Fast Item-based Collaborative Filtering

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Abstract: Item-based Collaborative Filtering (CF) models offer good recommendations with low latency. Still, constructing such models is often slow, requiring the comparison of all item pairs, and then caching for each item the list of most similar items. In this paper we suggest methods for reducing the number of item pairs comparisons, through simple clustering, where similar items tend to be in the same cluster. We propose two methods, one that uses Locality Sensitive Hashing (LSH), and another that uses the item consumption cardinality. We evaluate the two methods demonstrating the cardinality based method reduce the computation time dramatically without damage the accuracy.

1 INTRODUCTION

There are two dominant approaches to the computation of CF recommendations; the memory-based approach and the model-based approach (Breese et al., 1998). A memory-based approach computes recommendations directly over the raw data – typically a user-item ratings matrix. Memory-based methods require no pre-computation and execute all computations online. Model-based approaches construct statistical models – some summarization of the raw data – that allows rapid responses to recommendation queries online, and are more commonly used in productive environments.

The item-item or item-based CF method is a popular model-based approach (Sarwar et al., 2001). This approach computes and caches for each item a set of similar items, ordered by decreasing similarity. When a user selects a specific item for browsing or purchasing, the system can display a list of N recommendations such as “similar items to the item you just choose are...”, and so forth. Item-based models have shown good performance and low latency (Sarwar et al., 2001; Linden and Smith 2003).

Constructing such item-based models typically requires that we compute the similarity between each item to every other item, using $O(I^2)$ computations, where $I$ is the item set. When the similarity function is symmetric, i.e. when $\text{similarity}(i,j) = \text{similarity}(j,i)$, the number of actual computations is reduced to $I \cdot (I - 1) / 2$. Linden and Smith (2003) further show that the complexity could be effectively reduced to $O(AI)$ where $A$ is the average number of users that have selected each item in the item set $I$. This is because many item pairs were never consumed together, resulting in a zero CF similarity score, thus, computing similarities for such pairs can be avoided. Nevertheless, those nearest neighbours’ algorithms require computation that increases with both the number of items and the number of users. With current situation in many web sites, where the number of users and items reach millions, these neighbourhood algorithms suffer from scalability issues.

In this paper we present two fast clustering methods for offline computation of item-based CF models for providing top-N recommendations. The first method uses Locality Sensitive Hashing (LSH), and the second using the cardinality of the item consumption set. The methods clusters the item space so similar items tend to be in the same cluster. The suggested clustering methods are very simple and cheap, but yet very efficient, decreasing the computational complexity of the model building phase to $O((I^2 - IC)/2)$ where $C$ is a constant representing the number of clusters and $I$ is the items set. We experiment with public and private data sets showing significant reduction in computation time using the suggested methods, with very minor accuracy reduction.

The main contribution of this paper is hence to suggest a very rapid approach for computing the
item-based CF model, which is a very common scenario for practitioners. Additionally, we argue in this paper that using a clustering algorithm as a pre-process for neighbourhood models in RS (Recommender Systems) must satisfies two conditions - 1) that the clustering algorithm have to be very cheap in term of computations and 2) that there has to be some resemblance between the clustering metric and the similarity metric used for the neighbours computation in order to achieve reduction in the neighbours computation; reduction with minor damage to the accuracy if any.

The rest of the paper is as follows: section 2 provides a background and related work, section 3 presents the suggested methods, section 4 describes the experiments and the results, and section 5 concludes with a discussion.

2 BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK

2.1 Top-N Recommendations for Implicit Datasets

One of the most explored problems in recommendation system research is the task of predicting ratings for items. The RS is provided with a user $u$ and an item $i$, and predicts the rating that user $u$ will assign to the item $i$. Another common recommendation task in e-commerce applications is to display a list of items that the system considers to be relevant for the user; often called top-N recommendations. For example, Amazon presents to the users a list of products under the title “Recommendations for you in books”. In this case the input data does not contain explicit ratings of users to items, but rather events, such as purchases or selections of items, often considered to be implicit indications of the user preferences. Hence this task is often known as top-N recommendations for implicit datasets (Cremonesi et al., 2010).

Top-N recommendations given implicit data is a very common scenario in productive environments for various reasons. First, rating data is not always available. Many users do not provide explicit ratings for items. Also, in many cases people do not necessarily choose the top-rated items. For example, people often choose to watch 3-star rated movies rather than 5-star movies (Shani and Gunawardana 2011). Secondly, the calculation of the prediction that every user will give to any item in a prediction-based system, just for providing the top-N out of it, may be an exhaustive one as web-sites nowadays may have millions of users and items. Moreover, in case the task is to present interesting items to the user, the results of a prediction-based approach might be inferior to an approach that directly maximizes the likelihood that an item will be chosen. Thus, we choose to focus on top-N recommenders for implicit datasets.

A popular approach to top-N recommendations uses a neighbourhood-based item-item model. That is, for each item we identify a list of nearest neighbours, assuming that these neighbours would make good suggestions for a user that has chosen the item. A neighbourhood is defined based on some similarity metric between items. These similarities are cached in a model, which is used online to provide recommendations for a given item, by looking at the cached nearest neighbours list for that item. In a CF approach for implicit data sets, two items may be considered to be similar, if users tend to consume them together. A simple and popular example of a similarity function for implicit datasets is the Jaccard metric (Jaccard 1901) as presented in equation (1).

$$J(i,j) = \frac{|U_i \cap U_j|}{|U_i \cup U_j|}$$  

(1)

where $U_i$ and $U_j$ are the sets of users that consumed items $i$ and $j$, respectively.

2.2 Clustering Approaches for Improving Neighbourhood CF

There have been a numerous studies in the literature that indicates the benefits of applying clustering in the pre-processing step for the neighbourhood-based CF computation (Bridge and Kelleher 2002; Chee 2000; Sarwar et al., 2002; Lin et al., 2014). The majority of these works are using k-means or some variation of k-means for clustering the item space or the user space, and by that decreasing the dimension of the problem so that similarities will be then computed only among objects within the same cluster. Although such a method is indeed decreasing the computations of the pairs, it is well known that k-means by itself is very expensive algorithm yielding complexity from the order of $O(N^d n \log n)$ where $d$ is the number of dimensions, $k$ is the number of clusters and $n$ is the number of entities. Thus, even in one dimension and two clusters this is a very exhaustive computation which makes it not applicable in large scale systems. In fact, most clustering and partitioning algorithms suggested in the literature for this task require a distance metric or similarity metric to guide the
learning process of the clusters. Since our goal is to decrease the computation of the item-pairs, which is also offline in systems aimed to deliver top-N recommendations, we cannot consider as pre-processing step applying clustering algorithms that are from the order of $O(I^2)$.

O’Connor and Herlocker (1999) apply sets of experiments to evaluate the efficiency of several partition techniques as a pre-processing step to the item-based CF computation. They end up with suggesting the k-Metis (Karypis and Kumar 1998) as a partitioning algorithm because of its shorter execution time, the ability to create distributed clusters and of course due to the final accuracy the model achieved. Metis represents the item space as a graph and partition it into $k$ predefined partitions using multi-level graph partitioning methods. Although the complexity of this problem is NP complete, representing implicit feedback dataset as such a graph is already involved a lot of computations. The representation will include the items as vertexes and the edges will represent the CF relation among the items, i.e. the value on each edge may be a number which indicating how many users consume these two items together. This representation will consume tremendous amount of computation as potentially Metis will need to know whether two items consumed together or not. In the best case, just for building the graph, it will have to compute the upper part of equation (1) for every two items is the system which of course not feasible.

Moreover, the majority of those studies consider the pre-processing clustering step as an offline step and the actual item-based CF as an online step; the pre-processing step aimed to reduce the computation of the item-based CF. As such, they are not concerned about the cost of the clustering algorithm. This stands in contradiction to our case, where the entire computation, clustering and neighbours computation are done offline and we wish to minimize it entirely.

We hence argue that for the specific scenario we handling, top-N recommendations given implicit dataset, our following suggested methods are far simpler and require much less (logarithmic with the number of items or/and users) computation in the clusters computation.

3 FAST ITEM-BASED MODEL BUILDING

This section presents two methods for clustering the items as a pre-process step to the CF model computation. We use a straightforward item-based recommendation algorithm which computes the item-to-item Jaccard similarities, showing how linear clustering techniques can reduce the amount of computation.

Our approaches divide the item space into hard clusters, such that similar items tend to belong to the same cluster. We then compute the item pairs similarity only for items within each cluster, ignoring inter-cluster similarities. As stated before, clustering requires additional computational overhead and it is crucial that the clusters will be computed very rapidly. For efficient access to items and users, we use a data-structure that allows us to rapidly access all the users who have used an item, and all the items that a given user has used.

3.1 Locality Sensitive Hashing

The first pre-processing clustering method for rapidly compute the item-based CF model relies on Locality sensitive hashing (LSH) (Gionis et al., 1999). Given a set of high-dimensional item descriptors, LSH uses Min-Hashing to map each item to a reduced space using one or more hashing functions. This reduced space is called the signature matrix, where each item is represented by a signature - a low dimensional vector of features. A good hashing function maintains item-item similarities, such that similar items will have similar signatures with high probability.

To generate the signature matrix, we follow Google news personalization (Das et al., 2007) where the hash value for an item in a given dimension in the signature of an item, is the first user id that consumed this item in a random permutation of the user ids list. We generate $P$ permutations of the user ids and apply this hash function on each of the permutations, generating an item signatures matrix of size $P \times I$. Hence $P$ is the dimension of the signatures matrix.

We now leverage the generated signature matrix to create a clustering of the items, using the following recursive procedure; we split the item set into two disjoint subsets, such that the items in each subset are expected to be more similar to one another, than to items in the other subset. We first compute the median of each dimension (row in $P \times I$) in the signature matrix independently. Then, for each item (column in $P \times I$) in the signature matrix, we compute the portion of its dimensions entries whose value is higher than the median of that dimension. If this portion is lower than 0.5, the item
is placed in the left child subset, otherwise it is placed in the right child subset. We then continue with the left and right subsets recursively, until the intended number of clusters has been reached.

This splitting approach creates a balanced binary tree, where every two disjoint subsets created through the splitting process are always the full set of their related parent. Figure 1 illustrates the tree construction and the number of items in each node and leaf.

The construction of the tree is the actual pre-process clustering step to the item-item Jaccard similarities computation. The time complexity of this phase is $O(I \cdot P \cdot \log I)$ where $P$ is the number of dimensions in the signatures matrix, and $I$ is the number of items. In practice, it is very fast in comparison with the item pairs computations required for the item-item similarities because the number of dimensions $P$ is no more than dozens.

Figure 1: The amount of items $I$, is divided evenly on each level according to the medians. Each level in the tree comprises all the items.

After the tree construction, we compute the item-item Jaccard similarities only among the items which are in the same leaf. Following the example in figure 1, where the number of clusters is 4, this will result in $O(I^2/8)$ item-item computations compared with the $O(I^2/2)$ required for computing all item pairs similarities. Assuming the hashing function maintains the similarity among the items as in the original data, and that the median splits the items into two homogenous groups during the construction of the tree, we expect that items with high similarity will be located in the same cluster/leaf.

### 3.2 The Cardinality of the Item Profile

The second method relies on the hypothesis that the likelihood of obtaining a higher similarity score between two items increases, as the difference between the cardinality of the set of users who consumed those items decreases.

That is, given two items $i$ and $j$, $J(i,j)$ is more likely to be high when the difference between their cardinality, $|U_i| - |U_j|$, is low.

Following this assumption, we sort and list the items by decreasing cardinality, and then divide the list into a set of sub-lists (clusters) such that each cluster comprising items with the same or similar cardinality. As our data structure allows us to compute this cardinality rapidly, these clusters are extremely fast to generate. As with the LSH method, we then compute the similarities only among items that are within the same cluster and cache the scores as an item-based model.

Following is a pseudo code of the Cardinality similarity approach:

```
NC = number of desired clusters
L = items sorted by popularity
clustersSize = L.size()/NC;
Clusters clusters;
For i=0 to NC ; i++
    clusters.add(L.subList(i*clustersSize,(i+1)*clustersSize));
For each Cluster c in clusters
    For i = 0 to |c|-1
        For j = i+1 to |c|
            compute J(ci,cj)
```

### 3.3 Initialization Complexity

Let $I$ be the number of items, $A$ be the average number of users who have chosen each item, and $P$ be the reduced dimension in the LSH reduction. The complexity for the Tree LSH clustering requires $O(P \cdot I \cdot A)$ for computing the signatures matrix. Then, constructing the tree requires $O(I \cdot \log I)$ operations, for finding the medians in each level in the tree, and there are at most $O(\log I)$ levels.

Hence, assuming that $A$ and $P$ are much smaller than $I$, the computation time is dominated by $O(I \log I)$.

The complexity of the clustering cardinality method is $O(I \log I)$ for sorting the items by the number of users who consumed them. In the results below the clustering time is included. For both methods it required no more than a few dozens of milliseconds and is therefore negligible.

### 4 EMPIRICAL EVALUATION

We now compare the performance of the two clustering methods. In both methods we compute the similarities only for pairs of items which were
located in the same cluster. When there is only a single cluster, our approach is equivalent to the efficient Amazon approach (Linden et al., 2003).

We conduct experiments on three datasets, a games web shop\(^1\) buying events, and on Movie-Lens\(^2\) 100000 ratings and Movie-Lens 1,000,000 ratings. The datasets described in table 1. For Movie-Lens, we attempt to recommend movies that the user may rate, given other movies she has rated. To model that, we ignore the actual ratings, and use a dataset where users either rate, or did not rate a movie. The games dataset contains real data from an online shop selling software games collected during the year of 2010. In the games dataset we compute a list of recommended items given other items that the user has bought.

Table 1: The benchmark datasets used in the experiments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>#events</th>
<th># items</th>
<th># users</th>
<th>Sparsity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Games</td>
<td>320,641</td>
<td>3304</td>
<td>72,347</td>
<td>0.9986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movie-Lens</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>1682</td>
<td>943</td>
<td>0.9369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movie-Lens</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>3706</td>
<td>6040</td>
<td>0.9553</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each users’ consumption set is divided into a train and test set. For each user \(u\) we randomly pick a random number \(k\) between 0 and the number of items that \(u\) has rated or bought. We then pick \(k\) random items from \(u\)’s consumption set and use them as the training set; the remaining items are used for testing. We execute both methods on all the three datasets, each run with different predefined number of clusters. We build the model over the training set and measure the time it took to build the model. We then measure the precision over the test set. Due to the nature of the predictions we provide, we found \(\text{precision@N}\) (Herlocker et al., 2004) to be the most appropriate metric for evaluating the models’ performance.

Below, we provide results for \(N=5\), i.e., we ask the algorithm to supply us with 5 recommendations. We also experimented with \(N=10\), but we found no sensitivity to \(N\). We measure the performance of the methods with 128, 64, 32, 16, 8, 4, 2, and 1 cluster. On the Movie-Lens 1 million ratings dataset we also measured with 256, 512 and 1024 clusters.

Both methods were executed 5 times with different train-test splits on each predefined number of clusters, and the results in the figures below are averaged over the 5 repetitions. The standard deviation was below \(10^{-5}\) and is hence omitted from the graphs. Both algorithms use the same random train-test split.

4.1 Results

Figures 2, 3 and 4 present precision as a function of computation time. Each point in a curve represents the precision of a model with a different predefined number of clusters. As the number of clusters drops, more items fall into each cluster, requiring more computation time. Both methods require the same amount of time for a given number of clusters, and split the item set evenly into clusters of identical sizes.

The clustering time for both methods is negligible, hence, the overall time is dominated by

\(^1\) Due to privacy issues we cannot publish the data
\(^2\) http://www.grouplens.org/node/73
the pairwise similarity computations for the larger clusters. The data points in the curves are average over 5 repetitions and labelled with the number of predefined clusters.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

This paper suggests two methods for speeding up the building of an item-based CF model for top-N recommendations over implicit datasets. By splitting items into clusters, and computing pairwise similarities only for items within the same cluster, we reduced the computation time dramatically. The first approach based on LSH and the second on the cardinality of the item consumption set. Our experiments show that the cardinality approach outperformed the LSH, resulting in a decrease in precision while reducing the computation time up to 10% for the larger dataset.

The cardinality method somehow claims that similar items also have similar popularity. Although it might be true and make sense, it is true in our case only because the similarity function we choose was Jaccard coefficient which utilized exactly this aspect. Means that item with low cardinality will have a very small similarity score to item with high cardinality, if any, because the intersection between them, the upper part of equation (1), will be close to zero.

We hence suggest that in order to obtain an efficient clustering method as pre-process step for item-base model computation, there has to be some resemblance between the clustering metric and the proximity metric used for the items similarity. Otherwise results may look a bit arbitrary, unless the clustering method is completely generic as like the above suggested LSH. For instance applying content-based clustering such that movies items will be grouped together according to their Genre may be a good idea as a clustering method, if the proximity metric which is used for the item-item similarity considers the Genres of a movie as part of the similarity computation. A successful clustering method will not only be cheap, but also will encapsulate a hint from the proximity metric which is later used to calculate the similarity scores. We therefore suggest that LSH clustering method, which is not related at all to the similarity metric, is more recommended if one cannot define a clustering method which is somehow correlated with the similarity metric.

An additional benefit of our methods is that the item-pairs computation of each cluster can be done in parallel, to further reduce the actual time required for computing the item-based model.

REFERENCES


UC Berkeley.