

# Recommender Systems 1

Internet Analytics (COM-308)

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Sciences



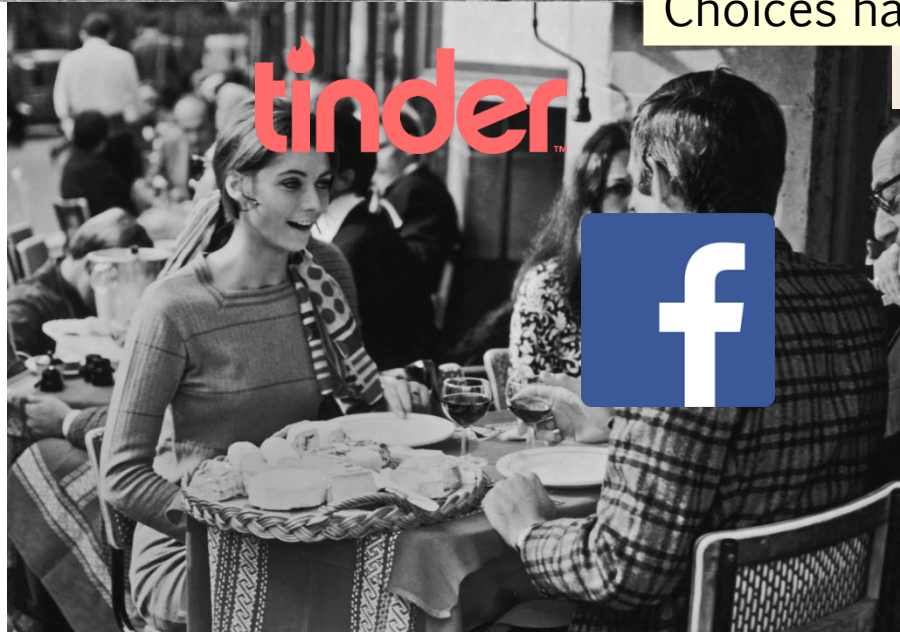
# Overview

- Motivation: why are recommenders so prevalent today?
- Collaborative filtering vs content-based recommenders
- Example: Netflix Prize
- Neighborhood methods
- Latent factor methods
  - Overfitting, regularization, stochastic gradient descent

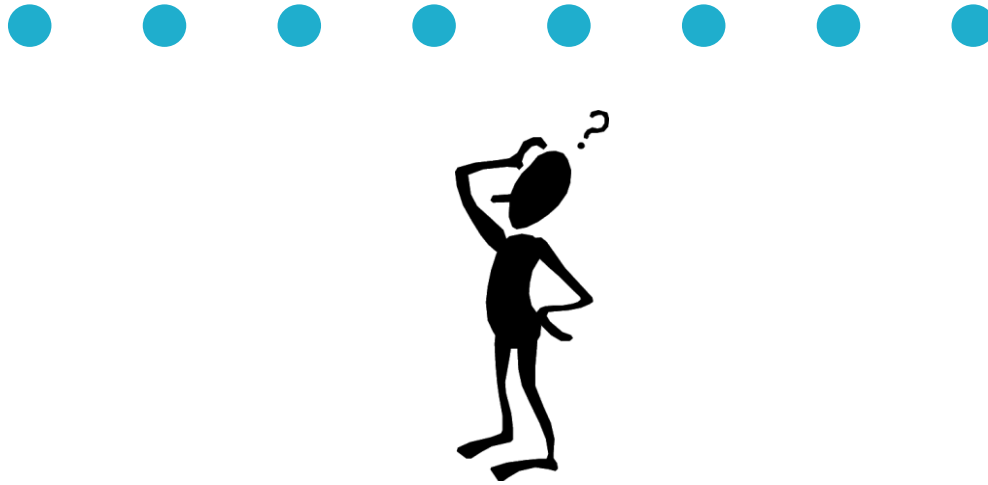
# Choices: the good old days → the brave new world



Choices have exploded!

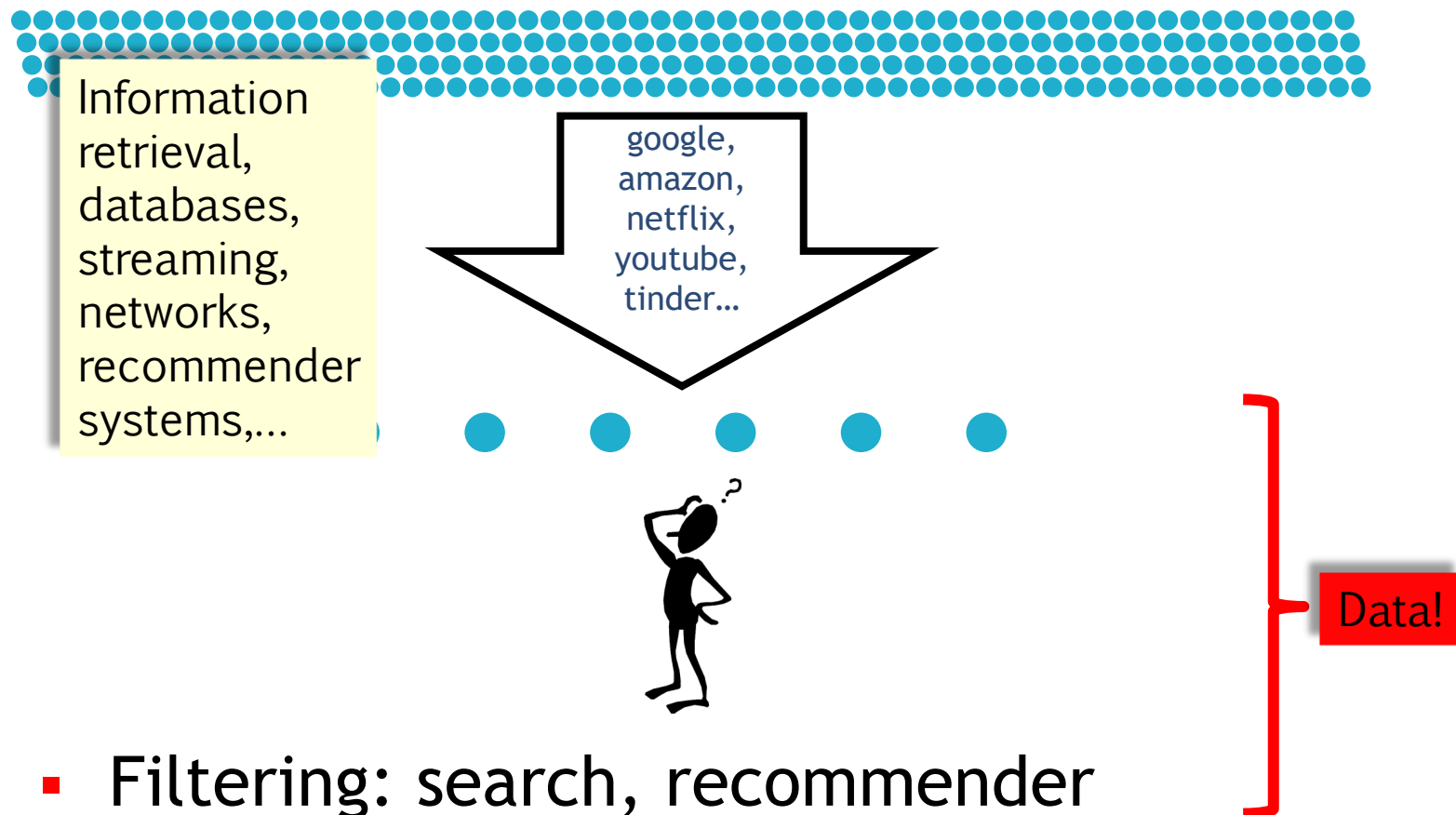


# Choosing in the old days



- Small number of alternatives
  - Physical limits: shelf space, weight of the encyclopedia, surface area of the dance floor, cost of the record collection,...

# Filtering + choosing



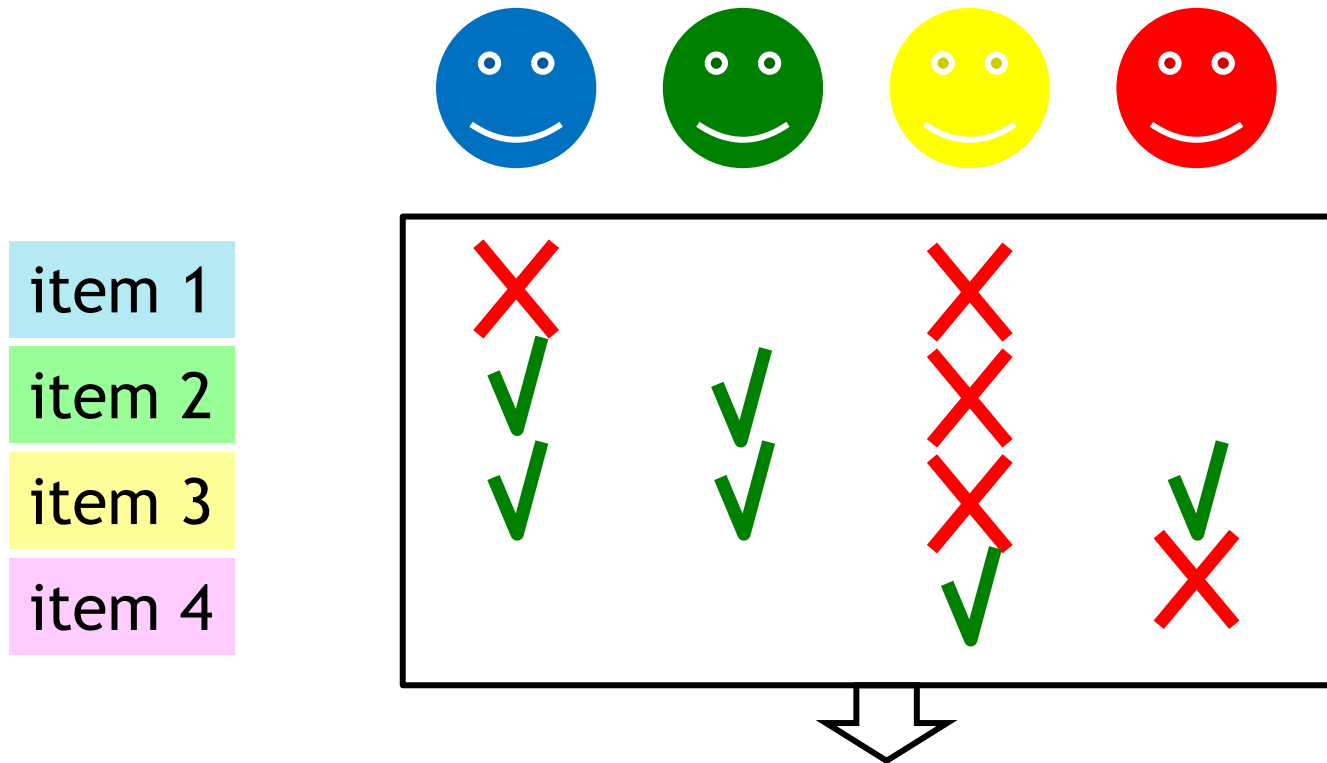
- Filtering: search, recommender systems
- Choosing: the “last cognitive mile”

# Situation today

- Traditional retailers:
  - Shelf space & warehouse: expensive → carry only items with sufficient sales volume
- Online:
  - Potentially unlimited catalogue for digital goods (or physical goods - amazon, iTunes, ...)
  - Needs better filters: search & recommendations
- Recommenders are integral part of most online services
  - Amazon, Youtube, Spotify, LinkedIn, Twitter, ...
  - Even search: google → “filter bubble”
- Limited user interface (mobile!):
  - Recommendations even more important than search

# Collaborative filtering

- Content-agnostic  $\rightarrow$  learning from other users



Model for (user, item)  $\rightarrow$  rating

# Overview: recommender systems

- Content-based recommenders

item 1:  
“Plane hijacked...”

item 2:  
“soccer game...”

item 3:  
“swiss skiers win...”

item 4:  
“50.3% vote yes...”



News item 1

News item 2

News item 3

News item 4



Model for  
(user, content) → rating



# The Netflix competition

- Netflix: mail-based DVD rental company (today streaming)
- New form of research outsourcing: Netflix Prize
  - Goal: “increase performance of in-house system by 10%”
  - Prize: 1m USD + yearly progress prize
  - Anyone can participate
  - Careful setup to avoid reverse-engineering of dataset, overfitting, etc.
- Early example of data-driven competitions
  - Kaggle etc.

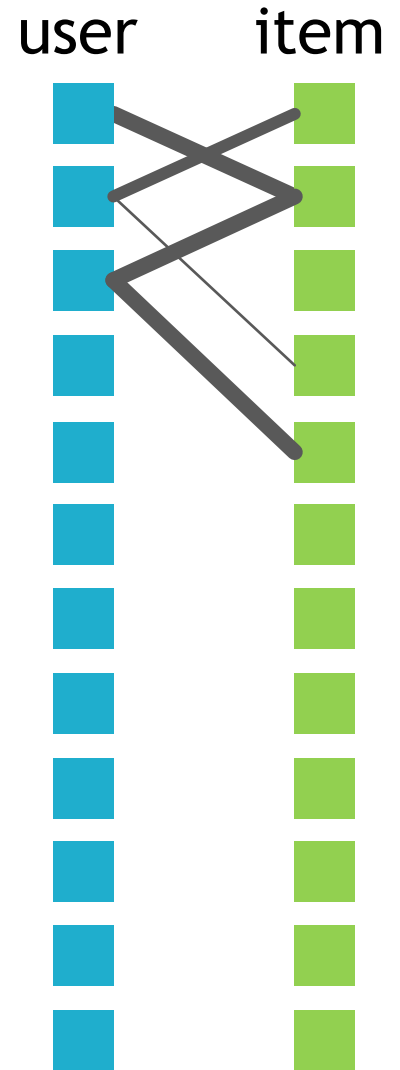
# Model

- Set of users  $U$  (size  $n$ ), set of items  $I$  (size  $m$ )
- Utility or rating function  $r: U \times I \rightarrow R$ 
  - $R$ : e.g. 0-5 stars; probability of liking an item; yes/no;...
- Collecting  $r_{ui}$  values:
  - Amazon: buying a product
  - Youtube: watching/liking a video
  - News reader: opening a news item from list
  - In general: depends on context and design
- Explicit vs implicit:
  - Explicit: Ask people to rate (stars, etc.)
    - effort, sparse, reliable
  - Implicit: derive from actions (delete, save, forward, etc.)
    - for free, dense, noisy

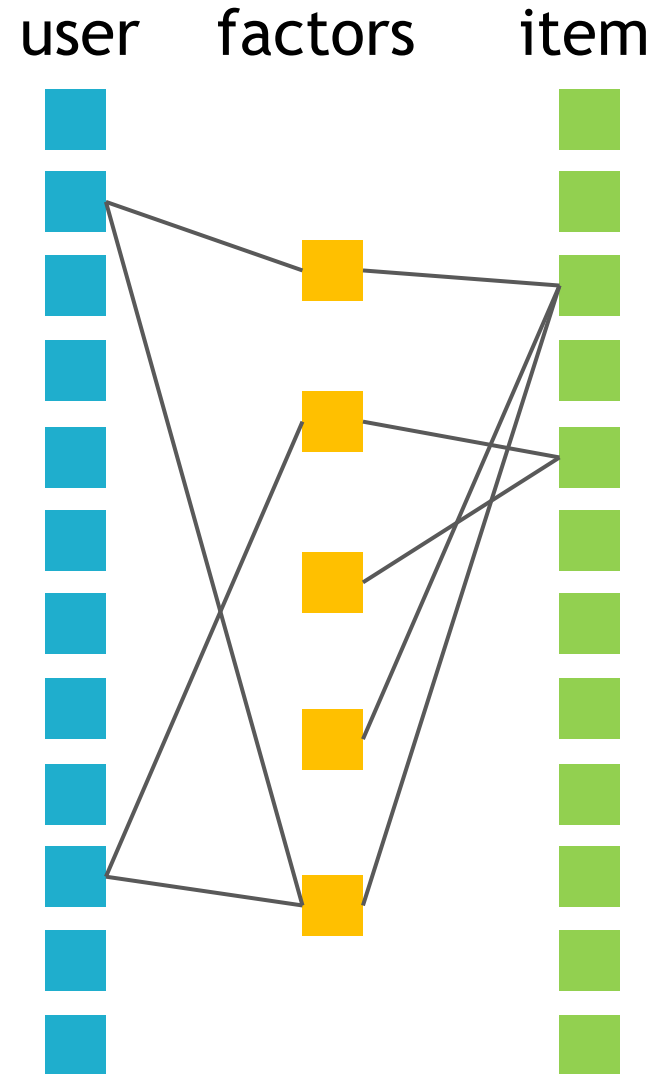
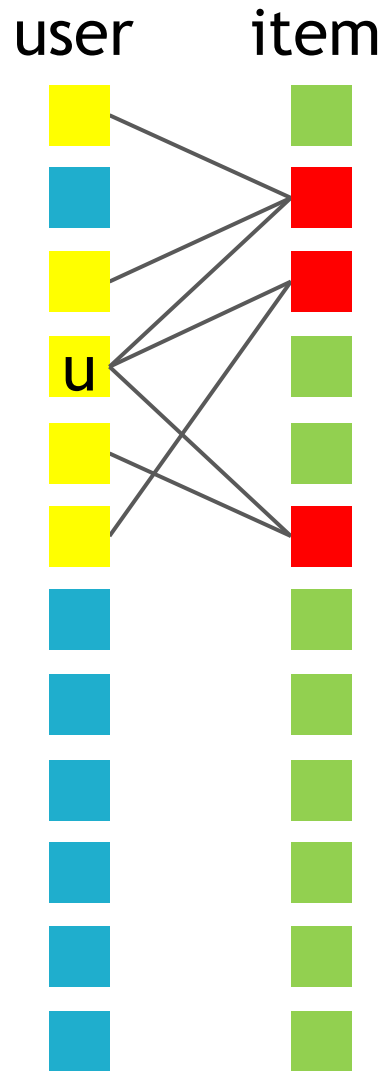
# Model

- Ratings matrix  $R$ :
  - Captures preference on some scale
  - Matrix representation:
    - Missing elements = unknown
  - Bipartite weighted graph representation

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1		5		2	4			
2	4		3	1			3	
3		5	4		5		4	
4						1	1	2
5	3					3		
6			2		4			



# Neighborhood vs latent factor methods



# Performance criterion for Netflix Prize

- RMSE: root mean squared error:

- $$RMSE = \sqrt{\sum_{(u,i)} \frac{(r_{ui} - \hat{r}_{ui})^2}{C}},$$

with  $C = \#$  of rated pairs

- Why RMS?
  - Penalizes larger errors
- Why not RMS?
  - Often only interested in precision on top ratings
  - Often not interested in absolute value, only order

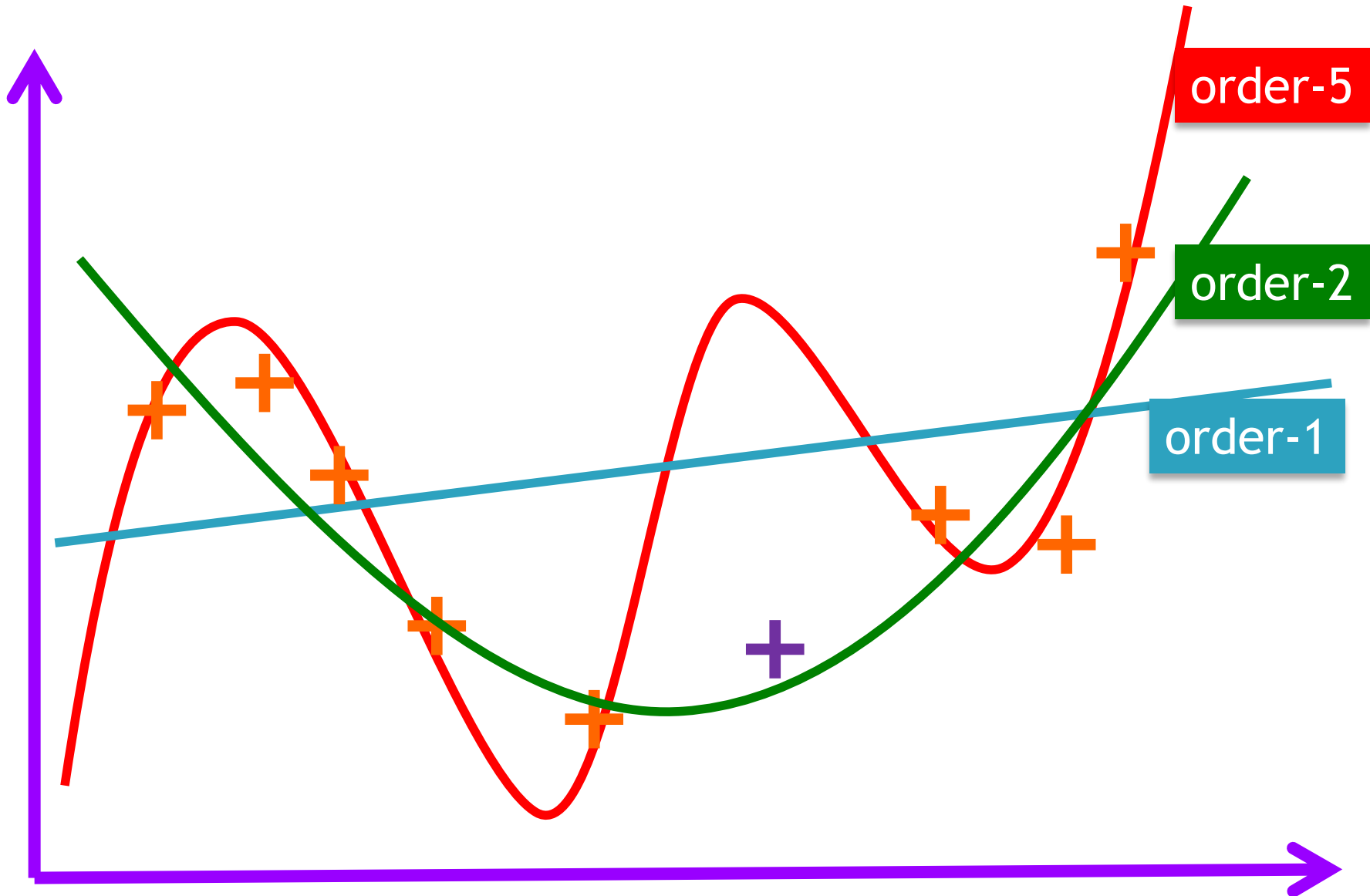
# Baseline predictor

- Assumption:
  - Global average rating  $\bar{r}$
  - Each user  $u$  has a bias (or average opinion)  $b_u$
  - Each item  $i$  has a bias (or average quality)  $b_i$
- First approximation:
  - $b_{ui} = \bar{r} + b_u + b_i$
  - No “interaction” between users and items
- Learning: data  $\rightarrow$  model parameters?
  - $n + m$  parameters
  - Data: up to  $nm$
  - In general overdetermined  $\rightarrow$  find best solution

# Learning baseline predictor

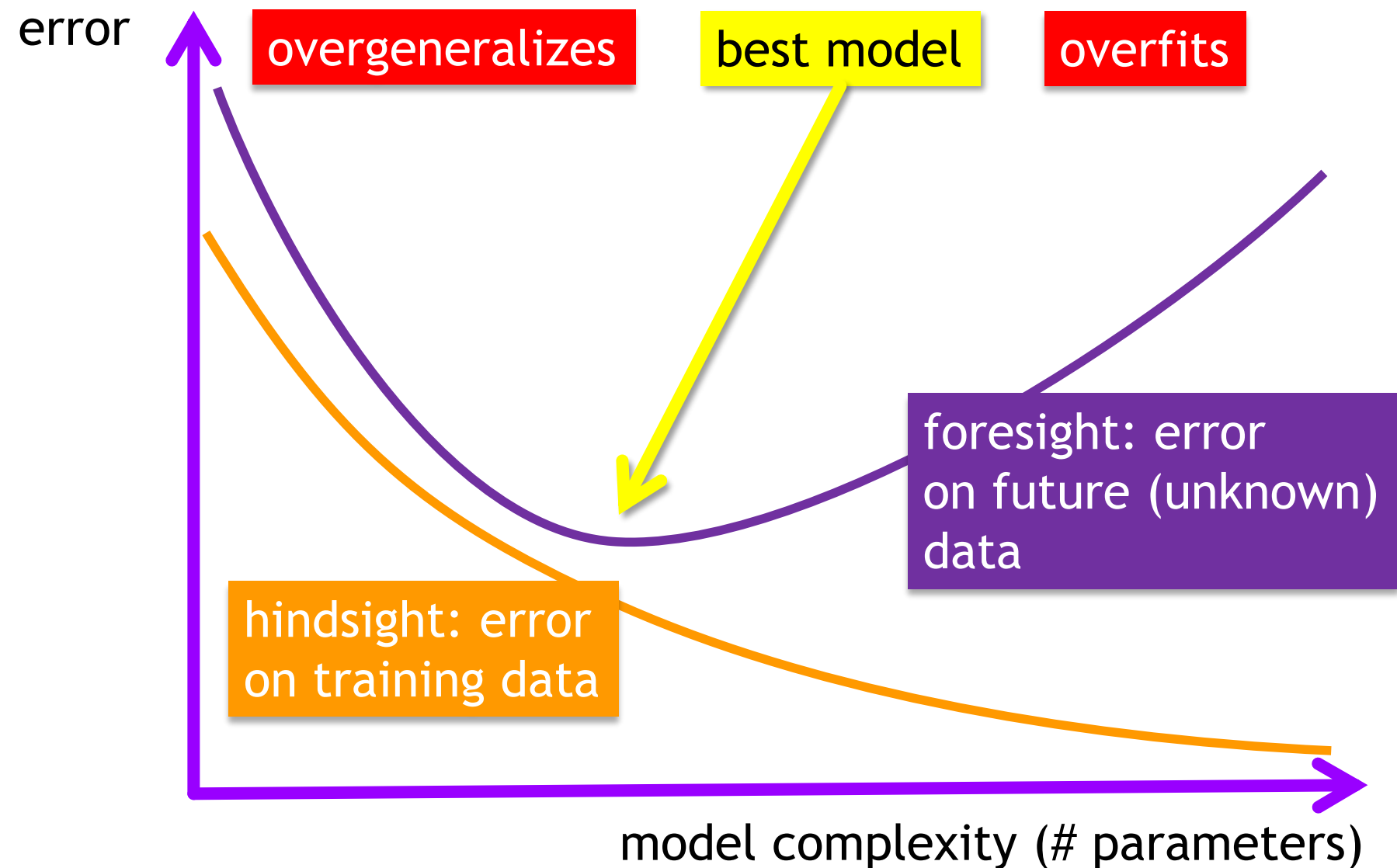
- Given: training set of ratings  $R = \{(u, i, r_{ui})\}$
- Could just use averages per user/item
  - Not optimal
- Min RMS on training set:
  - $\min_{\{b_u, b_i\}} \sum_{(u,i) \in R} (r_{ui} - b_{ui})^2$
- General form of quadratic min problem:
$$\|Ab - c\|_2^2 = (Ab - c)^T (Ab - c) =$$
$$= b^T A^T A b - 2b^T A^T c + c^T c$$
- Derivative w.r.t.  $b$ 
  - $2(A^T A)b - 2A^T c = 0 \rightarrow \text{find } b$
- This may lead to overfitting  $\rightarrow$  regularization

# Learning: overfitting





# Hindsight vs Foresight

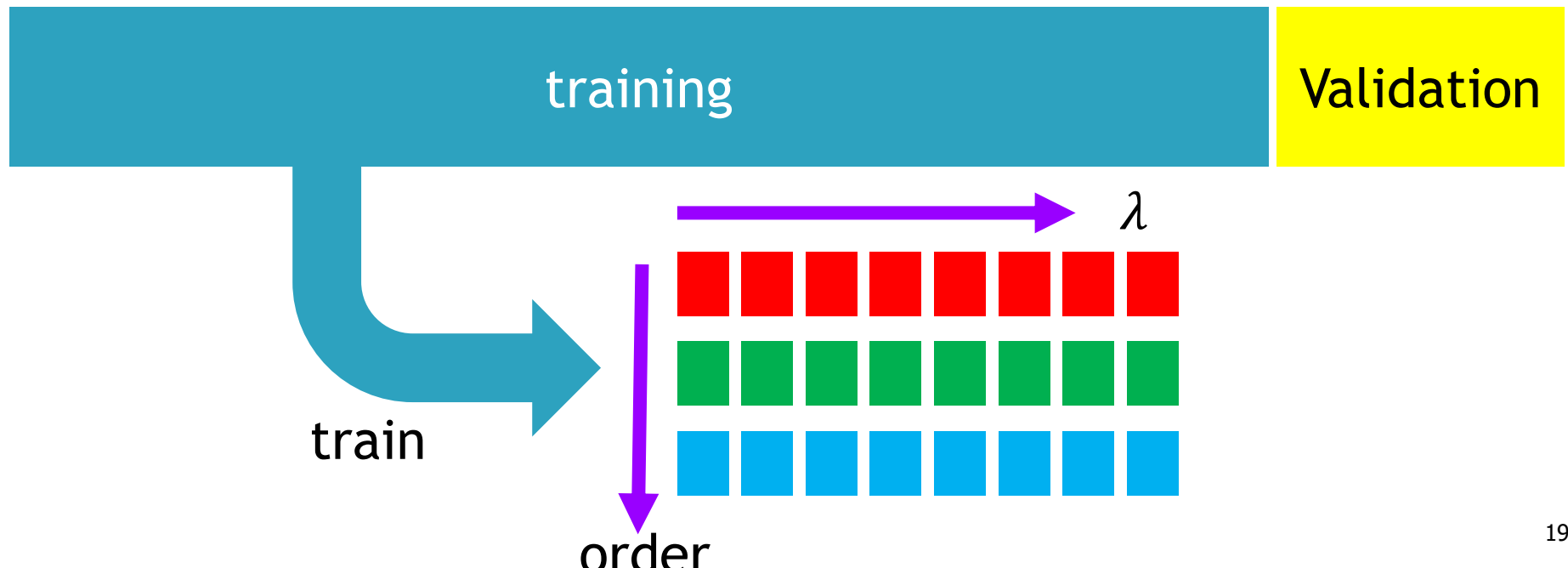


# Regularization: penalizing complexity

- Cost function to minimize:
  - $\min_{\theta} f_{\theta}(X)$  :  $X$  is the data (here  $\{r_{ui}\}$ ),  $\theta$  the model parameters ( $\{b_u, b_i\}$ )
- Penalize complexity:
  - Overfitting: complex model does well on training set, but poorly on future data (or test set)
  - We want to use complex models (e.g., higher order polynomial), but avoid overfitting
  - Solution: build in preference for “small” parameters
- Regularizer:
  - $\min_{\theta} f_{\theta}(X) + \lambda g(\theta)$
  - Choice of  $g(\theta) \geq 0$  depends on context
  - Example:  $g(\theta) = \|\theta\|_2^2$

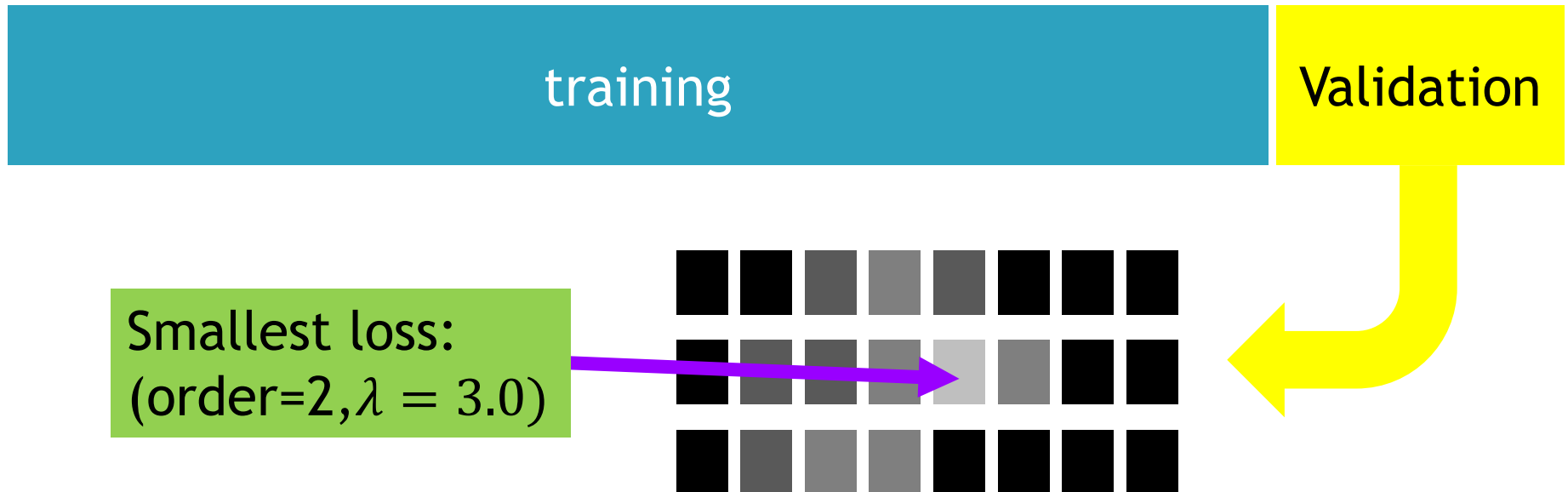
# Validation: simulating foresight

- Model selection:
  - Degree of polynomial
  - Regularization (hyper)parameter  $\lambda$
- We don't have future data  $\rightarrow$  set aside some training data and pretend it's future data
  - Validation set



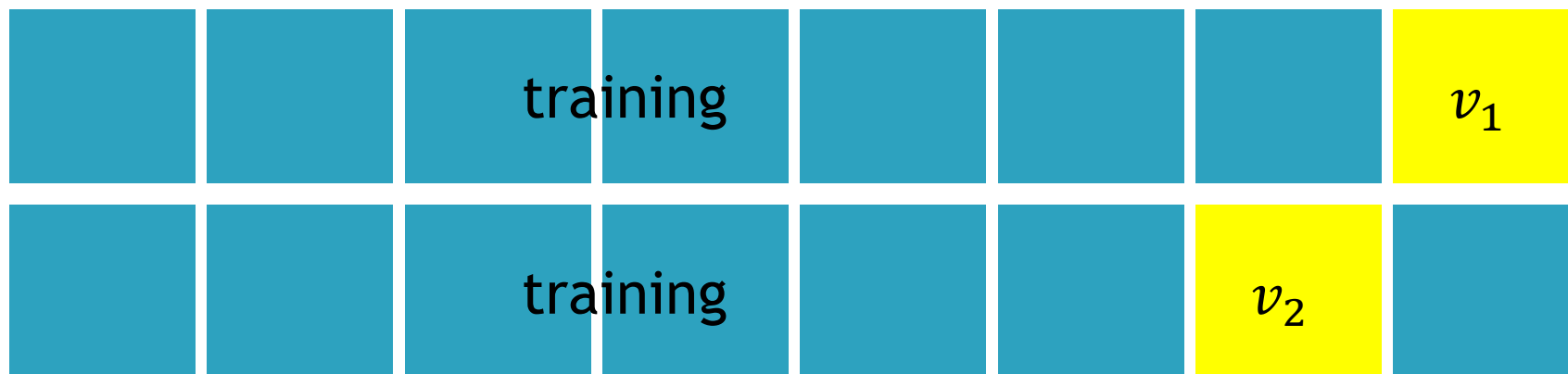
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# Cross-validation: averaged validation

- If data is not abundant: validation is costly
  - Tradeoff between training and validation data
- $k$ -fold CV:
  - Chop data into equal sized blocks (e.g.,  $k = 10$ )
- For each block  $x = 1, \dots, k$ :
  - Train model on all other blocks (training set)
  - Evaluate model on  $v_x$  (validation set)
- Performance = average error over all iterations



# Regularized bias estimates

- Quadratic form to minimize to obtain the bias terms  $\{b_u\}$  and  $\{b_i\}$ :

$$(b_u^*, b_i^*) =$$

$$= \operatorname{argmin}_{\{b_u, b_i\}} \sum_{(u,i) \in R} (r_{ui} - \bar{r} - b_u - b_i)^2 + \lambda_1 \left( \sum_u b_u^2 + \sum_i b_i^2 \right)$$

# Residual error after baseline predictor

- Residual error:
  - Captures dependence between user and item
  - $\tilde{r}_{ui} = r_{ui} - b_{ui} = r_{ui} - (\bar{r} + b_u + b_i)$
  - $\tilde{R} = [\tilde{r}_{ui}]$
- How to capture residual error, i.e., how to model user-item interaction?

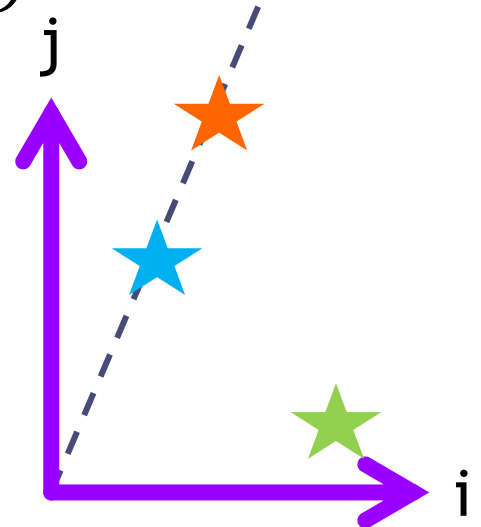
# Neighborhood models

- Goal: estimate rating  $r_{ui}$  for user  $u$  and item  $i$
- Approach: pairwise user-user or item-item correlation
- User-user:
  - For user  $u$ , find other users  $\{v\}$  that are similar to  $u$
  - Combine  $\{r_{vi}\}$  into an estimate for  $r_{ui}$
- Item-item:
  - For item  $i$ , find other items  $\{j\}$  that are similar to  $i$
  - Combine  $\{r_{uj}\}$  into an estimate for  $r_{ui}$



# Similarity metric (user-user variant)

- Similarity between users  $u$  and  $v$ ?
- Degree of agreement in ratings for joint items
- Cosine similarity:
  - Def:  $x_u, x_v$  are vectors of ratings  $\tilde{r}_u, \tilde{r}_v$  over items rated by both
  - $$\text{sim}(u, v) = \frac{x_u^T x_v}{\|x_u\|_2 \|x_v\|_2} = \cos(\angle x_u, x_v)$$
- For user  $u$ , evaluate  $\text{sim}(u, v)$  over all other users  $v$ ;  
retain  $L$  highest (top- $L$ )  $\rightarrow$  set  $L_u$



# Neighborhood model

- Combine “opinions” of all the similar users  $L_u$ :
  - $$\hat{r}_{ui} = \bar{r} + b_u + b_i + \frac{\sum_{v \in L_u} \text{sim}(u,v) \tilde{r}_{vi}}{\sum_{v \in L_u} \text{sim}(u,v)}$$
- Pros:
  - Intuitively appealing and natural
- Cons:
  - Hard to tune: choice of similarity metric  $\text{sim}(\cdot, \cdot)$ ,  $L$  (and other parameters depending on variant)
  - Sparsity: for many  $(u, i)$  pairs, no rating possible (if nobody in set  $L_u$  has rated  $i$ )

# Neighborhood model: user-user vs item-item

- Two symmetric approaches:
  - User-user: for user  $u$ , find similar users  $v$ , and their ratings of  $i$
  - Item-item: for item  $i$ , find similar items  $j$ , and their ratings by  $u$
- In practice they are different:
  - Argument for item-item: in most applications, items tend to “cluster” better (e.g., movies belong to a single genre); users are more “mixed” (e.g., one user may like many genres)
  - Argument for user-user: often the application is not “estimate  $r_{ui}$ ”, but “get highest rated items for  $u$ ”

# Recommending best item $i$ to a user $u$

- With user-user:
  - First find users  $v$  having rated same movie(s)
  - Estimate all unrated items for  $u$  from these users
  - Equal to two-hop neighborhood in bipartite rating graph

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1		5		2	2			
2	4		3	1	1		4	
u	???	5	4	???	1	???	4	???
4						1	1	2
5	3		?		?	3		
6		?	2		4		?	

# Recommending best item $i$ to a user $u$

- With item-item:
  - For each item  $i$  not rated by  $u$ , find similar items  $L_i$
  - Obtain  $\hat{r}_{ui}$  from user  $u$ 's ratings for  $j \in L_i$
  - Much more costly: many unrated items  $j \in L_i$

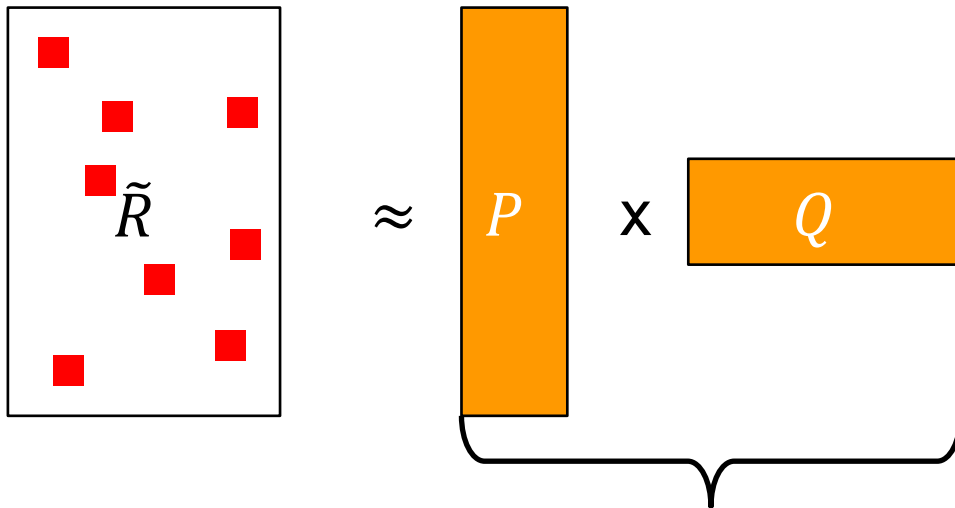
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1		5		2	2			
2	4		3	1	1		4	
u	???	5	4	???	1	???	4	???
4						1	1	2
5	3		5		?	3	4	
6			2		4			

# Latent factor models

- Dimensionality-reduction technique
  - Hypothesis: simpler (lower-dim) space capturing user-item dependencies
- Assume  $K$  concepts/latent factors/taste dimensions
  - Movies: Comedy vs drama; historic vs sci-fi; intellectual vs entertainment; romantic vs action; specific cast, directors; etc.
- Each user  $u$  has a  $K$ -dim factor vector  $p_u$ :
  - $p_u[k]$ : degree to which user  $u$  enjoys/hates factor  $k$
- Each item  $i$  has a  $K$ -dim factor vector  $q_i$ :
  - $q_i[k]$ : degree to which item  $i$  possesses factor  $k$

# Latent factor models

- $\hat{r}_{ui} = \bar{r} + b_u + b_i + p_u^T q_i$
- Note:
  - Contrary to SVD, no requirement that  $P, Q$  be orthogonal (columns of  $P$  and rows of  $Q$  not unitary nor orthogonal)
- Training the model:  $\min_{P, Q} \sum_{(u,i) \in R} (\tilde{r}_{ui} - p_u^T q_i)^2$



1) What regularizer?

2) How to find  $P, Q$ ?

parameters  $\theta = (P, Q)$ :  $d = K(n + m)$  degrees of freedom

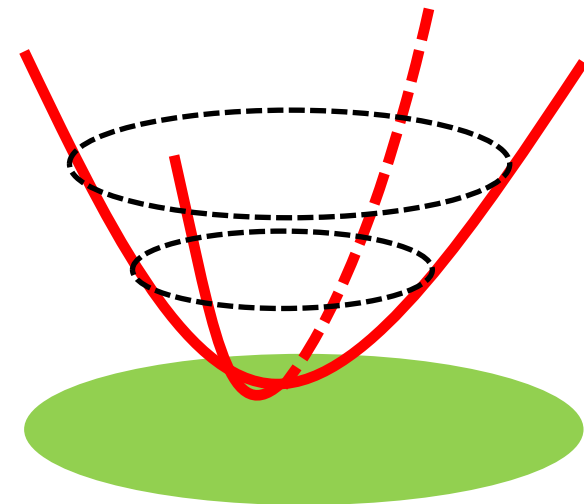
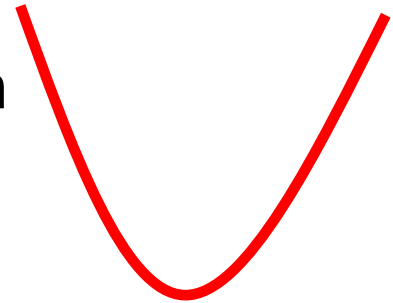
# Regularized latent factor model

- Cost function with regularizer:  $(b_u^*, b_i^*, P^*, Q^*) =$ 
  - $= \operatorname{argmin}_{\{b_u, b_i, P, Q\}} \sum_{(u,i) \in R} (r_{ui} - (p_u^T q_i + \bar{r} + b_u + b_i))^2$   
 $+ \lambda_1 (\|b_u\|^2 + \|b_i\|^2)$   
 $+ \lambda_2 (\|P\|_F^2 + \|Q\|_F^2)$
- Three hyperparameters  $(K, \lambda_1, \lambda_2)$  to optimize
- Not actually a convex problem!
  - But convex (quadratic) over  $P, Q$  individually  $\rightarrow$  biconvex
  - $(P^*, Q^*)$  is only a local, not necessarily global, minimum



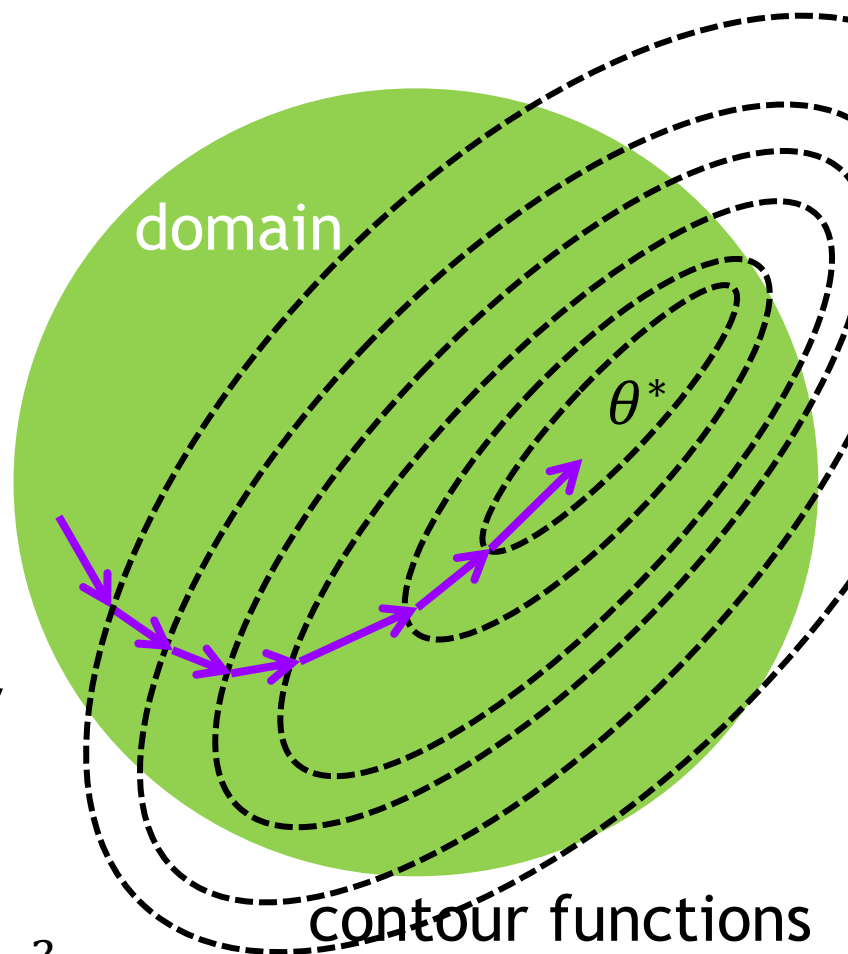
# Convex optimization

- Convex function  $f(\theta)$ ,  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_d)$ 
  - For every two points  $\theta, \phi$ , the line between  $f(\theta)$  and  $f(\phi)$  is «above» the function
- Convex domain:
  - For every two points  $\theta, \phi$  in the domain, the line connecting them also in domain
- Test for convexity of differentiable function:
  - Hessian  $(\nabla^2 f)_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \theta_i \partial \theta_j}$   
must be PSD (positive semidefinite)
- Convex optimization:
  - Local min = global min  $\rightarrow$  we can use methods for local min search



# Minimization: stochastic gradient descent

- Gradient  $(\nabla f)_i = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta_i}$
- Gradient descent:
  - $\theta^{(k+1)} = \theta^{(k)} - \alpha \nabla f(\theta^{(k)})$
  - $\alpha$ : learning rate
  - Intuition: move in direction of local decrease
- In ML,  $f$  is often a sum over the data:
  - $f = \sum f_n$ 
    - Here:  $f = \sum_{(u,i) \in R} (\tilde{r}_{ui} - p_u^T q_i)^2$
    - Log-likelihood:  $f = \log P(Y|\theta) = \sum \log P(Y_n|\theta)$
  - Gradient costly to compute! ( $O(n)$  per step)

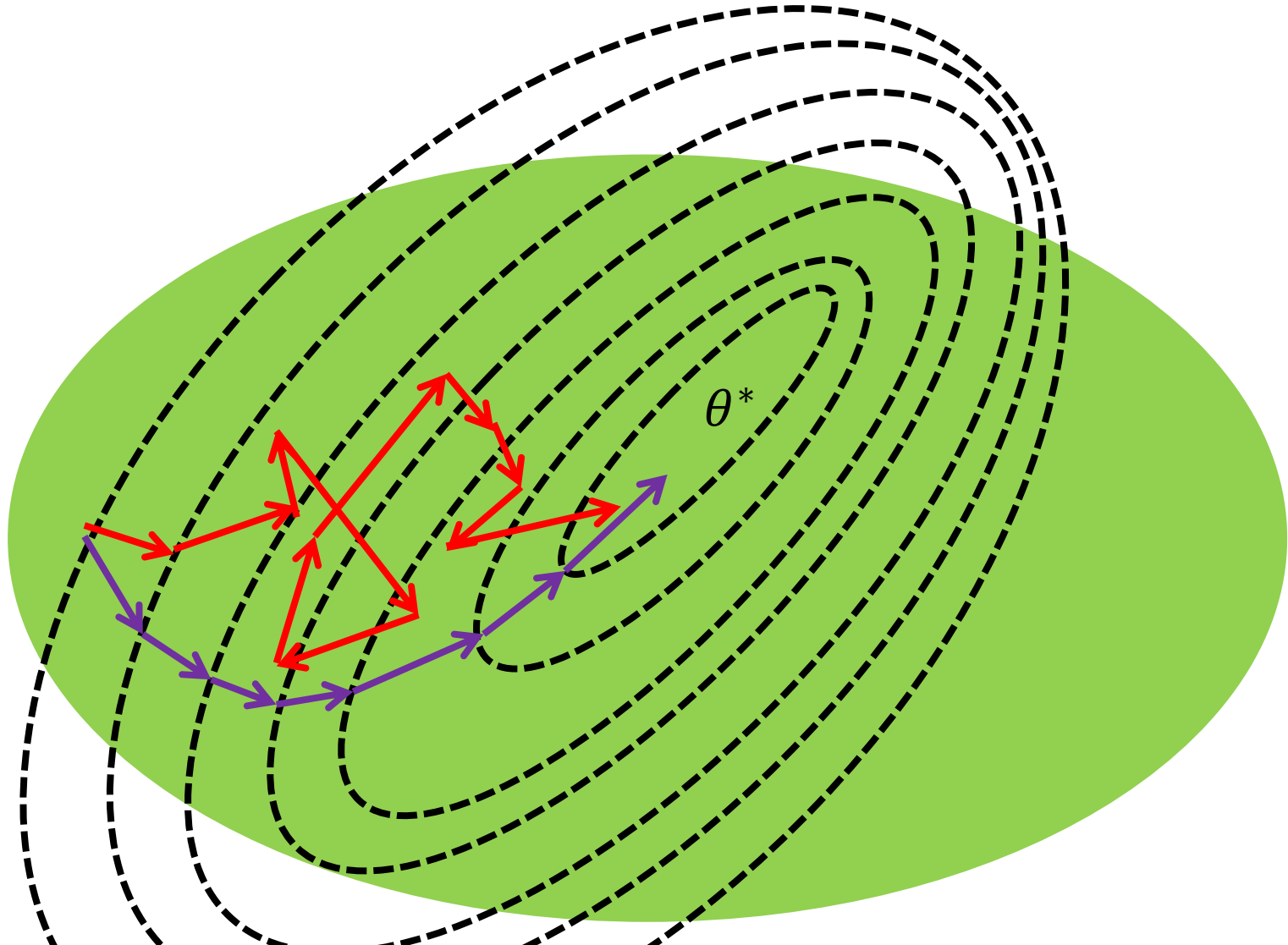


# Stochastic gradient descent

- Gradient descent: expensive
  - Sum over all data points  $(u, i) \in R$
- Stochastic gradient descent:
  - Idea: noisy but cheap gradient approximation
  - Pick a random data point  $(u, i)$  (or some other order)
  - Compute gradients w.r.t. this data point (or a small batch of data points)
  - Iterate until convergence
- Intuition:
  - Random walk that is biased towards minimum
  - Pro: gradient much cheaper to compute
  - Con: random walk may “veer” in the wrong direction
  - Worth it if “detours” do not outweigh reduction in computational cost

# Stochastic gradient descent

- Gradient descent vs stochastic gradient descent



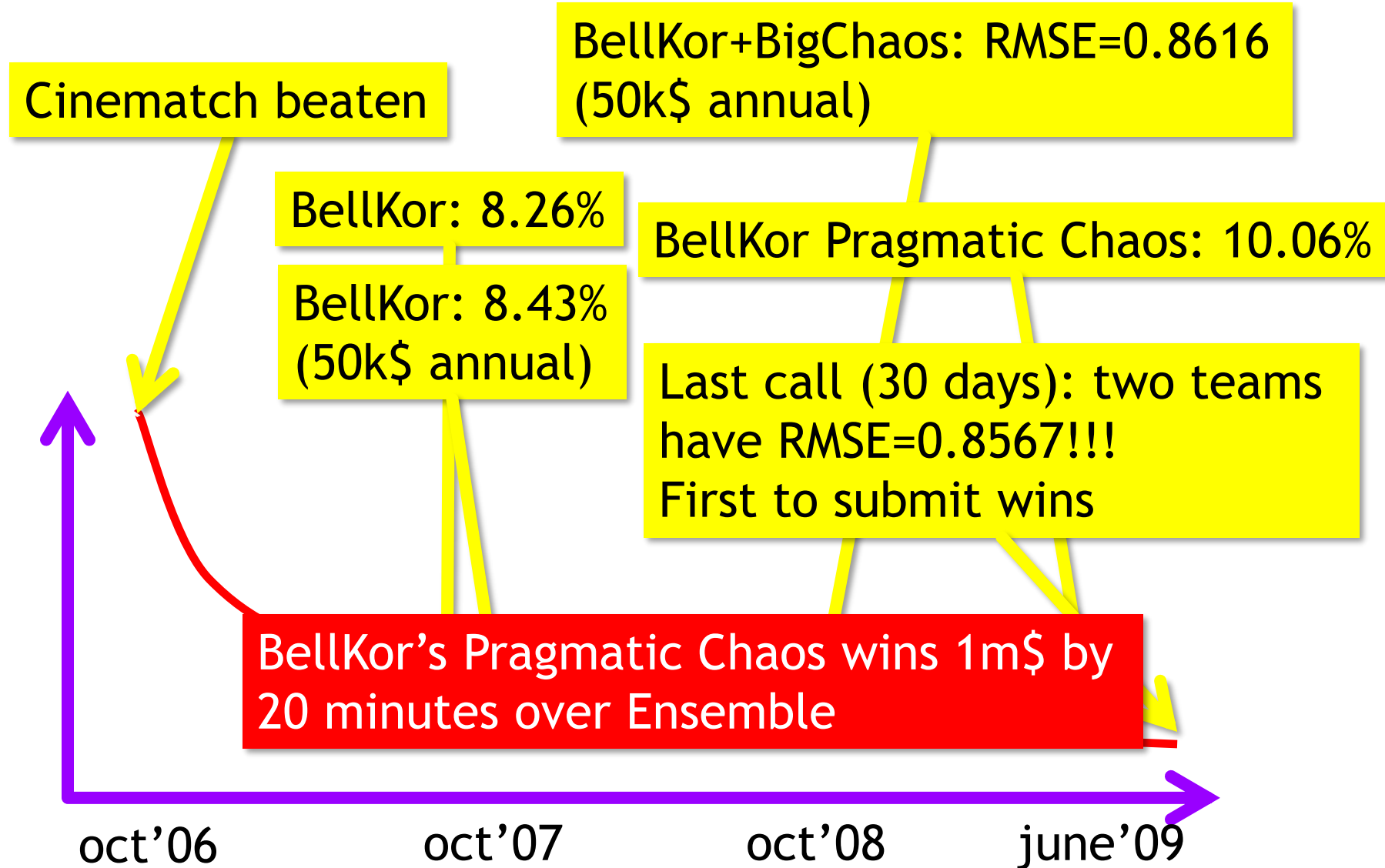
# ALS vs SGD

- Two solutions to deal with non-convexity:
  - Optimize using SGD anyway → no guarantee of finding global minimum, but in practice it usually finds a good solution
    - (some convexity guarantees exist under slightly stronger assumptions)
  - Alternating Least Squares (ALS):
    - Fix  $P$ , minimize in  $Q$ : quadratic, explicit solution
    - Fix  $Q$ , minimize in  $P$ : quadratic, explicit solution
    - Repeat until convergence
- From studies with real data: SGD usually wins in terms of computational cost for a good solution, except for very sparse datasets

# Netflix Prize: outcomes and stats

- Data set:
  - ~500k users, ~18k movies
  - 100m ratings over 5 years
- Recommender system for movies: Cinematch
  - RMSE = 0.9514
  - One week until Cinematch got outperformed!
- Stats:
  - 5000 teams (200 USD/team)
  - 44000 submissions
- Netflix required for all results to be published

# Netflix Prize



# Summary & lessons

- Advantages of collaborative filtering (CF):
  - Content-independent: works for any type of item
  - Big data: exploits large user population
- CF drawbacks:
  - Cold start (new user and new item)
  - Sparsity: most user-item pairs never observed
- Extensions:
  - Context: location, time, mood, etc.
  - Temporal factors: e.g., age of a movie - critical in netflix challenge
- Next lecture:
  - Using content to recommend
- ...and: “time is money”! ;- ) (1m\$/20 minutes)



# References

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