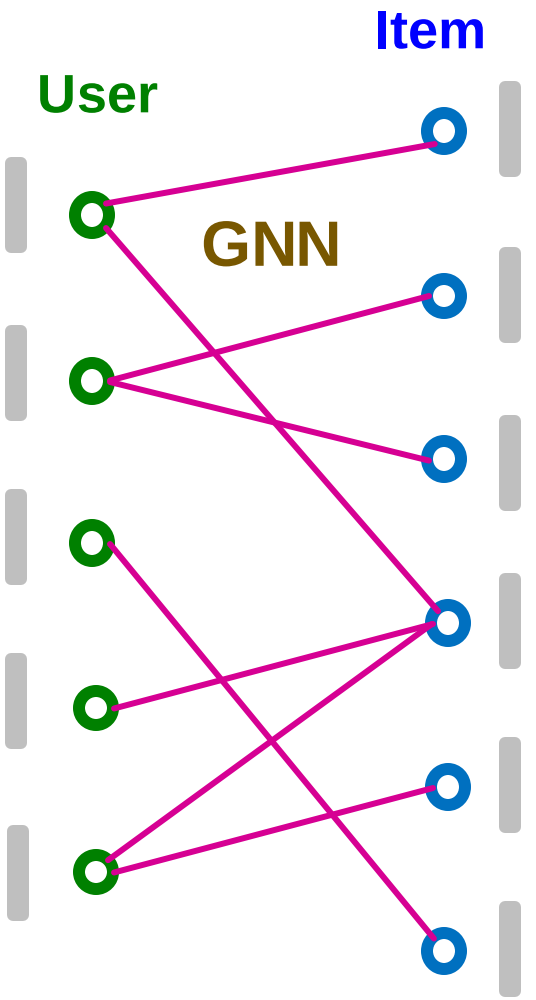

Initial shallow embeddings (not graph-aware)

**Use a GNN to propagate embeddings**

**NGCF's graph-aware embeddings**

# NGCF Framework

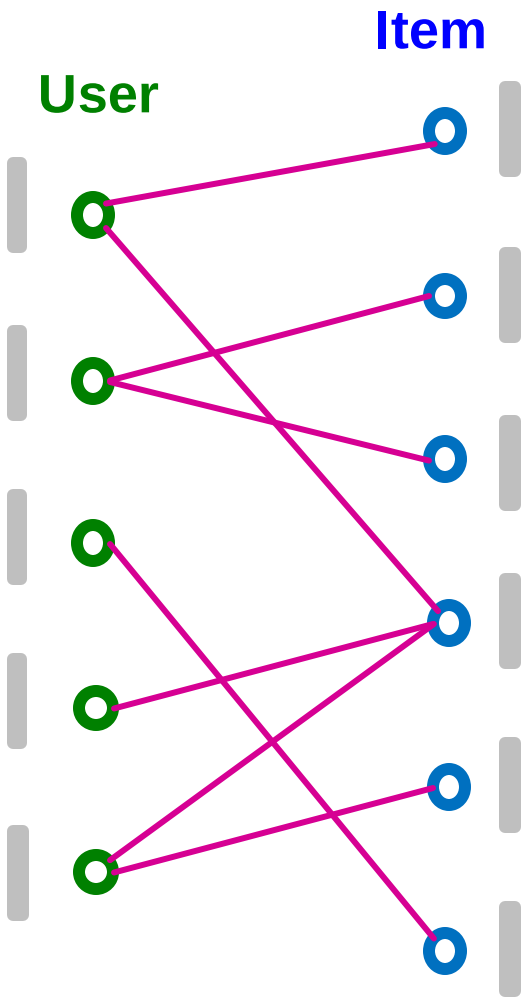
- **Given**: User-item bipartite graph.
- **NGCF framework:**
  - Prepare shallow learnable embedding for each node.
  - Use multi-layer GNNs to propagate embeddings along the bipartite graph.
    - High-order graph structure is captured.
  - Final embeddings are *explicitly* graph-aware!
- **Two kinds of learnable params are jointly learned:**
  - Shallow user/item embeddings
  - GNN's parameters




Shallow user/item embeddings (learnable)

# Initial Node Embeddings

- Set the shallow learnable embeddings as the initial node features:
  - For every user $u \in \boldsymbol{U}$, set $\boldsymbol{h}_u^{(0)}$ as the user's shallow embedding.
  - For every item $v \in \boldsymbol{V}$, set $\boldsymbol{h}_v^{(0)}$ as the item's shallow embedding.




Learnable shallow user/item embeddings

# Neighbor Aggregation

- Iteratively update node embeddings using neighboring embeddings.

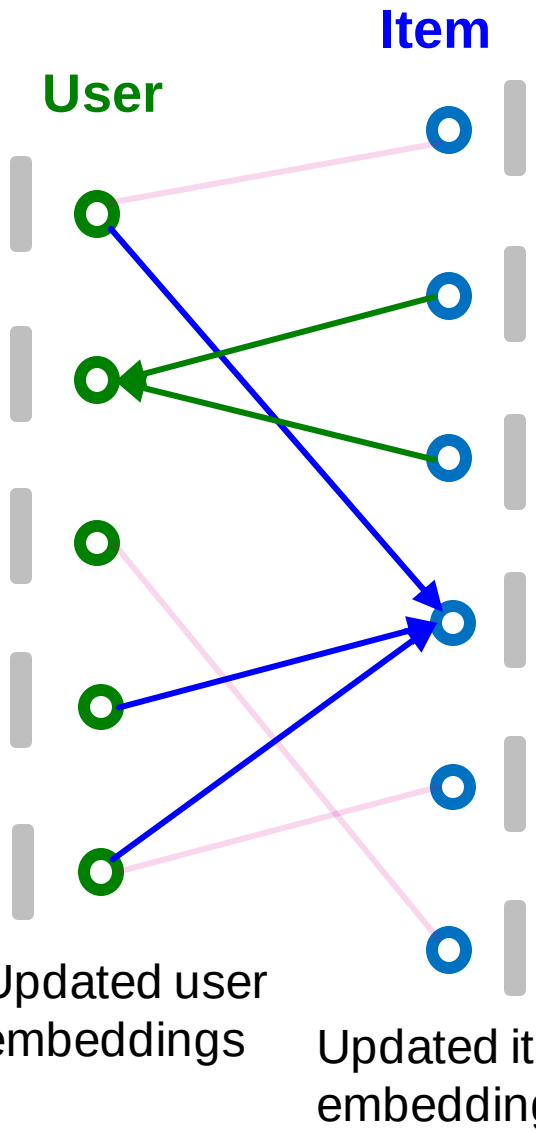
$$\boldsymbol{h}_v^{(k+1)} = \text{COMBINE}\left(\boldsymbol{h}_v^{(k)}, \text{AGGR}\left(\left\{\boldsymbol{h}_u^{(k)}\right\}_{u \in N(v)}\right)\right)$$

$$\boldsymbol{h}_u^{(k+1)} = \text{COMBINE}\left(\boldsymbol{h}_u^{(k)}, \text{AGGR}\left(\left\{\boldsymbol{h}_v^{(k)}\right\}_{v \in N(u)}\right)\right)$$

**High-order graph structure is captured through iterative neighbor aggregation.**

Different architecture choices are possible for AGGR and COMBINE.

- $\text{AGGR}(\cdot)$ can be $\text{MEAN}(\cdot)$
- $\text{COMBINE}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ can be $\text{ReLU}(\text{Linear}(\text{Concat}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})))$



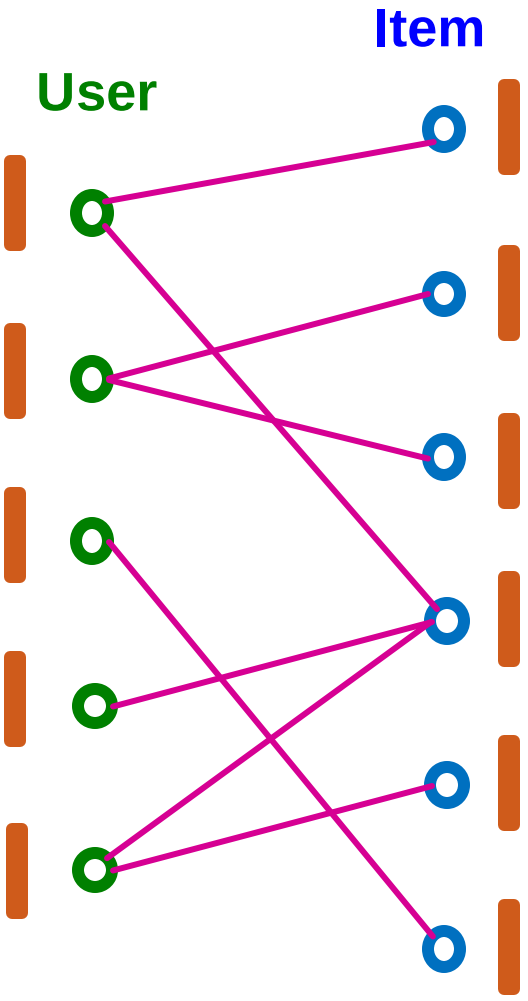
# Final Embeddings and Score Function

- After $K$ rounds of neighbor aggregation, we get the **final user/item embeddings** $\boldsymbol{h}_u^{(K)}$ and $\boldsymbol{h}_v^{(K)}$.
- For all $u \in \boldsymbol{U}, v \in \boldsymbol{V}$, we set

$$\boldsymbol{u} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{h}_u^{(K)}, \boldsymbol{v} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{h}_v^{(K)}.$$

- Score function is the inner product

$$\text{score}(u, v) = \boldsymbol{u}^T \boldsymbol{v}$$




**Final user/item embeddings (graph-aware)**

# NGCF: Summary

- Conventional collaborative filtering uses shallow user/item embeddings.
  - The embeddings do ***not explicitly*** **model graph structure**.
  - The training objective **does not model high-order graph structure.**
- **NGCF uses a GNN to propagate the shallow embeddings.**
  - The embeddings are **explicitly aware of high-order graph structure.**

# Stanford CS224W: LightGCN

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# LightGCN: Motivation (1)

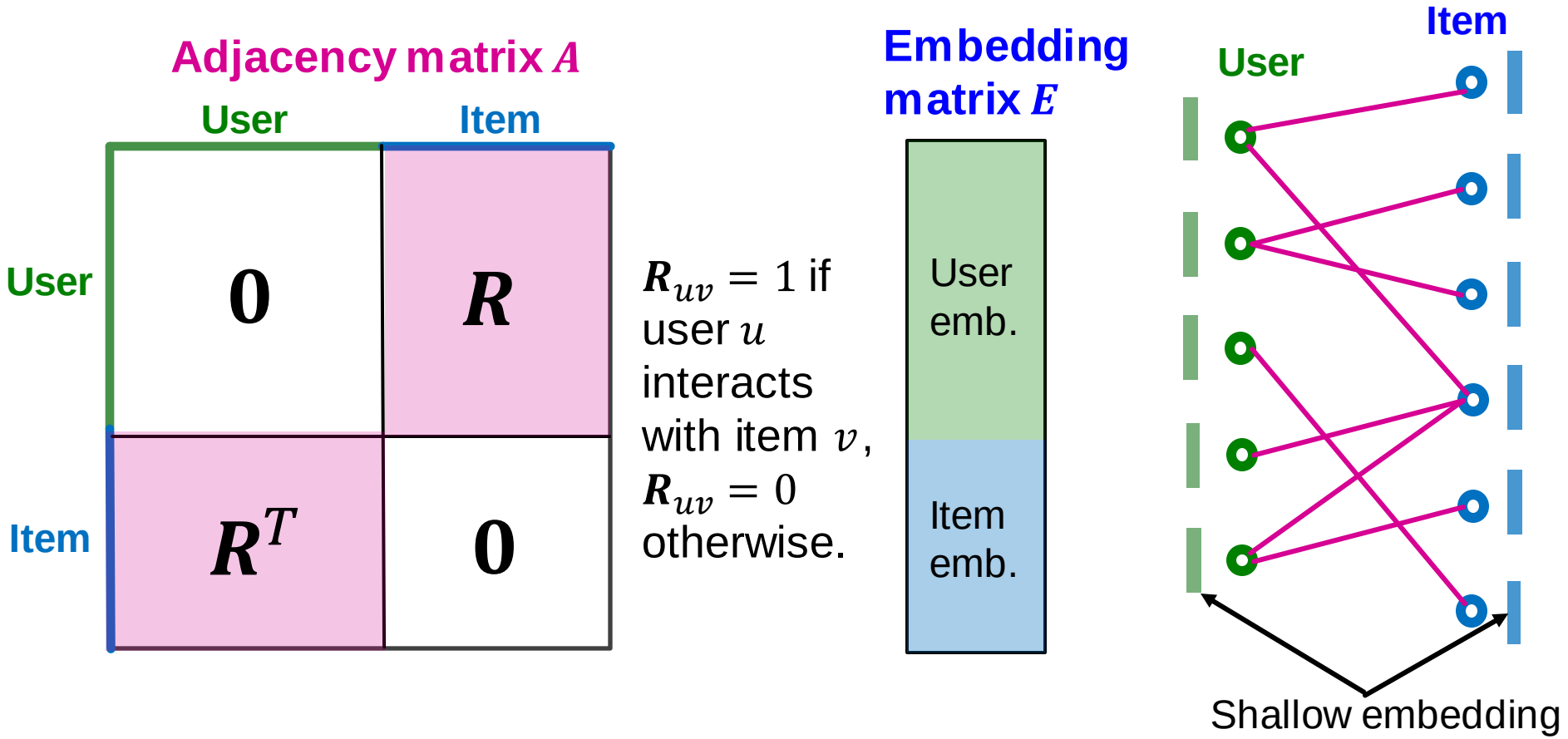
- **Recall**: NGCF jointly learns two kinds of parameters:
  - Shallow user/item embeddings
  - GNN's parameters
- **Observation**: Shallow learnable embeddings are already quite expressive.
  - They are learned for every (user/item) node.
  - Most of the parameter counts are in shallow embeddings when $N$ (#nodes) $\gg$ $D$ (embedding dimensionality)
    - Shallow embeddings: $O(ND)$.
    - GNN: $O(D^2)$.
  - The GNN parameters may not be so essential for performance.

# LightGCN: Motivation (2)

- Can we simplify the GNN used in NGCF (e.g., remove its learnable parameters)?
  - **Answer**: Yes!
  - **Bonus**: Simplification improves the recommendation performance!
- **Overview of the idea:**
  - Adjacency matrix for a bipartite graph
  - Matrix formulation of GCN
  - Simplification of GCN by removing non-linearity
    - Related: SGC for scalable GNN [Wu et al. 2019]

# Adjacency and Embedding Matrices

- **Adjacency matrix** of a (undirected) bipartite graph.
- **Shallow embedding matrix**.



# Matrix Formulation of GCN

- **Recall**: The diffusion matrix of C&S.
- Let $\boldsymbol{D}$ be the degree matrix of $\boldsymbol{A}$.
- Define the normalized adjacency matrix $\tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}$ as

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{A}} \equiv \boldsymbol{D}^{-1/2}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{D}^{-1/2}$$

**Note**: Different from the original GCN, self-connection is omitted here.

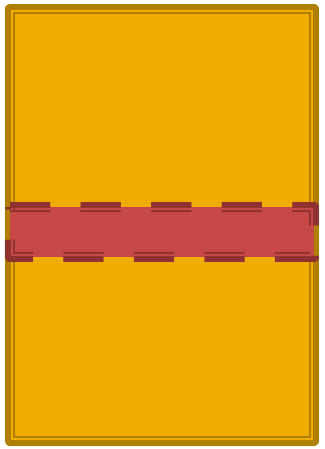
- Let $\boldsymbol{E}^{(k)}$ be the embedding matrix at $k$-th layer.
- Each layer of GCN's aggregation can be written in a matrix form:

$$\boldsymbol{E}^{(k+1)} = \mathrm{ReLU}\left(\tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}\boldsymbol{E}^{(k)}\boldsymbol{W}^{(k)}\right)$$

Neighbor aggregation

Learnable linear transformation

Matrix of node embeddings $\boldsymbol{E}^{(k)}$



Each row stores node embedding

# Simplifying GCN (1)

- **Simplify GCN by removing ReLU non-linearity:**

$$\boldsymbol{E}^{(k+1)} = \tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}\boldsymbol{E}^{(k)}\boldsymbol{W}^{(k)}$$

**Original idea from SGC [Wu et al. 2019]**

- The final node embedding matrix is given as

$$\boldsymbol{E}^{(K)} = \tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}\,\boldsymbol{E}^{(K-1)}\boldsymbol{W}^{(K-1)}$$

$$= \tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}\left(\tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}\boldsymbol{E}^{(K-2)}\boldsymbol{W}^{(K-2)}\right)\boldsymbol{W}^{(K-1)}$$

$$= \tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}\left(\tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}\left(\cdots\left(\tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}\boldsymbol{E}^{(0)}\boldsymbol{W}^{(0)}\right)\cdots\right)\boldsymbol{W}^{(K-2)}\right)\boldsymbol{W}^{(K-1)}$$

Set $\boldsymbol{E}$ as input embedding $\boldsymbol{E}^{(0)}$

$$= \tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}^{K}\,\boldsymbol{E}\left(\boldsymbol{W}^{(0)}\cdots\boldsymbol{W}^{(K-1)}\right)$$

# Simplifying GCN (2)

- Removing ReLU significantly simplifies GCN!

$$\boldsymbol{E}^{(K)} = \boxed{\widetilde{\boldsymbol{A}}^{K}\ \boldsymbol{E}}\ \boldsymbol{W}$$

$$\boldsymbol{W} \equiv \boldsymbol{W}^{(0)} \ldots \boldsymbol{W}^{(K-1)}$$

**Diffusing node embeddings along the graph**
(similar to C&S that diffuses soft labels along the graph)

- **Algorithm**: Apply $\boldsymbol{E} \leftarrow \widetilde{\boldsymbol{A}}\ \boldsymbol{E}$ for $K$ times.
  - Each matrix multiplication diffuses the current embeddings to their one-hop neighbors.
  - **Note:** $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{A}}^{K}$ is dense and never gets materialized. Instead, the above iterative matrix-vector product is used to compute $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{A}}^{K}\ \boldsymbol{E}$.

# Multi-Scale Diffusion

- We can consider **multi-scale diffusion**

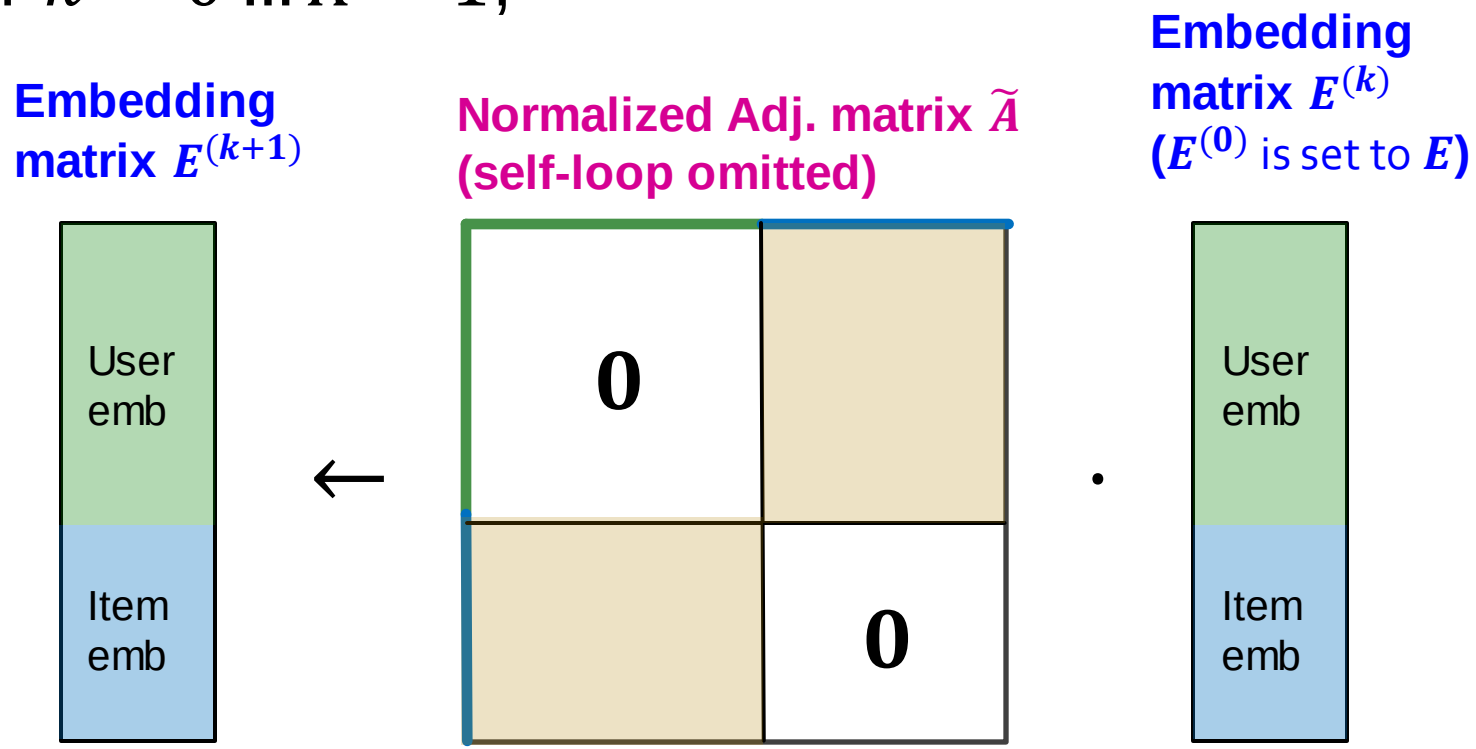
$$\alpha_0 E^{(0)} + \alpha_1 E^{(1)} + \alpha_2 E^{(2)} + \cdots + \alpha_K E^{(K)}$$

  - The above includes embeddings diffused at multiple hop scales.
  - $\alpha_0 E^{(0)} = \alpha_0 \tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}^0 E^{(0)}$ acts as a self-connection (that is omitted in the definition $\tilde{\boldsymbol{A}}$)
  - The coefficients, $\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_K$, are hyper-parameters.
- For simplicity, LightGCN uses the uniform coefficient, i.e., $\alpha_k = \frac{1}{K+1}$ for $k = 0, \ldots, K$.

# LightGCN: Model Overview (2)

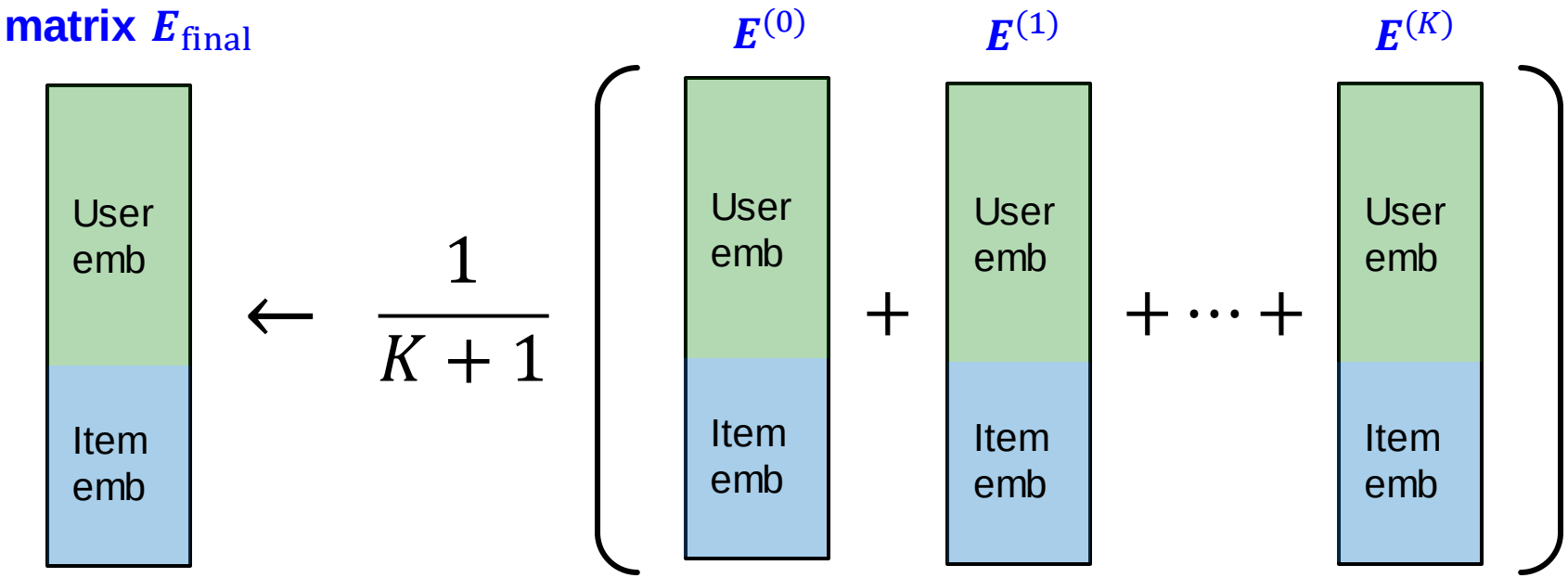
Iteratively diffuse embedding matrix $\boldsymbol{E}$ using $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{A}}$

For $k = 0 \ldots K-1$,



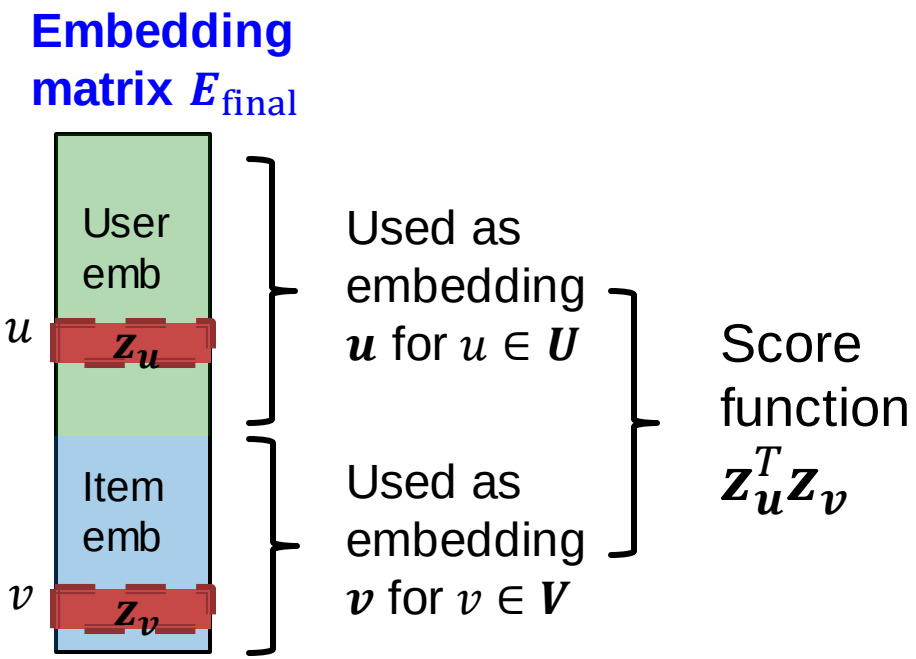
# LightGCN: Model Overview (3)

- Average the embedding matrices at different scales.



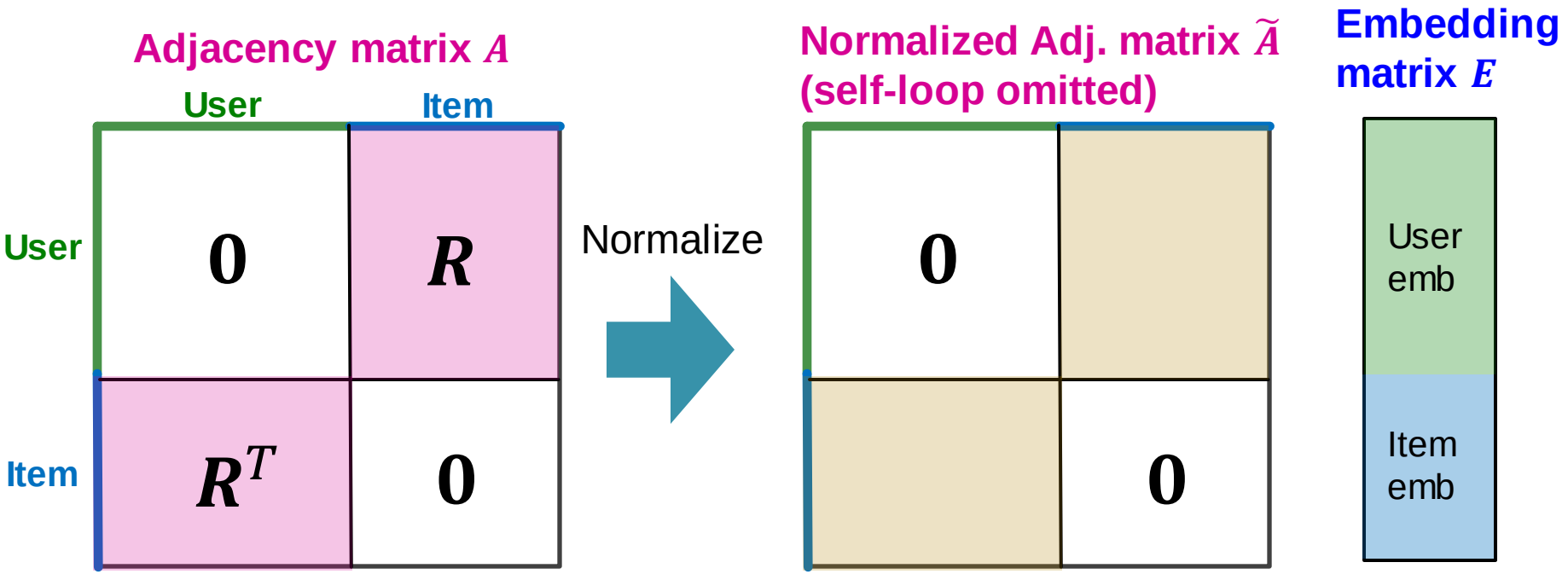
# LightGCN: Model Overview (4)

- **Score function**:
  - Use user/item vectors from $\boldsymbol{E}_{\text{final}}$ to score user-item interaction



# LightGCN: Model Overview (1)

- **Given:**
  - **Adjacency matrix A**
  - **Initial learnable embedding matrix $E$**



# LightGCN: Intuition

- **Question**: **Why does the simple diffusion propagation work well?**
- **Answer**: The diffusion directly encourages the embeddings of similar users/items to be similar.
  - Similar users share many common neighbors (items) and are expected to have similar future preferences (interact with similar items).

# LightGCN and GCN/C&S

- The embedding propagation of LightGCN is closely related to GCN/C&S.
- **Recall**: GCN/C&S (neighbor aggregation part)

$$\boldsymbol{h}_v^{(k+1)} = \sum_{u \in N(v)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{d_u}\sqrt{d_v}} \cdot \boldsymbol{h}_u^{(k)}$$

Node degree

  - Self-loop is added in the neighborhood definition.
- LightGCN uses the same equation except that
  - Self-loop is *not* added in the neighborhood definition.
  - Final embedding takes the average of embeddings from all the layers: $\boldsymbol{h}_v = \frac{1}{K+1}\sum_{k=0}^{K} \boldsymbol{h}_v^{(k)}$.

# LightGCN and MF: Comparison

- Both LightGCN and shallow encoders **learn a unique embedding for each user/item.**
- The difference is that LightGCN uses the ***diffused*** user/item embeddings for scoring.
- LightGCN performs better than shallow encoders but are also more computationally expensive due to the additional diffusion step.
  - The final embedding of a user/item is obtained by aggregating embeddings of its multi-hop neighboring nodes.

# LightGCN: Summary

- LightGCN simplifies NGCF by **removing the learnable parameters of GNNs.**
- **Learnable parameters are all in the shallow input node embeddings.**
  - Diffusion propagation only involves matrix-vector multiplication.
  - The simplification leads to better empirical performance than NGCF.

# Stanford CS224W: PinSAGE

CS224W: Machine Learning with Graphs

Jure Leskovec, Stanford University

http://cs224w.stanford.edu

# PinSAGE: Pin Embedding

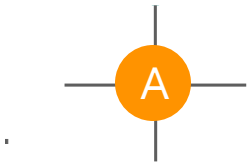
- Unifies visual, textual, and graph information.
- The largest industry deployment of a Graph Convolutional Networks.
- Huge Adoption across Pinterest
- Works for fresh content and is available in a few seconds after pin creation

Graph Convolutional Neural Networks for Web-Scale Recommender Systems, Ying et al., 2018

# Application: Pinterest

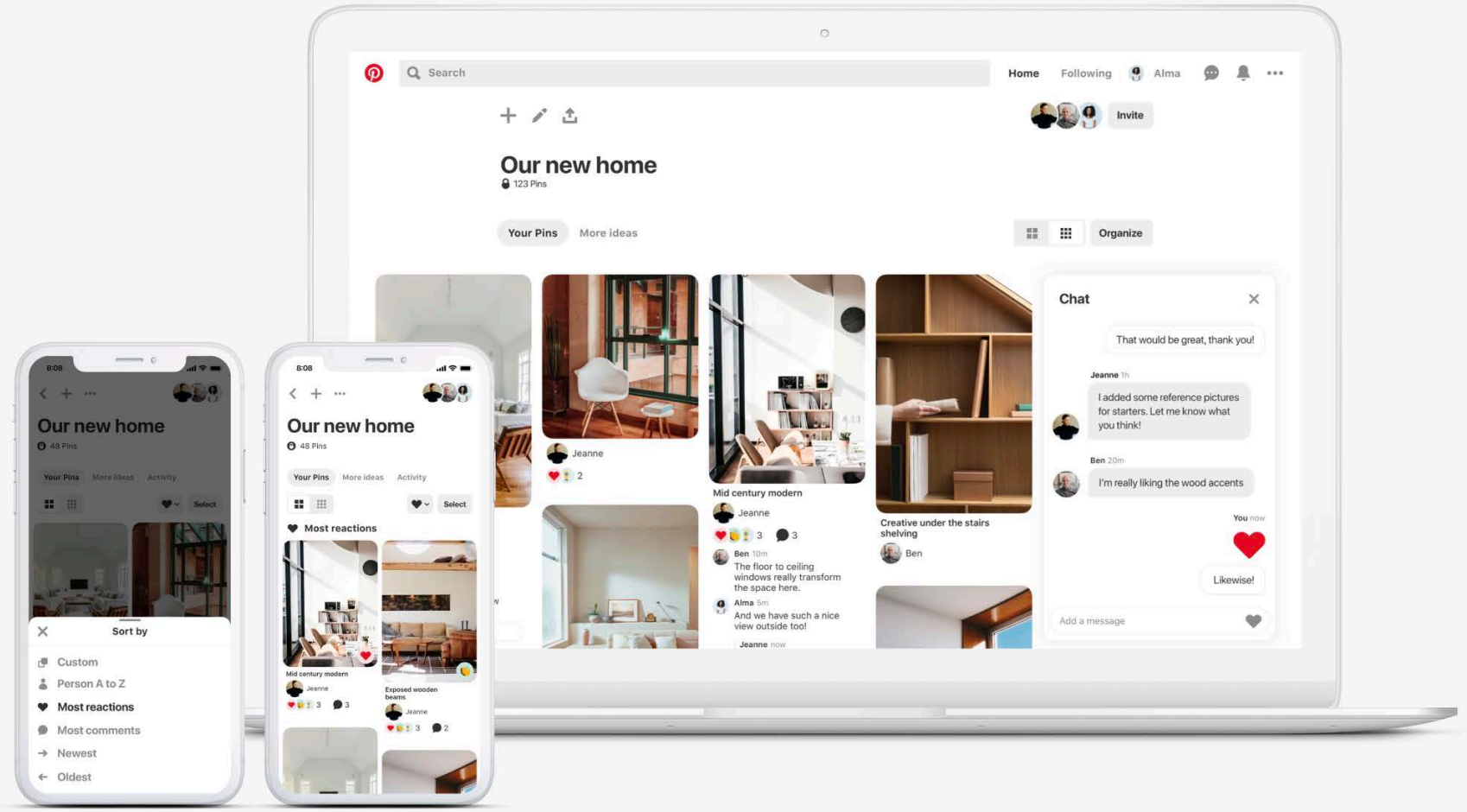
**PinSage graph convolutional network:**

- **Goal:** Generate embeddings for nodes in a large-scale Pinterest graph containing billions of objects
- **Key Idea:** Borrow information from nearby nodes
  - E.g., bed rail Pin might look like a garden fence, but gates and beds are rarely adjacent in the graph




  - Pin embeddings are essential to various tasks like recommendation of Pins, classification, ranking
    - Services like “Related Pins”, “Search”, “Shopping”, “Ads”

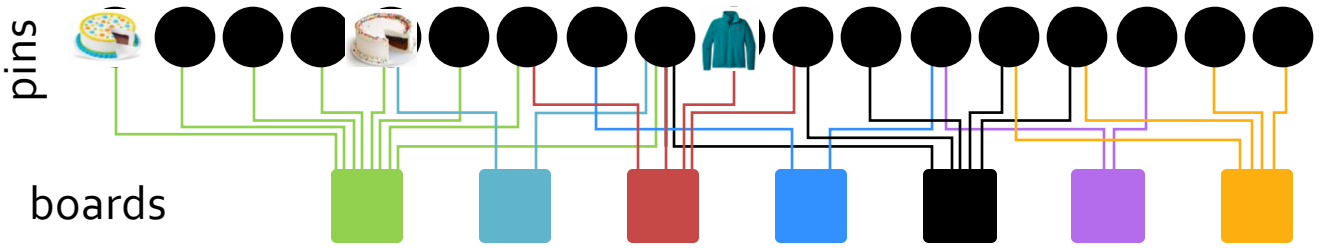
# Harnessing Pins and Boards

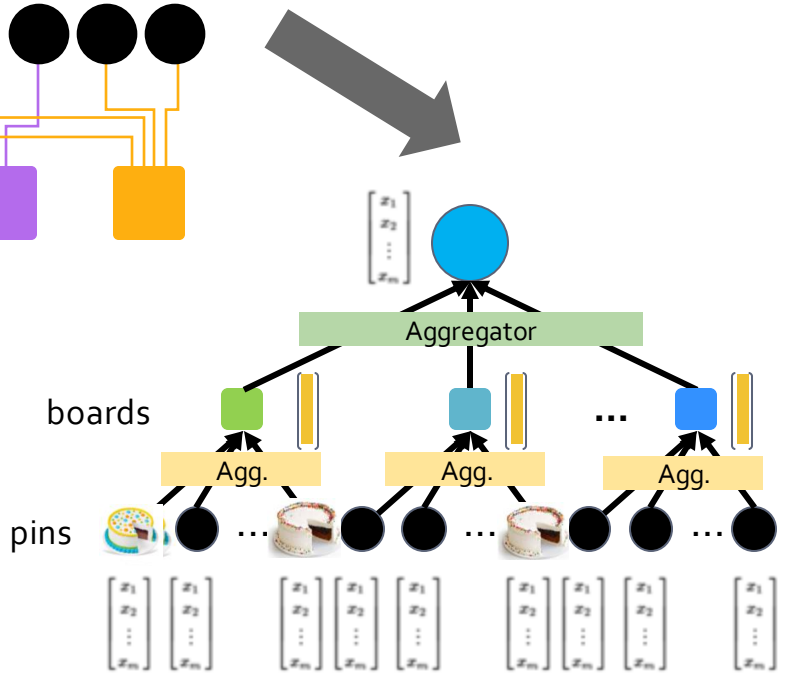



source: Pinterest newsroom

# PinSAGE:Graph Neural Network

- Graph has tens of billions of nodes and edges
- Further resolves embeddings across the Pinterest graph

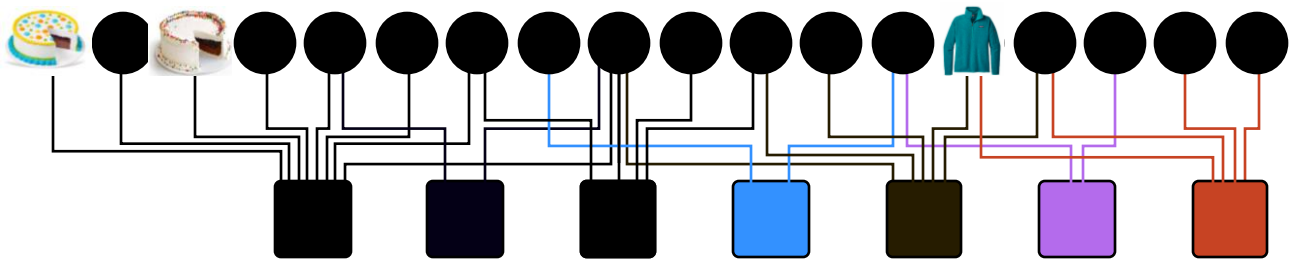


# PinSAGE: Methods for Scaling Up

- In addition to the GNN model, the PinSAGE paper introduces several methods to scale the GNN to a billion-scale recommender system (e.g., Pinterest).
  - Shared negative samples across users in a mini-batch
  - Hard negative samples
  - Curriculum learning
  - Mini-batch training of GNNs on a large-graph (to be covered in the future lecture)

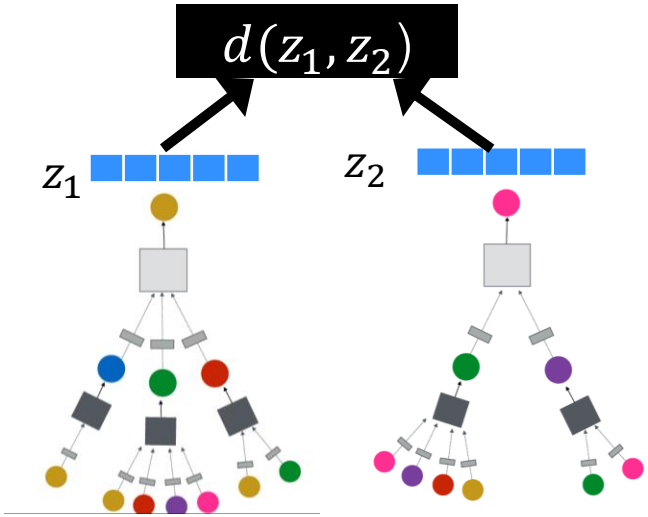
# PinSAGE Model



**Task: Recommend related pins to users**

Learn node embeddings $z_i$ such that

$$d(z_{cake1}, z_{cake2}) < d(z_{cake1}, z_{sweater})$$

# Training Data

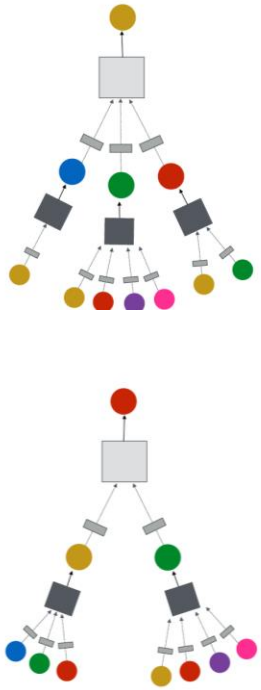
1+B repin pairs:

- From Related Pins surface
- Capture semantic relatedness
- Goal: Embed such pairs to be “neighbors”

Example positive training pairs (Q,X):

# Shared Negative Samples (1)

- **Recall**: In BPR loss, for each user $u^* \in \boldsymbol{U}_{\text{mini}}$, we sample one positive item $v_{\text{pos}}$ and a set of sampled negative items $\boldsymbol{V}_{\text{neg}} = \{v_{\text{neg}}\}$.
- Using more negative samples per user improves the recommendation performance, but is also expensive.
  - We need to generate $|\boldsymbol{U}_{\text{mini}}| \cdot |\boldsymbol{V}_{\text{neg}}|$ embeddings for negative nodes.
  - We need to apply $|\boldsymbol{U}_{\text{mini}}| \cdot |\boldsymbol{V}_{\text{neg}}|$ GNN computational graphs (see right), which is expensive.



# Shared Negative Samples (2)

- **Key idea**: We can share the same set of negative samples $\boldsymbol{V}_{\text{neg}} = \{v_{\text{neg}}\}$ ***across all users*** $\boldsymbol{U}_{\text{mini}}$ in the mini-batch.
- This way, we only need to generate $|\boldsymbol{V}_{\text{neg}}|$ embeddings for negative nodes.
  - This saves the node embedding generation computation **by a factor of $|\boldsymbol{U}_{\text{mini}}|$**!
  - Empirically, the performance stays similar to the non-shared negative sampling scheme.

# Hard Negatives (1)

- **Challenge**: Industrial recsys needs to make **extremely fine-grained predictions**.
  - #Total items: Up to billions.
  - #Items to recommend for each user: 10 to 100.
- **Issue**: The shared negative items are randomly sampled from all items
  - Most of them are "**easy negatives**", i.e., a model does not need to be fine-grained to distinguish them from positive items.
- We need a way to sample "**hard negatives**" to force the model to be fine-grained!

# PinSAGE: Curriculum Learning

- **Idea:** use harder and harder negative samples
- Include more and more hard negative samples for each epoch

Source pin

Positive


Easy negative

Hard negative

# Curriculum Learning

- **Key insight**: It is effective **to make the negative samples *gradually harder* in the process of training**.
- At $n$-th epoch, we add $n-1$ hard negative items.
  - #(Hard negatives) gradually increases in the process of training.
- The model will gradually learn to make finer-grained predictions.

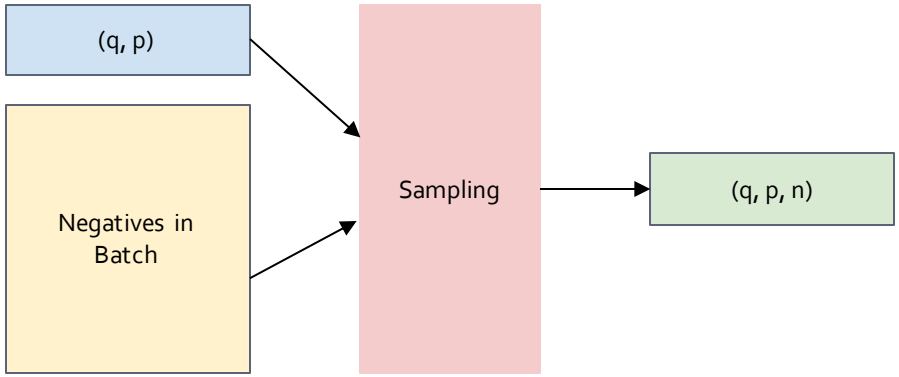
# Hard Negatives (2)

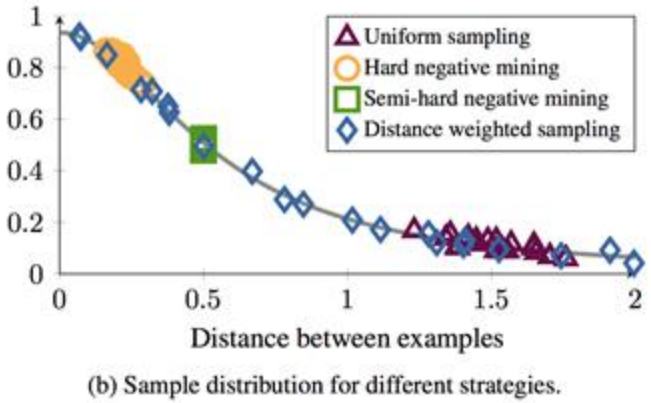
- **For each user node**, the **hard negatives** are item nodes that are close (but not connected) to the user node in the graph.
- Hard negatives for user $u \in \boldsymbol{U}$ are obtained as follows:
  - Compute personalized page rank (PPR) for user $u$.
  - Sort items in the descending order of their PPR scores.
  - Randomly sample item nodes that are ranked high but not too high, e.g., $2000^{th}$ —$5000^{th}$ .
    - Item nodes that are close but not too close (connected) to the user node.
- The hard negatives for each user are used in addition to the shared negatives.

# PinSAGE: Negative Sampling

(q, p) positive pairs are given but various methods to sample negatives to form (q, p, n)

- Distance Weighted Sampling (Wu et al., 2017)
  - Sample negatives so that query-negative distance distribution is approx U[0.5, 1.4]




(b) Sample distribution for different strategies.

# PinSAGE: Summary

- **PinSAGE uses GNNs** to generate high-quality user/item embeddings that **capture both the rich node attributes and graph structure**.
- The PinSAGE model is effectively trained using sophisticated **negative sampling strategies**.
- PinSAGE is **successfully deployed at Pinterest**, a billion-scale image content recommendation service.
  - **Uncovered in this lecture**: How to scale up GNNs to large-scale graphs. Will be covered in a later lecture.