Probabilistic Ensemble of Collaborative Filters

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Abstract

Collaborative filtering is an important technique for recommendation. Whereas it has been repeatedly shown to be effective in previous work, its performance remains unsatisfactory in many real-world applications, especially those where the items or users are highly diverse. In this paper, we explore an ensemble-based framework to enhance the capability of a recommender in handling diverse data. Specifically, we formulate a probabilistic model which integrates the items, the users, as well as the associations between them into a generative process. On top of this formulation, we further derive a progressive algorithm to construct an ensemble of collaborative filters. In each iteration, a new filter is derived from re-weighted entries and incorporated into the ensemble. It is noteworthy that while the algorithmic procedure of our algorithm is apparently similar to boosting, it is derived from an essentially different formulation and thus differs in several key technical aspects. We tested the proposed method on three large datasets, and observed substantial improvement over the state of the art, including L2-Boost, an effective method based on boosting.

Introduction

Over the past decades, recommender systems have become an inherent part of e-commerce and many online sharing services. It was shown in previous study (Rendle et al. 2009) that targeted recommendation is an effective way to influence consumers and promote business. The key to a successful recommender system is the relevance of the recommendations. However, identifying products that are relevant to a user’s interest has never been a trivial task.

From a technical perspective, recommendations are usually produced by either content-based fashion or collaborative filtering. The former relies on comparing the features of an item and those rated by a given user; while the latter infers the preferences of a user based on those from other users with similar histories. In real-world applications, collaborative filtering has shown great effectiveness (Hu, Koren, and Volinsky 2008) and its success has been exemplified on the Netflix Prize (Bennett, Lanning, and others 2007).

On the other hand, despite the extensive studies devoted to improving collaborative filters, the performances of current collaborative filtering techniques remain unsatisfactory in a number of practical applications. A key challenge lies in the diversity of the real-world data. Take the books sold on Amazon for example. Different customers may purchase a book for different reasons – some may find the story interesting while others are perhaps just attracted by the authors. In collaborative filtering, each item is encoded by a fixed vector, and so is each user. Such a formulation may not be able to provide the needed capacity to capture the diverse ways in which users may evaluate an item.

A natural idea to improve the capability of handling diverse data is to construct an ensemble, which can combine multiple predictors specialized in different kinds of data. Ensemble methods, as an important family of techniques in machine learning, have been extensively studied (Friedman et al. 2000; Bühlmann and Yu 2003). However, the use of ensemble methods for recommendation remains relatively limited. Most of the approaches (Wu et al. 2016; Lee et al. 2013) just work in a vanilla weighted-sum fashion.

With these challenges in mind, we develop a new method for constructing a collaborative filter ensemble. Unlike existing methods for this task (Lee et al. 2013), our method is based on a probabilistic generative model, in which the latent embeddings for both items and users are generated from a prior distribution, and the predictions are then derived from a distribution conditioned on the given embeddings. With this setting, an ensemble can thus be formalized as a mixture model, of which each component is a probabilistic predictor. On top of this formulation, we further derive a progressive construction algorithm. This algorithm begins with a basic collaborative filter. Then in each iteration, it tries to obtain a new one that is complementary to the current ensemble by learning from a re-weighted set. The new predictor will then be incorporated into the ensemble. It is worth noting that using this progressive method, one need not prescribe the size of the ensemble, i.e. the number of component filters. The algorithm can proceed until the performance saturates or the ensemble reaches the maximum allowed size.

We evaluated the proposed method on three large datasets, MovieLens (Harper and Konstan 2016), CiteULike (Wang...
and Blei 2011), Netflix (Bennett, Lanning, and others 2007), comparing it with other recommendation methods, especially those for constructing collaborative filter ensembles. Experimental results showed that our method consistently outperforms others on all three datasets. We also conducted a series of ablation studies to investigate how different modeling choices influence the overall performance.

Related Work

Among the various approaches for constructing predictor ensemble, Boosting methods such as AdaBoost and L2-Boost (Bühlmann and Yu 2003; Bühlmann and Hothorn 2007; Friedman et al. 2000), show great capability and have been widely used in practice. AdaBoost works in a stage-wise manner. At each iteration, misclassified samples are assigned with higher weights and a new predictor is trained on the re-weighted set. Note that AdaBoost was developed for binary classification and thus is not directly applicable for collaborative filtering. But its underlying idea has inspired a series of other boosting formulations. L2-Boost, on the other hand, aims to fit the raw data distribution, specifically with L2 Loss. Thus it is very suitable for regression tasks. More recently in (Suh et al. 2016), L-EnsNMF was proposed for topic modeling. It is an ensemble approach combining Nonnegative Matrix Factorization and gradient boosting. Besides, general ensemble theories have also been an active topic in recent years (Lacoste et al. 2014; Shaham et al. 2016; Lee et al. 2016b).

Along another track, Matrix co-clustering methods, which were originally introduced to explore the blocking structure of a matrix, have also been applied to construct ensembles of collaborative filters (Xue et al. 2005; Xu et al. 2012), driven by the intuition that for different subgroups of users and items, the matching relations between them can be different and may need to be modeled differently. Recently, Lee et al. proposed LLORMA (Lee et al. 2013; 2016a), with the assumption that a rating matrix is low-rank locally (i.e. within sub-matrices). Based on a related idea, Beutel et al. proposed ACCAMS together with its Bayesian counterpart bACCAMS (Beutel, Ahmed, and Smola 2015). ACCAMS is an iterative KMMeans-style algorithm, while bACCAMS is a generative Bayesian non-parametric model.

The most recent progress is CCCF (Wu et al. 2016), which adopts a probabilistic method to model overlapped co-clusters, and parallelizable MCMC for scalable inference. We note that the methods mentioned above were mostly devised for approximating real-valued matrix rather than collaborative filtering implicit feedback. Our experiments show that direct application of such methods to recommendation tasks often results in suboptimal performance.

In addition, Deep Learning methods are also attracting more and more attention (Wang, Wang, and Yeung 2015; Zheng, Noroozi, and Yu 2017). Due to space limit, however, we will not dive into more details since such methods generally require outer features while ours is focused on the ratings alone.

Formulation

Collaborative filtering is an important technique for recommendation (Hu, Koren, and Volinsky 2008; Rendle et al. 2009), and has been widely used in practical systems.

A widely adopted formulation for collaborative filtering is based on embeddings. Specifically, given a finite set of users and items, respectively denoted by $\mathcal{U} = \{u_1, \ldots, u_m\}$ and $\mathcal{V} = \{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$, it associates each user $u_i$ with an embedded vector $u_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and each item $v_j$ an embedded vector $v_j \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Then, we can compute the matching score between them based on the dot product between the corresponding embedded vectors, as $f_{ij} = u_i^T v_j$.

The embedding vectors are usually obtained by fitting the matching scores to the observed ratings on a training set. A popular method for this is Weighted Matrix Factorization (WMF) (Hu, Koren, and Volinsky 2008). It solves the embedding vectors by minimizing the following objective function:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{ij} \| r_{ij} - u_i^T v_j \|^2 + \frac{\lambda_u}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \| u_i \|^2 + \frac{\lambda_v}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \| v_j \|^2.$$

(1)

Here, $c_{ij}$ is the confidence coefficient for the observed rating $r_{ij}$, $\lambda_u$ and $\lambda_v$ are regularization coefficients. Sometimes in practice, a portion of ratings will be omitted in the training stage, for which the coefficient $c_{ij}$ will be set to zeros.

Let $U = [u_1, \ldots, u_m]$ denote the user embedding matrix of size $d \times m$, $V = [v_1, \ldots, v_n]$ the item embedding matrix of size $d \times n$, $R \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ the (observed) rating matrix with $R(i,j) = r_{ij}$, and $C \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ the confidence coefficient matrix with $C(i,j) = c_{ij}$. Then the objective function in Eq. (1) can be rewritten into a matrix form as

$$\| C \odot (R - U^T V) \|^2_F + \frac{\lambda_u}{2} \| U \|^2_F + \frac{\lambda_v}{2} \| V \|^2_F.$$

(2)

Here, $\odot$ denotes element-wise product, and $\| \cdot \|_F$ the Frobenius norm. The optimal solutions to $U$ and $V$ can be solved using alternate coordinate descent.

Probabilistic Formulation

As mentioned, the expressive power of a classical collaborative filter is limited when applied to highly diverse data. A natural idea to mitigate this problem is to construct an ensemble of filters, each specialized to a certain kind of data. Towards this goal, we explore a probabilistic formulation of collaborative filters (Mnih and Salakhutdinov 2008). As we will see, this formulation can be readily extended to an ensemble-based framework and will result in an efficient and elegant learning algorithm.

Specifically, from a probabilistic perspective, a collaborative filter can be viewed as a conditional distribution as $p(r|u, v)$, where the distribution of the rating $r$ depends on the $u$ and $v$, namely the latent embeddings of a user and an item. Based on this notion, we can formulate a probabilistic model that explains the entire generative process, including the generation of the embeddings and that of the ratings. The model is described as follows:

1. For each user $u_i$, draw an embedding $u_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_u^2 I)$. 


2. For each item $v_j$, draw an embedding $v_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2_0 I)$.
3. For each pair $(i, j)$, draw the rating from the conditional distribution $r_{ij} \sim p(r_{ij}|u_i, v_j)$.

Here, $\sigma_0$ is the prior variance of the embeddings. Given a training set with partially observed ratings, the problem is to estimate the embeddings $U = [u_1, \ldots, u_n]$ and $V = [v_1, \ldots, v_n]$. This can be done via Maximum-A-Posterior (MAP) estimation, which is to maximize the objective function given below with respect to $U$ and $V$:

$$
\sum_{(i,j)} c_{ij} \log p(r_{ij}|u_i, v_j) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \log p_0(u_i) + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \log p_0(v_j).
$$

(3)

Here, $c_{ij}$ is the confidence coefficient for the pair $(i, j)$, and $p_0$ is the probability density function for the embedding prior $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2_0 I)$. The conditional distribution $p$ is formulated as a normal distribution centered at $u_i^T v_j$:

$$
r_{ij}|u_i, v_j \sim \mathcal{N}(u_i^T v_j, \sigma^2).
$$

(4)

It is not difficult to see that under this setting, the learning problem as formulated in Eq. (3) reduces to a Weighted Matrix Factorization (WMF) problem as in Eq. (1), with the regularization coefficient given by $\lambda_u = \lambda_v = \sigma^2/\sigma^2_0$.

**Extension to Ensembles**

From a mathematical standpoint, the probabilistic formulation introduced above is equivalent to the classical WMF formulation. Moreover, this new formulation can be readily extended to an ensemble model, via probabilistic mixture modeling.

Specifically, an ensemble of collaborative filters can be considered as a probabilistic mixture model, comprising $K$ generative components. In particular, each component has its own set of embeddings for users and items. According to this setting, the conditional distribution of the rating for the pair $(i, j)$ is given by

$$
p(r|i, j, \{U^{(k)}, V^{(k)}\}_{k=1}^{K}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \cdot p(r|u_i^{(k)}, v_j^{(k)}).
$$

(5)

Here, $u_i^{(k)}$ and $v_j^{(k)}$ are respectively the embeddings for the $i$-th user and the $j$-th item, with the $k$-th component filter, $U^{(k)} = [u_1^{(k)}, \ldots, u_n^{(k)}]$ and $V^{(k)} = [v_1^{(k)}, \ldots, v_n^{(k)}]$. In addition, this mixture model also comes with a prior distribution $\pi$ over the $K$ components in the ensemble, and $\pi_k$ is the prior probability for the $k$-th component.

Generally, like other probabilistic mixture models, the model above can be estimated from a set of training data using the Expectation-Maximization (EM) algorithm (Dempster, Laird, and Rubin 1977). In our context, the EM algorithm alternates between E-steps and M-steps. Particularly, the E-step computes the posterior probability of the pair $(i, j)$ being generated from the $k$-th component, conditioned on the embeddings produced by the last iteration, as

$$
q_{ij}^{(k)} \propto \pi_k \cdot p(r_{ij}|u_i^{(k)}, v_j^{(k)}).
$$

(6)

Note that the probability values $q_{ij}^{(k)}$ are normalized such that $\sum_{k=1}^{K} q_{ij}^{(k)} = 1$ for every pair $(i, j)$. These probability values can also be considered as a set of “soft weights” that associate each pair with different components.

The M-step, instead, updates the embeddings for each component based on a re-weighted WMF. Particularly, for the $k$-th component, it can be updated by solving the following problem:

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{ij} q_{ij}^{(k)} ||r_{ij} - u_i^T v_j||^2 + \frac{\lambda_u}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} ||u_i||^2 + \frac{\lambda_v}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} ||v_j||^2.
$$

(7)

Compared to the standard WMF given by Eq. (1), the only change here is that the coefficient $c_{ij}$ is replaced by $c_{ij} q_{ij}^{(k)}$. Therefore, the problem can be solved similarly. The M-step also updates the prior probabilities as $\pi_k \propto \sum_{(i,j)} c_{ij} q_{ij}^{(k)}$.

**Progressive Construction Algorithm**

While the EM algorithm presented above is a standard way to estimate mixture models, we found empirically in our study that it does not work very well for the recommendation task. A key issue here is that the component filters initialized randomly (i.e. on a random partition of the ratings) are not sufficiently complementary. While the E-M updates can optimize them to a certain extent, they are pretty much trapped in a suboptimal configuration.

For an ensemble model to work, the key is complementarity, namely, to maintain a diverse set of components that are complementary to each other. In this work, we develop a new algorithm for constructing an ensemble of collaborative filters. Instead of having all components randomly initialized at the very beginning and then performing iterative updates, it constructs the ensemble in a progressive manner, that is, to add one component at a time. Each new component will be learned to complement the current ensemble, with focus placed on those entries that are not well predicted.

**Overall Procedure**

Specifically, this algorithm begins with a standard WMF predictor, with all observed entries weighted equally. The first component may produce reasonable predictions for a considerable portion of ratings. However, for a diverse dataset, there can be certain parts that are not well predicted. New components will be introduced in following iterations to reinforce them.

Next, the key question is how to derive a new component that can complement the current ensemble. In particular, suppose the current ensemble gives a conditional distribution $p(r|i, j)$, as in Eq. (5). Now, we want to add one filter $p'(r|i, j)$. If we assign a weight $\alpha$ to the new component $p'$ and thus a weight $(1 - \alpha)$ to the existing ensemble, then the combined distribution would be:

$$
p_\alpha(r|i, j) = (1 - \alpha) \cdot p(r|i, j) + \alpha \cdot p'(r|i, j).
$$

(8)

This is similar to a finite mixture model, except that this mixture contains exactly two components, an existing ensemble and a new filter, and that the first component $p$ is
fixed. Hence, we can estimate $p'$ with a restricted version of the EM algorithm:

1. Compute the association weights to both components for each observed pair $(i, j)$. Here, we denote the posterior weight to the new component by $\rho_{ij}$, and thus the weight to the existing ensemble is $(1 - \rho_{ij})$.

2. Estimate the new component $p'$ based on the re-weighted pairs, where the coefficient for the pair $(i, j)$ is $c_{ij} \cdot \rho_{ij}$.

Computing $\rho_{ij}$

It is important to note that when computing the posterior weights $\rho_{ij}$, the embeddings of the new component $p'$ are still unavailable and thus needs to be marginalized out. The marginalized conditional distribution for the new component is

$$p(r|i, j) = \int \int p'(r|u, v)p_0(u)p_0(v)dudv. \quad (9)$$

By the symmetry of the formulation, the value of $p(r|i, j)$ is a constant that does not depend on $(i, j)$ and $r$. Hence, we can simply denote it by $\bar{P}$. Therefore, with the new embeddings marginalized out, for the pair $(i, j)$, the posterior probability of being from the new component is given by

$$\rho_{ij} = \frac{\alpha \bar{P}}{\alpha \bar{P} + (1 - \alpha)p(r|i, j)}. \quad (10)$$

Let $\nu = (1 - \alpha)/(\alpha \bar{P})$, then $\rho_{ij} = 1/(1 + \nu p(r|i, j))$. Consequently, the new filter can be constructed based on a re-weighted distribution, where the ratings at $(i, j)$ is associated with a coefficient $c_{ij}\rho_{ij}$, as mentioned above. Note that in our formulation, $p(r|i, j) \propto \exp(-e_{ij}^2/\sigma^2)$, where $e_{ij}$ is the prediction error of the current ensemble for the pair $(i, j)$. Then, the weight $\rho$ is actually a function of the current prediction error $e$, as shown in Fig.1. We can see that when $e$ is relatively small, $\rho$ increases quadratically as $e$ increases, which means that the algorithm tends to assign a pair to the new component when it is not well predicted. Also, the value of $\rho$ will saturate to 1 as $e$ continues to increase.

It is noteworthy that the function $\rho$ here is controlled by two design parameters: (1) $\nu$ controls the (prior) tendency of assigning samples to the new component; and (2) $\sigma$ controls the bandwidth of the weighting curve. With a smaller value of $\sigma$, the weight $\rho$ would saturate more quickly as the error $e$ increases.

Discussions

Compared to the standard EM algorithm, the progressive method presented above has several advantages:

1. It encourages complementarity when each new component $p'$ is being constructed. This is reflected by the weighting function $\rho$. Particularly, a large prediction error by the current ensemble would result in a greater weight towards the new component. The experimental results in the next section will show that this scheme is more effective than EM.

2. It does not require $K$, the number of components, to be specified in advance. One can continue to add new filters to the ensemble until the prediction performance is satisfactory or the ensemble reaches the maximum allowed size.

3. The computation complexity for the weights $\rho_{ij}$ is constant, i.e., it does not depend on the number of components. It makes it scalable to very large ensembles.

The major computational cost of the proposed method lies at the estimation of new CF components. This cost grows linearly as the number of components increases. Note that during inference, all the components can run in parallel, so the method can scale well in a parallel or distributed environment when deployed for practical service.

Experiments

We conducted experiments to test our method on three real-world datasets that cover different application domains and have different rating densities. In this section, we first introduce the datasets, evaluation metrics, and the baseline methods, then present the comparative results and the findings from ablation studies.

Datasets

The three datasets in our experiments are described below.

1. **MovieLens** is derived from the **MovieLens 20M Dataset** (Harper and Konstan 2016). It is a large public benchmark with about 20 million ratings. Removing the users and movies which occur very rarely in the dataset, the resultant set contains 27,699 users and 6,412 movies. We treat all five-star ratings as positive while others as zeros. Then the overall rating density is about 1.00%.
2. CiteULike, provided in (Wang and Blei 2011), is a dataset about researchers and the papers they are interested in. Researchers can add the articles that they found relevant into their respective personal libraries. The author-paper associations in this context are typical implicit feedback. This dataset contains 5,551 researchers and 16,980 papers. The overall density is around 0.22%.

3. Netflix is the official dataset used in the Netflix Prize competition (Bennett, Lanning, and others 2007). The original dataset consists of about 100 million movie ratings, from 480,000 users and for 17,000 movies. Given the limited computation budget we have, we construct a subset with only the frequent users and movies. This subset contains 19,455 users and 13,135 items. Similar to above, we treat all five-star ratings as positive. The rating density for this set is around 2.45%.

The basic statistics of these datasets are summarized in Table 1. To construct the training, validation, and testing sets, we randomly split the ratings (both the positive and zeros) into three disjoint parts by the ratio 3:1:1. These parts are respectively for training, validation and testing. We employ NVIDIA Titan X GPUs to accelerate matrix computation.

### Performance Metrics

In previous work, various metrics have been used to evaluate the performance of recommenders. However, as pointed out in (Wang and Blei 2011), recall is more suitable than precision in the context of recommendation with implicit feedback, as some positive pairs would be missing from the ground-truths. For example, a user might be truly interested in an item but did not provide a rating as he/she was unaware of it. Hence, we follow the metric recall in our experiments.

Specifically, for each user, we sort all the items in descending order of the predicted scores, and select the top $M$ items to recommend. Recall@$M$ is defined as:

$$\text{Recall}@M = \frac{\text{number of positive items in top } M}{\text{number of all positive items}}.$$  

We report the Recall@$M$ metric averaged over all users. In our experiments, $M$ ranges from 50 to 200. It is worth noting that the Recall@$M$ metric also imitates how recommenders are used in the real-world services.

To provide a complementary perspective, we also use Weighted Mean Square Error (WMSE) as an additional metric, which is defined as

$$\text{WMSE} = \frac{\sum_{(i,j) \in T} c_{ij}(\hat{r}_{ij} - r_{ij})^2}{\sum_{(i,j) \in T} c_{ij}},$$

where $c_{ij}$ is exactly the confidence coefficient used in WMF. $(i,j) \in T$ indicates that WMSE is evaluated only over the entries in the testing set. This metric directly measures how well the predicted scores match the ground-truths.

### Methods to Compare

Below are all the methods we compared in our experiments.

1. **WMF.** Weighted Matrix Factorization (WMF) (Hu, Koren, and Volinsky 2008) is a popular collaborative filtering technique and often used as a baseline in literatures. It derives the latent embeddings for both users and items through regularized matrix factorization of the rating matrix $R$.

2. **ACCAMS.** Additive Co-Clustering to Approximate Matrices Succinctly (ACCAMS) was proposed in (Beutel, Ahmed, and Smola 2015) for matrix approximation. In this paper, a Bayesian version called bACCAMS was also developed. This method attempts to find local co-clusters of rows and columns to approximate a given matrix. Here, we apply to the rating matrix to obtain local collaborative filters. In our experiment, we will test the performance of bACCAMS.

3. **L2Boost+WMF.** L2Boost (Bühlmann and Hothorn 2007) is a variant of boosting that aims to minimize the $L_2$ loss. It works in a stage-wise manner. In each stage, it fits a new component to the residue of the current ensemble. In order to reduce the risk of overfitting and also leave space for subsequent training, a shrinkage parameter is usually added for a newly trained predictor.

4. **PECF.** Probabilistic Ensemble of Collaborative Filters (PECF) is our method presented in this paper. PECF constructs an ensemble of filters progressively. In each iteration, a new filter is trained on re-weighted entries in order to complement the current ensemble. In the experiments, we want to compare it with the methods listed above.

**Detailed Settings:** In our experiments, we follow the conventional practice to set the confidence coefficient $c$ in WMF; with $c = 1.0$ for positive entries and $c = 0.01$ for zero entries. For bACCAMS, we randomly sample 1% of the missing entries as the negative label. The latent embedding dimension $d$ is determined respectively on different datasets via cross validation. Particularly, we set $d$ to 50 for MovieLens, 150 for CiteULike, and 50 for Netflix. These settings are used for WMF, L2Boost and PECF for fair comparison. In addition for iterative methods, including L2Boost and our method, we limit the number of training cycles to be at most 15. As for the design parameters $\nu$ and $\sigma$ in our method, we set them to $\nu = 10.0$ and $\sigma = 1.0$ via cross validation.

|            | MovieLens |            | CiteULike |            | Netflix |            |
|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|---------|------------|
|            | Recall@50 | Recall@100 | Recall@200 | Recall@50 | Recall@100 | Recall@200 |
| bACCAMS    | 0.213     | 0.348      | 0.525     | 0.073      | 0.125    | 0.220      |
| WMF        | 0.377     | 0.540      | 0.698     | 0.388      | 0.494    | 0.594      |
| L2Boost    | 0.418     | 0.566      | 0.705     | 0.416      | 0.513    | 0.607      |
| PECF       | 0.460     | 0.606      | 0.747     | 0.446      | 0.545    | 0.645      |

### Table 2: Recall on MovieLens, CiteULike, Netflix

|            | Netflix |            |
|------------|---------|------------|
|            | Recall@50 | Recall@100 | Recall@200 |
| WMF        | 0.080    | 0.151      | 0.270      |
| L2Boost    | 0.142    | 0.271      | 0.452      |
| PECF       | 0.178    | 0.312      | 0.480      |

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Figure 2: Details in Training Rounds

Table 3: Influence of Latent Dimension $d$ on MovieLens

| Method  | $d = 30$ | $d = 50$ | $d = 80$ |
|---------|----------|----------|----------|
| PECF    | Recall@50 | 0.453 | 0.460 | 0.457 |
|         | Recall@100 | 0.601 | 0.606 | 0.602 |
|         | Recall@200 | 0.745 | 0.747 | 0.743 |
| L$_2$Boost | Recall@50 | 0.418 | 0.418 | 0.418 |
|         | Recall@100 | 0.561 | 0.566 | 0.552 |
|         | Recall@200 | 0.701 | 0.705 | 0.690 |

Table 4: Influence of $\nu$ and $\sigma$ on MovieLens

| Parameters | Recall@50 | Recall@100 | Recall@200 |
|------------|-----------|------------|------------|
| $\nu = 10, \sigma = 1$ | 0.460 | 0.606 | 0.747 |
| $\nu = 10, \sigma = 0.1$ | 0.450 | 0.598 | 0.742 |
| $\nu = 1, \sigma = 1$ | 0.435 | 0.590 | 0.738 |
| $\nu = 1, \sigma = 0.1$ | 0.431 | 0.586 | 0.735 |

Quantitative Comparison

Table 2 compares the performances of different methods on all three datasets in terms of the Recall@M metric. The experimental results suggest:

1. Ensemble methods, including L$_2$Boost and our method PECF, can notably improve the recall as compared to the WMF baseline. Particularly, PECF can deliver remarkable performance gains over a single WMF filter. On MovieLens dataset, Recall@50 is promoted from 0.377 to 0.460 (around 22% of relative gain). On CiteULike, Recall@50 is promoted from 0.388 to 0.446 (around 14.9% of relative gain). The improvement on Netflix is even more significant, where Recall@50 is promoted from 0.142 to 0.258, with the relative gain at 81.6%.

2. Among the three datasets, Netflix has the highest density, but the lowest Recall. It is partly due to the complex and ambiguous patterns in this dataset. However, our method shows great capability of handling such complicated cases.

3. The performance of bACCAMS, which was originally developed for real-valued matrix approximation, is clearly inferior to other methods under the implicit feedback setting. Especially on CiteULike, the extremely low density of the dataset leads to the poor Recall of bACCAMS.

In what follows, we will examine our method in detail, in order to study how different design parameters influence the overall performance.

Ablation Studies

We conducted ablation studies to investigate the influence of several design parameters: the number of components, the latent dimension, the re-weighting parameters $\nu$ and $\sigma$, as well as the weight of new component $\alpha$.

Number of components Both L$_2$Boost and PECF construct an ensemble progressively. They add a new component at each round. Here, we study how the number of new components, i.e. the number of training rounds, affects the overall performance, in both Recall@50 and WMSE. The result is shown in Fig. 2. Note that in these figures, when Round$\#$ = 0, the model is exactly a single WMF predictor.
First, we can see that WMSE metric is consistent with Recall@50. As mentioned, implicit feedback problems are difficult to tackle. A common solution is to treat it as a regression task and employ weighted L2 Loss during training. This consistency between WMSE and Recall in our experiments implies that the choice of weighted L2 loss as the training objective is appropriate.

We can also see that the progressive construction leads to stable improvements, both for L2Boost and PECF. Especially at the first few rounds, the improvements resulted from PECF is substantial. Compared to L2Boost, PECF not only converges faster, but also outperforms consistently and by a notable margin.

Latent embedding dimension. Now we will investigate how the latent dimension \( d \) influences the overall performance, for both PECF and L2Boost.

On MovieLens dataset, as mentioned, the best result is attained when \( d = 50 \). Table 3 show the results when \( d \) is set to 30, 50, and 80 respectively. We can see that the results are at a comparable level and not of significant difference. This implies that naively increasing the latent dimension does not lead to better results. As we have argued, PECF works in a progressive manner, and newly trained predictor works as an complementary to the current ensemble. Whereas the parameter size may be similar to a WMF predictor with higher latent dimension, the key difference lies in the way of how individual components are trained.

Re-weighting parameter \( \nu \) and \( \sigma \). In addition, we also study the influence of re-weighting parameter \( \nu \) and the bandwidth parameter \( \sigma \) on MovieLens in Table 4. Particularly, \( \nu \) controls the tendency of assigning user/item pairs to new components, while \( \sigma \) determines the bandwidth of the weighting function \( \rho \).

We can see that the best result is attained at \( \nu = 10 \) and \( \sigma = 1 \). The re-weighting curve is shown exactly in Fig. 1, where \( \rho \) gradually saturates after 2. In fact, we empirically found that most of the predictions lie before saturation, and the new weight is very similar to a vanilla quadratic function of the error \( e_{ij} \). Those points residing out of the bandwidth can be viewed as outliers and the saturation suppressed their impact, thus resulting in more reliable training.

New component weight \( \alpha \). In our model, the mixture parameter \( \alpha \) is determined dynamically, in a way that is similar to line search in steepest gradient descent. In this part, we will see the comparison with fixed \( \alpha \), and the results on MovieLens are shown in Fig. 3.

For fix settings, smaller and larger values of \( \alpha \) respectively have their own limitations. In particular, when \( \alpha = 0.2 \), the result is still slightly increasing and has not completely converged, and this is surely not an ideal situation as it requires longer training time; when \( \alpha = 0.4 \), the Recalls at the last few rounds are similar to dynamic setting, but performs worse at the first few rounds; when \( \alpha = 0.8 \), the initial converging rate is competitive, but the final converge value is not as satisfied. Overall, setting \( \alpha \) dynamically at each round is the best strategy.

Comparison to EM Algorithm

As mentioned, the ensemble is a mixture model that can be trained using the EM algorithm, first initialized and later updated in parallel. The proposed PECF method works in a progressive manner, adding one complementary component at a time. Fig. 4 show the results of both ways on MovieLens, which compare the performance of both approaches under different number of components. In this figure, the EM algorithm with random initialization is referred to as RandEM, and L2EM for initialization from L2Boost.

We observe: (1) All algorithms can improve the performance as the number of components increases; (2) RandEM and L2EM perform substantially worse than our construction method. This is partly ascribed to the reason that for EM algorithms, components are not explicitly encouraged to be complementary. This experiment, again, suggests the importance of complementarity in ensemble learning.

Conclusion

This paper presented a new method to construct an ensemble of collaborative filters for recommendation. It is based on a probabilistic mixture formulation. But unlike previous work that usually adopts EM estimation, we develop a progressive algorithm that explicitly encourages complementarity among component filters. Experiments on three large datasets, namely MovieLens, CiteULike, and Netflix, show
that the proposed method not only leads to significant performance gain over a single collaborative filter, but also outperforms other ensemble-based methods, including L2Boost and bACCCAMS, by considerable margins. It is noteworthy that our method is a generic approach to ensemble construction. While we adopt WMF as the basic component in this paper, our method can also work with other predictors as the basic components.

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