Where to Go Next: Modeling Long- and Short-Term User Preferences for Point-of-Interest Recommendation

Ke Sun,1 Tiyun Qian,1∗ Tong Chen,2 Yile Liang,1 Quoc Viet Hung Nguyen,3 Hongzhi Yin2∗
1Wuhan University, China
2The University of Queensland, Australia
3Griffith University, Australia
1{sunke1995,qty,liangyile}@whu.edu.cn, 2{tong.chen,h.yin1}@uq.edu.au, 3henry.nguyen@griffith.edu.au

Abstract
Point-of-Interest (POI) recommendation has been a trending research topic as it generates personalized suggestions on facilities for users from a large number of candidate venues. Since users’ check-in records can be viewed as a long sequence, methods based on recurrent neural networks (RNNs) have recently shown promising applicability for this task. However, existing RNN-based methods either neglect users’ long-term preferences or overlook the geographical relations among recently visited POIs when modeling users’ short-term preferences, thus making the recommendation results unreliable. To address the above limitations, we propose a novel method named Long- and Short-Term Preference Modeling (LSTPM) for next-POI recommendation. In particular, the proposed model consists of a nonlocal network for long-term preference modeling and a geo-dilated RNN for short-term preference learning. Extensive experiments on two real-world datasets demonstrate that our model yields significant improvements over the state-of-the-art methods.

1 Introduction
Location-based social networks (LBSNs) like Foursquare and Yelp are becoming pervasive in our daily lives. Users on LBSNs would like to share with friends their experiences on points of interest (POIs), e.g., restaurants and museums. The huge number of accumulated user check-in data proliferates researches on recommending POIs to unvisited users. POI recommendation is of high value to both the users and service providers, and has thus attracted much attention from researchers in the recent years (Yin et al. 2016; Cheng et al. 2018; Zhao et al. 2019).

The task of next-POI recommendation (Feng et al. 2018) is a natural extension to general POI recommendation. It aims to provide personalized recommendations on POIs to a user based on her/his historical check-in sequence. The user’s long sequence can be further partitioned into multiple trajectories, where each trajectory contains a set of check-ins occurring in a specific time window such as one day or one week. By partitioning the sequence into trajectories, the next-POI recommenders facilitate the modeling of users’ long- and short-term preferences. The short-term preferences indicate that the next POI a user will visit is influenced by her/his recently visited venues in the current trajectory. For example, a user may visit a bar right after having dinner in a restaurant. The long-term preferences denote a user’s general interests mined from her/his historical trajectories. In summary, the long-term preferences are usually stable, while the short-term preferences tend to change frequently over time.

In next-POI recommendation, with the assumption that a user’s next destination is highly correlated with her/his recently visited POIs in the current trajectory, most existing studies mainly focus on modeling the dynamics of short-term user preferences. For example, Cheng et al. (2013) apply a localized region constraint by factorizing personalized Markov Chain (FPMC) (Rendle, Freudenthaler, and Schmidt-Thieme 2010), and Feng et al. (2015) consider the personalized sequential information as well as model the geographical influence by calculating the distance between the destination POI and recently visited ones. More recently, researchers adopt recurrent neural networks (RNNs) and other variants like Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) or Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) to characterize users’ dynamic short-term preferences, such as ST-RNN (Liu et al. 2016), TMCA (Li, Shen, and Zhu 2018) and CARA (Manotumruksa, Macdonald, and Ounis 2018).

In addition to the short-term preference dynamics reflected by the recent check-in behaviors, human mobility exhibits long-term periodical regularities. For instance, in a student’s daily routine, she/he may go to a school cafeteria at lunch time in workdays. Unfortunately, in next-POI recommendation, only a few studies have taken both long- and short-term preferences into account. A successful example is the DRCF (Manotumruksa, Macdonald, and Ounis 2017) which captures users’ general long-term preferences with Collaborative Filtering (CF). DeepMove (Feng et al. 2018) exploits a deep neural network with two attention mechanisms to model the long-term periodicity. For short-term preference modeling, RNN-based approaches are adopted by both DRCF and DeepMove. As a recent attempt,
STGN (Zhao et al. 2019) presents a gated mechanism to model both long- and short-term interests, which is also under the LSTM architecture.

Though RNNs have shown inspiring results in characterizing the sequential dependency, they have an inherent limitation as they can only model consecutive activities in the user’s check-in sequence. For example, given a user’s POI check-in sequence \( \{l_1, l_2, l_3, l_4, l_5\} \), suppose \( l_1 \) is the user’s work place, \( l_2 \) is her/his home, \( l_3 \) and \( l_4 \) are respectively a restaurant and a cinema, and \( l_5 \) is a petrol station on her/his way home. Then, RNNs will model the sequence strictly according to the user’s movement from home to work place, then to restaurant and cinema, and finally home. However, in this case, the user’s movement from restaurant to cinema may be different, and \( l_5 \) is her/his petrol station on her/his way home. Then, RNNs will model the sequence strictly according to the user’s movement from home to work place, then to restaurant and cinema, and finally home. Moreover, only a few methods are presented for modeling the long-term preferences. In contrast, our proposed model considers both the long- and short-term preferences, with a geo-dilated RNN to capture geographical influence from non-consecutive POIs and a context-aware non-local structure to identify spatiotemporally relevant trajectories from the history.

Overall, all the RNN/LSTM based approaches for modeling the short-term preferences suffer from the drawback of being unable to model the relations between two non-consecutive POIs. Moreover, only a few methods are presented for modeling the long-term preferences. In contrast, our proposed model considers both the long- and short-term preferences, with a geo-dilated RNN to capture geographical influence from non-consecutive POIs and a context-aware non-local structure to identify spatiotemporally relevant trajectories from the history.

### 3 Problem Formulation

Let \( U = \{u_1, u_2, ..., u_{|U|}\} \) denote a set of LBSN users, and \( L = \{l_1, l_2, ..., l_{|L|}\} \) be a set of POIs, where each POI is geocoded by a \((\text{longitude}, \text{latitude})\) tuple, i.e., \((lon_l, lat_l)\). For each user \( u \in U \), we can obtain a trajectory sequence represented by \( S = \{S_1, S_2, ..., S_n\} \), where \( n \) is the index of the current trajectory. Each trajectory \( S_m \in S \) consists of a sequence of POIs visited by the user \( u \) in a consecutive order, i.e., \( S_m = \{l_1, l_2, ..., l_{|S_m|}\} \) and \( l \in L \).

Given the trajectory sequence \( S \), the next-POI recommendation problem is defined as follows. For a target user \( u \in U \), along with the user’s historical trajectory sequence \( \{S_1, S_2, ..., S_{n-1}\} \) and current trajectory \( S_n = \{l_1, l_2, ..., l_{|S_n|}\} \), the most recent POI \( l_{t-1} \) that \( u \) has visited, the goal is to recommend the top-\( N \) POIs to user \( u \) at the next timestamp \( t \).

### 4 The Proposed Model

In this section, we present our proposed model in detail. Figure 1 depicts the architecture of LSTPM. It mainly consists of three modules including the long-term preference modeling, the short-term preference modeling, and the prediction module. Our main contribution lies in the first two modules, where we propose to model the long-term preferences using the nonlocal neural operation and model the short-term preferences using geo-dilated LSTM in a unified way.

#### Long-Term Preference Modeling

When modeling long-term preferences, an intuitive idea is to selectively gather the most useful information from the
Figure 1: The architecture of our LSTPM model.

history based on the current situation. In this light, as shown at the bottom of Figure 1, we design a two-layer nonlocal network structure to learn the latent representation $s^n_h$ of the target user’s long-term preference. First, given a user $u$, we encode the information of all POIs in each historical trajectory $S_h \in \{S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_{n-1}\}$ using a LSTM layer that maintains sequential dependencies:

$$h_t = LSTM(x_t, h_{t-1}), \ t \in \{1, 2, \ldots, |S_h|\}$$

(1)

where $h_t$ is the hidden state of LSTM, $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 1}$ is the $d$-dimensional embedding vector for the $t$-th POI $l_t \in S_h$ which is randomly initialized and will be trained in the network. In this way, the POIs $\{l_1, l_2, \ldots, l_{|S_h|}\}$ in $S_h$ is encoded into $\{h_1, h_2, \ldots, h_{|S_h|}\}$. Unlike the time-aware POI recommendation approaches which consider temporal cyclic effects, sequential POI recommendation (Liu et al. 2016; Manotumruksa, Macdonald, and Ounis 2018) focuses mainly on exploiting the sequential patterns of user preferences/interests without considering the associated absolute timestamps. However, the popularity of POIs is changing over time in real-life scenarios. For example, people may seek for restaurants during lunch hours and visit pubs at night. Hence the overall representation $s_h$ for each trajectory $S_h$ should incorporate such information to capture the time-sensitive property. To achieve this, we develop a time-weighted operation. Specifically, we map one week into 48 time slots (24 slots for hours on weekdays and 24 slots for hours on weekends). For each slot $i$, we construct a POI set $H_i = \{l_1, l_2, \ldots, l_{|H_i|}\}$ where $l \in L$ is a POI visited by at least one user in time slot $i$. Then, we calculate the temporal similarity $\tau_{i,j}$ between the $i$-th and $j$-th time slots as follows:

$$\tau_{i,j} = \frac{|H_i \cap H_j|}{|H_i \cup H_j|}.$$  

(2)

Intuitively, the more overlapping POIs two time slots have, the higher their similarity will be. For a historical trajectory $S_h$, according to the check-in time of each POI, we derive a sequence of check-in time slots for $|S_h|$ POIs, represented by $\{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_{|S_h|}\}$, where $p \in \{1, 2, \ldots, 48\}$. With the target user’s current time slot $c$, the trajectory-level representation $s_h$ is generated by:

$$s_h = \sum_{t=1}^{|S_h|} w_t h_t, \ w_t = \frac{\exp(\tau_{c,p_t})}{\sum_{j=1}^{|S_h|} \exp(\tau_{c,p_j})},$$

(3)

where $\tau_{c,p_j}$ is the temporal similarity between the current time slot $c$ and the time slot of the $j$-th visited POI in $S_h$.

So far, we can represent the historical $n-1$ trajectories by $\{s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_{n-1}\}$. For trajectory $S_n$, it is worth noting that we deploy a separate LSTM to explicitly model the recently visited POIs, which will later serve the goal of short-term preference modeling. Besides, for $S_n$, the time-weighted operation is replaced by an average pooling:

$$s_n = \frac{1}{|S_n|} \sum_{i=1}^{|S_n|} h_i,$$

(4)

where the rationale is that, the freshly visited POIs in trajectory $S_n$ are more representative of users’ recent preferences, and the average pooling preserves the information of all POIs in $S_n$, which can benefit both long- and short-term preference modeling.

After learning the representations $\{s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n\}$ for all trajectories $S' = \{S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_n\}$, to fulfill the goal of identifying relevant trajectories from the history to represent the user’s long-term preferences, we derive the trajectory-based long-term user preference $s^n_u \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 1}$ with respect to the current trajectory $S_n$ using a nonlocal operation.

The basic idea of nonlocal networks is originated from computer vision tasks (Wang et al. 2018). It aims to represent each position of the input signal (e.g., images or sequences) by a weighted sum of the features at all positions to enable the modeling of nonlocal, long-range dependencies. In our case, we tend to capture the influence of each
historical trajectory $S_h \in \{S_1, S_2, ..., S_{n-1}\}$ on the current trajectory $S_n$ based on the pairwise affinities. Formally, we develop the following nonlocal operation to calculate $s_n^*$:

$$s_n^* = \frac{1}{C(S)} \sum_{h}^{n-1} f(s_n, s_h)g(s_h),$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

where $C(S) = \sum_{h}^{n-1} f(s_n, s_h)$ is the normalization factor, and $g(\cdot)$ generates the representation for $s_h$. The pairwise function $f(\cdot)$ calculates an affinity score between the current trajectory $S_n$ and the historical trajectory $S_h$. Specifically, in our solution, $f(s_n, s_h)$ and $g(s_h)$ are defined as:

$$f(s_n, s_h) = \exp(s_n^T s_h),$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

$$g(s_h) = W_h s_h,$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

where $s_n$ and $s_h$ are the representations of the current and historical trajectory $S_n$ and $S_h$, respectively, while $W_h$ is a trainable projection weight matrix.

With the trajectory-based user preference $s_n^*$, we further derive the location-based long-term user preference by taking the user's most recently visited location into account. Intuitively, for next-POI recommendation, the target user's next move will be highly dependent on her/his current geographic location, and a smart recommender should recommend POIs in New York when a user has just updated a check-in record in New York. So, we build a geononlocal structure to compute a fine-grained long-term preference $s_n^+$. To geographically measure the similarity between the current location $l_{t-1}$ and historical trajectories $\{S_1, S_2, ..., S_{n-1}\}$, we define a central coordinate for each historical trajectory $S_n \in \{S_1, S_2, ..., S_{n-1}\}$ via the average pooling operation:

$$\text{lon}_{S_h} = \frac{\text{lon}_{i_1} + \text{lon}_{i_2} + ... + \text{lon}_{i_{|S_h|}}}{|S_h|},$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

$$\text{lat}_{S_h} = \frac{\text{lat}_{i_1} + \text{lat}_{i_2} + ... + \text{lat}_{i_{|S_h|}}}{|S_h|},$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

where $\text{lon}_i$ and $\text{lat}_i$ are the longitude and latitude for POI $i$ in the trajectory. Similar to Eq.(8), to incorporate the spatial impacts for long-term user preference modeling, we perform the following geo-nonlocal operation by considering the distance between $l_{t-1}$ and each historical trajectory:

$$s_n^+ = \frac{1}{\sum_{h}^{n-1} \exp\left(\frac{1}{d_{n,h}} s_n^T s_h\right)} \sum_{h}^{n-1} \exp\left(\frac{1}{d_{n,h}} s_n^T s_h\right) W_h s_h,$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)

where $s_n = s_n^* + h_{t-1}$ is the aggregation of trajectory-based long-term user preference and the hidden state of the most current POI, and $d_{n,h}$ is the geographical distance between the POI location $l_{t-1}$ and the trajectory $S_h$, i.e., $d_{n,h} = \sqrt{(\text{lon}_{i_{t-1}} - \text{lon}_{S_h})^2 + (\text{lat}_{i_{t-1}} - \text{lat}_{S_h})^2}$. Clearly, the final representation $s_n^+$ combines temporal information from all trajectories and spatial associations between each historical trajectory and the last check-in location. As a result, with our dedicated nonlocal network structure, the learned long-term user preference is a comprehensive spatiotemporal representation.

**Short-Term Preference Modeling**

In POI recommendation, existing RNN-based methods treat a user’s visited POI sequence as a straight pipeline without considering any spatial relations among the POIs. Given a temporal POI check-in sequence, RNNs can only learn temporal dependencies that strictly follow the sequential order, which is illustrated in Figure 2-(a). Though some RNN-based approaches such as CARA (Manotumruksa, Macdonald, and Ounis 2018) and TMCA (Li, Shen, and Zhu 2018) take time or distance transition as additional information, they only model relationships among the inputs that are consecutive and well-aligned. However, in real-life scenarios, the visited POIs are often geographically scattered. Following the example in Section 1, within the POI check-in sequence $S_n = \{l_1, l_2, l_3, l_4, l_5\}$, $l_5$ is geographically much closer to $l_1$ than $l_4$, which means $l_2$ is critical in determining the next move from $l_4$ to $l_5$.

To alleviate such incontinuity of model inputs, dilated RNNs (Chang et al. 2017) introduce a fixed skip length on the inputs, e.g., $\{l_1, l_3, l_5\}$ for the skip length of 2. Formally, the LSTM form of dilated RNN is defined as follows:

$$h_t = LSTM(x_t, h_{t-\Delta}),$$  \hspace{1cm} (12)

where $\Delta$ is the skip length. However, the skip length in dilated RNNs is always predefined and fixed, thus making it hard to generalize to POI recommendation tasks. Hence, in what follows, we propose our geo-dilated LSTM scheme that automatically determines the relevant inputs to be used based on both geographical and temporal factors.

Figure 2-(b) presents the geo-dilated POI sequence based on the original temporal sequence. Given $S_n$, we propose Algorithm 1 to construct the input set $S_n^{geo}$ at time $t-1$ for geo-dilated LSTM.

#### Algorithm 1 Constructing the input set $S_n^{geo}$ at time $t-1$ for geo-dilated LSTM

1: **Input**: the temporal POI sequence in the recent trajectory $S_n = \{l_1, l_2, ..., l_t-1\}$
2: **Output**: the geo-dilated sequence set $S_n^{geo}$
3: initialize with $S_n^{geo} = \emptyset$, $S'_n = \emptyset$, and $i = 2$, where $i$ is an index for generating the dilated sequence;
4: compute the POI distance matrix $D \in \mathbb{R}^{(t-1) \times (t-1)}$, with entry $d_{y,z} = d_{x,y} = \sqrt{(\text{lon}_{l_{y}} - \text{lon}_{l_{z}})^2 + (\text{lat}_{l_{y}} - \text{lat}_{l_{z}})^2}$;
5: while $i \leq t-1$ do
6: set $j = i - 1$ and $D' = \emptyset$;
7: while $j \geq 1$ do
8: $d_{l_t,l_j} \rightarrow D'$;
9: $j \rightarrow j - 1$;
10: end while
11: find $d_{l_t,l_j} = \min(D')$;
12: $\{l_t, l_j\} \rightarrow S'_n$
13: $i \rightarrow i + 1$;
14: end while
15: find the path from $l_1$ to $l_{t-1}$, denoted by $\{l_1, l_\theta, ..., l_\delta, l_{t-1}\}$, where $1 < \theta < ... < \delta < t-1$;
16: $\{x_1, x_\theta, ..., x_\delta, x_{t-1}\} \rightarrow S_n^{geo}$, where each $x \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 1}$ is the embedding vector for the corresponding POI $l_i$;
17: end
for geo-dilated LSTM. In this case, \( l_3 \) has two preceding POIs in the temporal sequence: \( l_1 \) and \( l_2 \). Since the geographical distance between \( l_1 \) and \( l_3 \) is shorter than the distance between \( l_1 \) and \( l_2 \), there exists a geo-dilated sequence \( \{l_1, l_3\} \). Similarly, we construct a set of geo-dilated sequences from the temporal sequence, denoted by \( S_{geo}^n \). Afterwards, by finding the path from \( l_1 \) to \( l_5 \), we construct the input set \( S_{geo}^n = \{\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, x_5\}\} \) with the POI embedding vector \( x \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 1} \). In short, \( S_{geo}^n \) contains the two-step paths from \( l_1 \) to \( l_{t-1} \). In a mathematical form, the computation of geo-dilated LSTM involves the iteration of a two-step LSTM:

\[
h_{t-1}' = LSTM(x_{t-1}, h_0'), \quad (13)
\]

where \( h_{t-1}' \) is computed from the last sequence \( \{x_3, x_{t-1}\} \in S_{geo}^n \). Intuitively, our geo-dilated LSTM first picks POIs from the current trajectory as the input with different skip lengths determined by the geographical relevance, and then learns the short-term user preference via the dilated LSTM scheme.

At time \( t - 1 \), with the latent representations \( h_{t-1} \) and \( h_{t-1}' \) respectively learned by the standard and geo-dilated LSTMs, the final representation of the short-term user preference is an average of both vectors:

\[
h_{t-1}^+ = \frac{h_{t-1} + h_{t-1}'}{2}, \quad (14)
\]

where \( h_{t-1}^+ \) fuses the temporal dependencies from \( h_{t-1} \) with the spatial dependencies from \( h_{t-1}' \).

**Prediction**

After obtaining the representations for both long- and short-term user preferences, we compute the probability distribution \( p \) over the \( |L| \) POIs via the following:

\[
p = \text{softmax}(W_p(s_n^+ \oplus h_{t-1}^+)) \quad (15)
\]

where \( \oplus \) is the concatenation of long- and short-term user preferences, \( W_p \in \mathbb{R}^{|L| \times 2d} \) is a trainable projection matrix for all POIs. Consequently, the most likely POI that will be visited by the target user at the next time step \( t \) is the one with the largest probability. If we denote the probability of ground truth POI as \( p \in p \), then the objective function can be formulated as the log likelihood:

\[
\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \log(p_k) \quad (16)
\]

where \( N \) is the total number of training samples, \( p_k \) represents the probability of the ground truth POI generated by the model regarding the \( k \)-th training sample.

### 5 Experiments

In this section, we evaluate LSTPM by competing against the state-of-the-art methods on two real-world datasets.

#### Evaluation Datasets

We conduct experiments on two widely-used real LSBN datasets, namely Foursquare (Feng et al. 2018) and Gowalla (Yin et al. 2015). The Foursquare check-in dataset is collected from February 2010 to January 2011 in New York while Gowalla contains world-wide check-ins from February 2009 to October 2010. For both of them, we eliminate unpopular POIs that are visited by less than 10 users. We treat users’ all check-ins in one day as a single trajectory and remove trajectories having less than three check-ins. Inactive users with less than 5 trajectories are also filtered out. According to (Feng et al. 2018), the first 80% of each user’s trajectories are used for training and the rest are for testing. The statistics of both datasets after preprocessing are shown in Table 1.

**Table 1: Statistics of the evaluation datasets.**

| Datasets     | #user | #POI | #check-in | #sessions | sparsity |
|--------------|-------|------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Foursquare   | 934   | 9,296| 52,983    | 12,510    | 99.38%   |
| Gowalla      | 5,802 | 40,868| 301,080   | 75,733    | 99.87%   |

#### Baselines and Settings

We compare the performance of LSTPM with the following eight peer methods:

- **LSTM:** This is a variant of RNN model which has shown effective in handling sequential data.

- **Time-LSTM:** (Zhu et al. 2017) This is an extension of LSTM which employs time gates to model the time intervals between continuous inputs.
Table 2: Performance comparison on two datasets w.r.t. Recall$@K$ and NDCG$@K$.

|          | Foursquare   |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
|----------|--------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
|          | Rec@1 | Rec@5 | Rec@10 | NDCG@1 | NDCG@5 | NDCG@10 |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| LSTM     | 0.1024 | 0.2115 | 0.2639  | 0.1024  | 0.1597  | 0.1768   | 0.0443   | 0.0971   | 0.1259   | 0.0443   | 0.0716   | 0.0809   |
| ST-RNN   | 0.0884 | 0.2291 | 0.2968  | 0.0884  | 0.1615  | 0.1835   | 0.0505   | 0.1245   | 0.1687   | 0.0504   | 0.0885   | 0.1027   |
| Time-LSTM| 0.1307 | 0.2868 | 0.3667  | 0.1307  | 0.2117  | 0.2375   | 0.0639   | 0.1500   | 0.1963   | 0.0639   | 0.1082   | 0.1232   |
| CARA     | 0.1112 | 0.3002 | 0.3902  | 0.1113  | 0.2093  | 0.2384   | 0.0627   | 0.1563   | 0.2090   | 0.0627   | 0.1112   | 0.1283   |
| DRCF     | 0.1118 | 0.2743 | 0.3466  | 0.1118  | 0.1971  | 0.2206   | 0.0751   | 0.1709   | 0.2192   | 0.0751   | 0.1249   | 0.1406   |
| DeepMove | 0.1451 | 0.3110 | 0.3831  | 0.1451  | 0.2323  | 0.2556   | 0.0681   | 0.1330   | 0.1656   | 0.0681   | 0.1023   | 0.1128   |
| TMCA     | 0.0953 | 0.2198 | 0.2722  | 0.0953  | 0.1601  | 0.1771   | 0.0499   | 0.1208   | 0.1588   | 0.0499   | 0.0865   | 0.0988   |
| STGN     | 0.1118 | 0.2730 | 0.3547  | 0.1118  | 0.1951  | 0.2217   | 0.0745   | 0.1600   | 0.2041   | 0.0745   | 0.1191   | 0.1333   |
| LSTPM    | 0.1561 | 0.3372 | 0.4091  | 0.1561  | 0.2515  | 0.2749   | 0.0984   | 0.2021   | 0.2510   | 0.0984   | 0.1523   | 0.1681   |

**ST-RNN:** (Liu et al. 2016) This is a RNN-based deep POI recommendation model that incorporates spatial-temporal transition matrices.

**TMCA:** (Li, Shen, and Zhu 2018) This method fuses multiple types of context including spatiotemporal transitions and POI categories with two attention mechanisms. Note that we remove the POI categorical context for fairness because no other methods make use of it.

**CARA:** (Manotumruksa, Macdonald, and Ounis 2018) This method extends the GRU gates to respectively model the ordinary and transition context for POI recommendation.

**DCRF:** (Manotumruksa, Macdonald, and Ounis. 2017) This method aims to capture both users’ dynamic and static preferences for POI recommendation. In our case, it can also model long- and short-term preferences.

**DeepMove:** (Feng et al. 2018) This method learns user’s long-term preference from the history with the attention mechanism and learns short-term preference from the current trajectory using a RNN module.

**STGN:** (Zhao et al. 2019) This method models temporal and spatial contexts by adding time and distance gates to integrate time and distance intervals.

Following (Feng et al. 2018), we set the dimension of embeddings and the hidden states to 500 for all deep learning-based methods. All the parameters in our model are optimized using the gradient descent optimization algorithm Adam with the batch size of 32 and the learning rate of 0.0001. Note that we do not compare our model with non-deep learning methods. The reason is that it has been widely proved that the baselines adopted in our experiments outperform the non-deep learning methods, e.g., DRCF (Manotumruksa, Macdonald, and Ounis. 2017) vs. the traditional MF, and the BPR model (Rendle et al. 2009), and thus we only show the improvements over these deep learning-based baselines.

**Evaluation Criteria**

To evaluate the performance of each method for next-POI recommendation, we adopt two evaluation metrics that are commonly-applied in previous works (Li, Shen, and Zhu 2018; Liu et al. 2016; Chen et al. 2019b): Recall$@K$ and Normalized Discounted Cumulative Gain (NDCG$@K$). Recall$@K$ measures the presence of the correct POI among the top $K$ recommended POIs, and NDCG$@K$ measures the quality top-$K$ ranking list. In this paper, we choose the popular $K = \{1, 5, 10\}$ for evaluation.

**Analysis on Recommendation Effectiveness**

The results of different methods for next-POI recommendation are shown in Table 2. In each column, the best result is highlighted in boldface and the second best is underlined. From the statistics, we draw the following observations:

- Our proposed LSTPM consistently and significantly outperforms all baselines in terms of every metric on both Foursquare and Gowalla datasets. For example, on Foursquare, compared with the second best method DeepMove, LSTPM improves the Recall$@5$ and NDCG$@5$ by 8.4% and 8.2% respectively. On Gowalla, our method shows the advantage against others by an obvious margin, where the overall improvement over the best competitor DCRF achieves 22.7% on average. The quantitative evaluation clearly demonstrates the superior effectiveness of our method.

- Among the baseline methods, DeepMove performs the best on Foursquare dataset while DCRF is the best on Gowalla dataset. As both approaches take the long- and short-term preferences into consideration, it strongly illustrates the importance of modeling long-term preferences from historical information apart from short-term preference modeling. However, without the consideration of transition contexts (e.g., time or distance), DCRF and DeepMove can hardly maximize the recommendation accuracy, and this is the key factor that LSTPM can outperform these two methods.

- Though showing promising results on Foursquare, the performance of DeepMove on Gowalla drops greatly. This is because DeepMove does not integrate distance information, but Gowalla contains world-wide POIs that are highly sparse. This further verifies the importance of geographical distance for POI recommendation.

- ST-RNN, Time-LSTM, CARA, TMCA, STGN are better than LSTM. This shows the advantage of modeling the spatiotemporal relations among different POIs. In addition, TMCA performs worse than ST-RNN, Time-LSTM, CARA, and STGN as it simply takes contextual information as the input. In contrast, other methods integrate spatial or temporal information into the RNN model, which can result in the eventual performance improvement.
Table 3: Performance of different LSTPM variants.

|               | Foursquare |          |          |          |          | Gowalla |          |          |          |          |
|---------------|------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|---------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
|               | Rec@1      | Rec@5    | Rec@10   | NDCG@1   | NDCG@5   | NDCG@10 | Rec@1   | Rec@5    | Rec@10   | NDCG@1   | NDCG@5   | NDCG@10 |
| best baseline | 0.1451     | 0.3110   | 0.3902   | 0.1451   | 0.2323   | 0.2556  | 0.0751  | 0.1709   | 0.2192   | 0.0751   | 0.1249   | 0.1406  |
| LSTPM-L       | 0.1191     | 0.3121   | 0.3912   | 0.1191   | 0.2203   | 0.2460  | 0.0755  | 0.1682   | 0.2100   | 0.0755   | 0.1243   | 0.1378  |
| LSTPM-S       | 0.1116     | 0.2187   | 0.2642   | 0.1116   | 0.1673   | 0.1780  | 0.0716  | 0.1539   | 0.1941   | 0.0716   | 0.1145   | 0.1275  |
| LSTPM         | 0.1561     | 0.3372   | 0.4091   | 0.1561   | 0.2515   | 0.2749  | 0.0984  | 0.2021   | 0.2510   | 0.0984   | 0.1523   | 0.1681  |

Analysis on Key Components in LSTPM

To verify the contribution of different components in LSTPM to the performance gain, we further implement two simplified versions of our model to conduct ablation tests:

- **LSTPM-L**: This version removes the short-term component of LSTPM and only engages the long-term one.
- **LSTPM-S**: This version removes the long-term component of LSTPM and only engages the short-term one.

The results of the degraded versions of LSTPM on two datasets are shown in Table 3. Through the ablation tests, we can observe that:

- LSTPM-L always performs better than LSTPM-S, and its results on Gowalla are very close to the strongest baselines. The reason might be that LSTPM-L can better capture users’ long-term periodicity based on her/his current state, which is critical for next-POI recommendation. This clearly demonstrates the benefit of our modeling users’ long-term preferences.
- While LSTPM-S is less competitive than LSTPM-L, it can still get better prediction performance than many baselines such as LSTM and ST-RNN in Table 2. Remember that these methods also adopt LSTM structures. Hence the effectiveness of LSTPM-S comes from our proposed geo-dilated LSTM which captures geographical relations among non-consecutive POIs.
- The complete model LSTPM, which is the combination of LSTPM-L and LSTPM-S, achieves the best performance on both datasets, showing that both long-term and short-term preferences have positive impacts on the user’s choice to the next POI.

Analysis on Impact of History Length

One key contribution of our LSTPM model is that it takes historical information into account to mine the long-term preferences. We investigate the impact of different history lengths on modeling long-term preferences. We split the users’ trajectories into 7 groups based on their numbers of historical trajectories. The first group contains users having 4 or less historical trajectories, while users having 10 or more ones are in the last group. We then evaluate the performance separately regarding each group as the model input. The results are shown in Figure 3.

Fig. 3 shows an overall upward trend of model performance on two datasets with the growing history length, as it takes time to reveal people’s periodical regularities. The longer the history length is, the more information can be extracted by our long-term preference modeling component.

Analysis on Effectiveness of Geo-Dilated LSTM

Another contribution of our LSTPM model lies in the geo-dilated LSTM which is used to capture the relations between non-consecutive POIs in the current session. In this section, we examine the effectiveness of geo-dilated LSTM and the LSTM on modeling the short-term preference. Note that to exclude the influence of the long-term component, we conduct this experiment on the short-term component, i.e., we implement two variants of LSTPM-S. One uses the LSTM structure, and the other adopts the combination of LSTM and Geo-Dilated LSTM. The results are shown in Figure 4.
In this case, the geographical relation play more important role than the temporal visiting order. It therefore links to the positive effect of our proposed geo-dilated LSTM structure.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose a novel model, namely LSTPM for next-POI recommendation. Specifically, we develop a context-aware non-local model to model long-term preferences and a geo-dilated LSTM to model short-term preferences. The experimental results demonstrate that our proposed approach substantially improves the recommendation accuracy compared with the state-of-the-art methods. Notably, while our proposed method outperforms all baselines, we are aware of the common problem in POI recommendation, i.e., the low recall and NDCG scores. This is reasonable due to the high data sparsity. In the future, we plan to address this issue by introducing user/POI side information.

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