ON BINARY SIMILARITY MEASURES FOR PRIVACY-PRESERVING TOP-N RECOMMENDATIONS

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Abstract: Collaborative filtering (CF) algorithms fundamentally depend on similarities between users and/or items to predict individual preferences. There are various binary similarity measures like Kulczynski, Sokal-Michener, Yule, and so on to estimate the relation between two binary vectors. Although binary ratings-based CF algorithms are utilized, there remains work to be conducted to compare the performances of binary similarity measures. Moreover, the success of CF systems enormously depend on reliable and truthful data collected from many customers, which can only be achieved if individual users’ privacy is protected. In this study, we compare eight binary similarity measures in terms of accuracy while providing top-N recommendations. We scrutinize how such measures perform with privacy-preserving top-N recommendation process. We perform real data-based experiments. Our results show that Dice and Jaccard measures provide the best outcomes.

1 INTRODUCTION

Collaborative filtering (CF) techniques are widely used in e-commerce to provide recommendations. CF has many important applications in e-commerce, direct recommendations, and search engines (Canny, 2002). CF systems predict the preferences of an active user (a), based on the preferences of other users. The idea is that a will prefer those items that like-minded users prefer, or that dissimilar users do not. Users’ ratings about various products might be binary showing whether a user likes an item or not. Detecting and interpreting the relation between users and/or items is the heart of CF processes. Several similarity measures operating on numerical data have been suggested (Sarwar et al., 2001). However, in case of binary data, neither calculating the linear correlation nor gauging the angle between two vectors do not make sense, because they consist of only binary ratings as preferences. Thus, binary similarity measures focus on matches to determine the similarity between two vectors. A match occurs if an item is co-rated by two users for user-based similarity calculations or if two items are rated by an individual user for item-based similarity calculations. As long as binary vectors are considered, there are three categories of matches: (i) positive matches, (ii) negative matches, and (iii) opposite matches. Different similarity measures interpret the importance of those matches and state different expressions to quantify similarity.

Users might refuse to provide data at all or hesitate to provide their true data due to privacy concerns (Cranor, 2003). Users might want to hide their ratings and the products they bought. Thus, users mask their data to prevent the server from learning true ratings and rated items. With increasing privacy concerns, privacy-preserving collaborative filtering (PPCF) schemes have been receiving increasing attention (Kaleli and Polat, 2010; Polat and Du, 2008; Canny, 2002; Kaleli and Polat, 2007).

CF systems provide top-N recommendations (Huang and Huang, 2009). Producing such services require forming a neighborhood of similar users and/or items. The best similar users and/or items are determined based on the similarity between users and/or items. For the success of top-N recommendations, it is crucial to utilize the best similarity measure.

2 RELATED WORKS

Zhang and Srihari (Zhang and Srihari, 2003) examines a number of binary vector similarity/dissimilarity
measures for their recognition capability in handwritten pattern recognition, how to choose a similarity/dissimilarity measure, and how to combine hybrid features. Cha et al. (Cha et al., 2005) review, categorize, and evaluate several binary vector similarity measures for character recognition issues.

Karypis (Karypis, 2001) presents an item-based top-\(N\) recommendation algorithm that first determines the similarities between the items and then uses them to identify the set of items to be recommended. Kwon (Kwon, 2008) proposes new approaches, which can improve item selection by taking into account rating variance. Blattner (Blattner, 2009) proposes a random walk-based top-\(N\) recommendation algorithm. His method outperforms other state of the art algorithms in terms of recall. Jamali and Ester (Jamali and Ester, 2009) propose novel methods to produce top-\(N\) recommendations with or without privacy concerns. Furthermore, we want to investigate how they behave while offering top-\(N\) recommendations. Furthermore, we want to investigate how they behave while offering top-\(N\) recommendations with or without privacy concerns. We finally determine the best one (s) that can be used for better top-\(N\) recommendations with or without privacy concerns.

3 TOP-\(N\) RECOMMENDATION ALGORITHM AND BINARY SIMILARITY MEASURES

Karypis (Karypis, 2001) propose an item-based top-\(N\) recommendation algorithm assuming that a user will probably like an item similar to the ones she has already purchased. In his model, the users are represented with their transaction data in which the previously purchased items are marked as a “1” and remaining ones with a “0”. During the model building phase, for each item \(j\), the \(k\) most similar items \(\{j_1, j_2, \ldots, j_k\}\) are computed, and their corresponding similarities \(\{s_{j1}, s_{j2}, \ldots, s_{jk}\}\) are recorded. For each customer that has purchased a set \(U\) of items, this information is used to compute the top-\(N\) recommended items, as follows. First, the set \(C\) of candidate recommended items are identified by taking the union of the \(k\) most similar items for each item \(j \in U\), and removing from the union any items that are already in \(U\). Then, for each item \(c \in C\), its similarity to the set \(U\) as the sum of the similarities between all the items \(j \in U\) and \(c\) is computed, using only the \(k\) most similar items of \(j\). Finally, the items in \(C\) are sorted in non-increasing order with respect to that similarity, and the first \(N\) items are selected as the top-\(N\) recommendations.

Let \(x\) and \(y\) be two binary vectors in a \(z\)-dimensional space, and let \(A, B, C, D, \) and \(\sigma\) be defined, as follows:

\[
A = S_{11}(x, y) \\
B = S_{01}(x, y) \\
C = S_{10}(x, y) \\
D = S_{00}(x, y)
\]

\[
\sigma = [(A + B)(A + C)(B + D)(C + D)]^{1/2},
\]

where \(S_{ij}\) is the number of occurrences of commonly rated items with \(i\) in the first pattern and \(j\) in the second pattern. Eight binary similarity measures are defined in Table 1 (Gan et al., 2007).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Similarity Measure</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dice</td>
<td>(\frac{2}{x+y})</td>
<td>[0, (\frac{1}{2})]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jaccard</td>
<td>(\frac{x+y-\sigma}{x+y})</td>
<td>[0, 1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kulczinsky</td>
<td>(\frac{1}{x+y})</td>
<td>(0, (\infty))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson</td>
<td>(\frac{\sigma}{x+y})</td>
<td>(-1, 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rogers-Tanimoto (RT)</td>
<td>(\frac{x+y-2\sigma}{x+y})</td>
<td>[0, 1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russell-Rao (RR)</td>
<td>(\frac{\sigma}{x+y})</td>
<td>[0, 1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sokal-Michener (SM)</td>
<td>(\frac{\sigma}{x+y})</td>
<td>[0, 1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yule</td>
<td>(\frac{x+y+2\sigma}{x+y})</td>
<td>[-1, 1]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 PRODUCING PRIVATE TOP-\(N\) RECOMMENDATIONS ON BINARY DATA

We utilize the algorithm proposed by Karypis (Karypis, 2001). We use users’ ratings about products they bought. The set contains users’ ratings as “1” (like), “0” (dislike), or blank cells. Since customers buy or rate a small number of products given an entire item set, the database is a very sparse set. In the algorithm, \(U\) contains those items that a user bought or showed interest. In other words, we propose to deal with actual user-item rating matrix in which purchased and liked items are
marked as “1” and purchased and disliked items are marked as “0”. In addition to using binary ratings, we focus on how to offer top-N recommendations with privacy while comparing various binary similarity measures. In the following subsections, we explain the each step of the proposed scheme in detail.

### 4.1 Data Perturbation and Collection

Traditional CF algorithms fail to protect users’ privacy. Due to privacy concerns, customers might refuse to give data at all or give false data. If privacy measures are provided, they might feel more comfortable to provide their true preferences. Thus, they disguise their ratings using RRT before they send them to the data collector or a server, as follows (Kaleli and Polat, 2007): The server and the users choose a value $\theta$ from the range $[0, 1]$. Each user $i$ uniformly randomly generates a number $r_i$ over the range $[0, 1]$. Each user $i$ then compares $r_i$ with $\theta$. If $r_i \leq \theta$, then user $i$ sends the true data. Otherwise, she sends the exact opposite of the ratings vector. In other words, she changes 1s to 0s and 0s to 1s. Each user can place their ratings into a single vector and perturb them in the same way. However, if one rating is determined by the server, it can learn all ratings. Thus, users can partition the items into $M$ groups, where the RRT is used to perturb each group independently. Note that $M$ is constant and $1 < M < m$, where $m$ is the number of items. Users partition their data into $M$ groups in the same way; but, they mask each group independently. This way, the server or the CF system cannot learn the true ratings. With probability $\theta$, the received data is true and it is false with probability $1-\theta$.

Users also want to hide their rated items. Each user might insert fake ratings into their profile to avoid referred privacy weakness. But not to reduce the accuracy of the system, it is important to choose how many fake ratings to insert. Let $d_i$ be density of the user $i$ vector and $f_i$ be the upper bound of filling percent, $f_i$ is associated with $d_i$ and current filling percent ($f_{ci}$) is determined as a random value over the range $[0, f_i]$. After determining $f_{ci}$, each user $i$ inserts fake ratings into uniformly randomly selected $f_{ci}$ percent of unrated cells. After filling some of the unrated items cells ($e$), the users utilize RRT to mask the filled vectors as explained previously. They finally send their perturbed data to the system. Another issue to be addressed is protecting a’s privacy. Like other users, $a$ also perturbs her private data similarly.

Although we apply similar methodology to disguise private data as explained in (Kaleli and Polat, 2007), there are some differences. First, the authors in (Kaleli and Polat, 2007) propose to use the 1-out-of-n oblivious transfer protocol to protect a’s privacy. However, in our scheme, $a$ disguises her data like other users do. Second, with increasing $M$ values, online performance significantly degrades in their scheme. However, since the proposed scheme is based on item-to-item similarities, which are estimated off-line, our scheme is able to offer top-N recommendations efficiently even if with larger $M$ values. Third, in their scheme, users choose $f_{ci}$ over the range $(1, 1)$, where they varied $\gamma$ from 0 to 100. However, we associated $f_{ci}$ with density ($d_i$).

### 4.2 Off-line Model Construction

Model construction includes estimating similarities between items, sorting them in non-increasing order, and storing them. Similarities between items are estimated via eight different binary similarity measures to distinguish between their characteristics in CF framework and determine the most proper ones to employ. Binary similarity measures compute the similarity between two binary vectors; however, $D$, representing true users’ ratings, does not present. Without privacy concerns, it is trivial to estimate similarities between various binary vectors. Due to underlying data disguising methods, it becomes a challenge to estimate the same similarities from perturbed data. $D'$, masked user-item matrix, is obtained after collecting data from many users. Therefore, actual rates cannot be determined exactly, but according to disguising scheme (number of groups, $M$ and disguising rate, $\theta$), an inference can be made to estimate similarities between features. Since $S_{ij}$ is the occurrence of commonly rated items for two items’ ratings vector, $S_{ij}'$ represents the exact opposite of the ratings, where $j' \in \{0, 1\}$. Thus, we cannot simply increment the related variable, $S_{ij}$, due to disguising mechanism. All the values are correct in $D'$ with a probability of $\theta$. Thus, to estimate $S_{ij}$ values, all possible combinations of the match should be considered, as follows:

\[
S_{ij} = S_{ij} + (\theta \times \theta) = S_{ij} + \theta^2
\]

\[
S_{i'j} = S_{i'j} + ((1 - \theta) \times \theta) = S_{i'j} + \theta - \theta^2
\]

\[
S_{ij'} = S_{ij'} + (\theta \times (1 - \theta)) = S_{ij'} + \theta - \theta^2
\]

\[
S_{i'j'} = S_{i'j'} + (1 - \theta) \times (1 - \theta) = S_{i'j'} + (1 - \theta)^2.
\]

Since collected data are masked, for example, when there are 1s in the first and the second pattern, $S_{ij}$ is incremented by $\theta^2$ instead of 1. Similarly, other $S_{ij}$ values are estimated from perturbed data. Once such values are estimated, similarity values between various items can be easily estimated using the aforementioned eight similarity measures. Fi-
nally, for each item, the $k$ most similar items are determined and stored. Such model constructed off-line is then used to produce top-$N$ recommendations online. Since the model is generated from masked data, it can be considered as a private model preserving individual users’ privacy.

4.3 Producing Private Top-$N$ Recommendations

To produce top-$N$ recommendations, a basket of items ($U$) consisting of purchased items for $a$ and a set of candidate items ($C$) containing the union of the $k$ most similar items (not in $U$) for each item $j \in U$ are created. Then, for each item $c \in C$, the relationship of that item to $U$ is computed as the sum of previously recorded similarity values of $c$ to all items $j \in U$. Items in $C$ are sorted according to their relationships to $U$ and the first $N$ of them are selected as a top-$N$ recommendation list.

5 PRIVACY AND OVERHEAD
COSTS ANALYSIS

Since all the computations are performed on collected disguised data set $D'$, users’ privacy is preserved properly. As explained in (Kaleli and Polat, 2007), privacy can be measured with respect to the reconstruction probability ($p$) with which the CF system can obtain the true ratings vector of a user given disguised data. With increasing $p$, privacy level decreases. If we increase randomness, privacy enhances; however, that makes accuracy worse. With increasing $M$ and $\theta$ values towards 0.5, $p$ decreases, while privacy increases. In (Kaleli and Polat, 2007), the authors advice to increase $M$ up to five due to performance reasons. However, in our scheme, users can partition their ratings into more than five groups because computations are performed off-line and item-to-item similarities rather than user-to-user ones are estimated. Thus, users can achieve higher privacy level using our scheme. Due to inserted fake ratings, the server cannot learn the rated items. The probability of guessing the correct $f$, is 1 out of $f$, where $f$ can be $0, d/2, d,$ or $2d$. Similarly, it can guess the correct value of $f$ with probability 1/4. After guessing them, it can compute $e$ (number of filled cells). Finally, the probability of guessing the $e$ randomly selected cells among $m'$ empty cells is 1 out of $C_{m'}^e$, where $C_{m'}^e$ represents the number of ways of picking $h$ unordered outcomes from $g$ possibilities and $m'$ represents the number of empty cells.

The proposed scheme is able to offer recommendations efficiently because model construction is done off-line. Compared to the scheme proposed by (Karypis, 2001), our scheme does not cause any additional online costs due to privacy concerns. Online computation and communication (number of communications and amount of data to be transferred) costs do not increase. Although the users add fake ratings and disguise their data and that increases computation costs performed off-line, they are not critical for the success of CF systems.

6 ACCURACY ANALYSIS

We performed various experiments using two well-known real data sets. We used MovieLens Public (MLP) and EachMovie (EM) data sets. GroupLens at the University of Minnesota (www.cs.umn.edu/research/GroupLens) collected MLP containing ratings of 943 users for 1,682 movies in a range of 1 to 5. EM data set (McJonese, 1997) contains ratings of 72,916 users for 1,628 movies. User ratings were recorded on a numeric six-point scale, ranging from 0 to 1. We measured accuracy using recall (Karypis, 2001):

$$\text{recall} = \frac{\text{Number of hits}}{n},$$

where $n$ is the number of users in the experiments.

We first transformed numerical ratings into two labels (like and dislike). We then uniformly randomly selected 1,000 users who have rated at least two positive ratings from EM and we used all 943 users in MLP. We uniformly randomly split each set into train and test set by randomly choosing one of the liked items of each user as a test item. The remaining ratings are used for training. We set $N$ at 10 to produce top-10 recommendations and set $k$ at 10, which happens to give the promising results (Karypis, 2001). We used eight different models constructed with each binary similarity measure. We ran our trials 10 times using different train and test sets. To disguise data, we set $M$ at 3 and $\theta$ at 0.7. We repeated data masking 100 times and presented the overall average values.

We conducted an experiment to show the difference between using transaction data (TD) and users’ ratings data (RD) to build a model. We used both data sets generating models using all binary similarity measures. We set $n$ at 1,000 and 943 for EM and MLP, respectively. We displayed the results in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 for both data sets.

As seen from Fig. 1 and Fig. 2, using ratings data is usually more useful. For MLP data set, six of eight similarity measures perform better for ratings
ON BINARY SIMILARITY MEASURES FOR PRIVACY-PRESERVING TOP-N RECOMMENDATIONS

Figure 1: Transaction data vs. ratings data (MLP).

Figure 2: Transaction data vs. ratings data (EM).

Figure 3: Recall with varying $f$ values (MLP).

Figure 4: Recall with varying $f$ values (EM).

Figure 5: Recall with varying $n$ values.

data than for transaction data. Only Kulzinsky and Pearson similarity measures perform better for transaction data. Dice, Jaccard, RT, SM, and RR give very promising results for ratings data. The best results are obtained using Dice and Jaccard measures. Similarly, for EM data set, six of eight measures achieve higher accuracy for ratings data than transaction data. Pearson measure almost achieves the same result. Only Kulzinsky gives better results for transaction data. Like MLP data set, Dice and Jaccard measures give the best results. Kulzinsky is not a good choice to use with sparse sets. It is a good choice for dense sets.

To show the effects of data disguising measures, we performed experiments while varying $f$ from 0 to $2d$. We built our model with each binary similarity measure. We ran experiments using both data sets and presented the overall averages for Dice and Jaccard measures only in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 for MLP and EM, respectively. Note that $f = 0$ means that users do not insert any fake ratings. As seen from Fig. 3, due to RRT, accuracy decreases for both measures for MLP. On the other hand, when $f$ is $d/2$, accuracy improves for both measures. For $f$ values larger than $d/2$, recall slightly diminishes. For EM, as seen from Fig. 4, similarly, accuracy becomes worse due to privacy concerns. When users fill some their empty cells with fake ratings, recall slightly becomes better. With increasing $f$ values, the quality of the referrals improves. However, such improvements are very stable. As expected, accuracy becomes worse for both data sets for both measures due to privacy-preserving measures. Compared to MLP, accuracy losses are smaller for EM. However, the results are still promising.

We finally performed trials to show the effects of varying $n$ values on accuracy. We used Dice only in these experiments for both data sets. We varied $n$ from 125 to 943 and 1,000 for MLP and EM, respectively. We set $f$ at its optimum values for both data sets determined previously. We follow the same methodology as in the previous experiments. We displayed the overall averages for both sets in Fig. 5. As seen in Fig. 5, accuracy increases with increasing number
of users \((n)\) because more reliable inferences can be made with more data. For EM data set, recall rapidly decreases while we changed \(n\) from 500 to 250 or 125. Accuracy becomes stable for \(n\) values larger than 250. Changes in recall values are more stable for MLP data set. Recall decreases when \(n\) is increased from 125 to 250. On the other hand, it improves with increasing \(n\) from 250 to 500 and 943.

7 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

We proposed a privacy-preserving scheme to offer top-\(N\) recommendations efficiently. We determined the best similarity measures by performing experiments. Utilizing ratings data is more successful for building a model for top-\(N\) recommendations. Apart from disguising the original data, a random filling methodology is necessary to provide appropriate privacy preservation for hiding both ratings and rated items. According to our results, Dice and Jaccard measures perform the best. Kulzinsky similarity measure is not a good choice among the eight ones. It gives the worst results. Generally speaking, six of eight measures provide promising results. We scrutinized the effects of varying \(f\) values on recall. Moreover, we investigated the effect of varying \(n\) values. We determined the optimum values of \(f\) and \(n\).

Without privacy concerns, our results on ratings data are very comparable with the ones presented in (Karypis, 2001). Although accuracy diminishes with privacy, the results are still promising compared to the results in (Karypis, 2001). Our scheme achieves privacy by sacrificing some accuracy. Compared to the scheme proposed by (Kaleli and Polat, 2007), our scheme’s online performance is much more better.

As a future work, we are planning to evaluate binary similarity measures on clustering data to construct a user-based model as a different research area in CF and apply dissimilarity measures to determine if they can perform better than similarity measures. We will investigate whether we can reduce the accuracy losses due to underlying privacy-preserving measures or not by applying various improvements.

REFERENCES


