

# **Recommendation Approaches using Context-Aware Coupled Matrix Factorization**

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## **Abstract**

In general, recommender systems attempt to estimate user preference based on historical data. A context-aware recommender system attempts to generate better recommendations using contextual information. However, generating recommendations for specific contexts has been challenging because of the difficulties in using contextual information to enhance the capabilities of recommender systems.

Several methods have been used to incorporate contextual information into traditional recommendation algorithms. These methods focus on incorporating contextual information to improve general recommendations for users rather than identifying the different context applicable to the user and providing recommendations geared towards those specific contexts.

In this thesis, we explore different context-aware recommendation techniques and present our context-aware coupled matrix factorization methods that use matrix factorization for estimating user preference and features in a specific contextual condition.

We develop two methods: the first method attaches user preference across multiple contextual conditions, making the assumption that user preference remains the same, but the suitability of items differs across different contextual conditions; i.e., an item might not be suitable for certain conditions. The second method assumes that item suitability remains the same across different contextual conditions but user preference changes. We perform a number of experiments on the last.fm dataset to evaluate our methods. We also compared our work to other context-aware recommendation approaches. Our results show that grouping ratings by context and jointly factorizing with common factors improves prediction accuracy.

# **Acknowledgement**

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# 1. Introduction

## 1.1. The Context

In this age of internet of things, big data and cloud computing, users are constantly overloaded with a large number of products and services that makes it challenging for them to choose the best-suited products and services. Recommender systems help users make decisions on what to purchase or consume online by estimating the preference of users and suggesting the products and services that fit their profile based on some historical data.

A recommender system takes the ratings of different users to extract their preferences and provide recommendations. It is also an information filtering system that predicts the rating or rank that a user would give to an item. A recommender system uses a recommendation algorithm to filter items, by predetermining how a specific user might rate or rank them based on historical rating pattern of the user or other similar users.

The process of recommendation is similar to searching for relevant items based on a query input and ranking the results based on user's historical activities. Thus, the problem of providing recommendations is similar to a search ranking problem [2].

According to [6], “recommender system solves the problem of information overload by providing personalized recommendations.” [6] Also stated that context provides additional information that enhances the quality of the personalized recommendation.

Psychological research has shown that certain psychological factors and conditions affect the behaviors of humans [45]; the author in [45] assumes the same for the effect of context in

generating recommendations. Traditional recommendation systems use 2-dimensional data consisting of only users and items, ignoring additional contextual information during their recommendation process. In contrast, context-aware systems incorporate the factors, conditions and the characteristics of the environment that affect users. Location, time, weather and activities are few examples of these factors [1].

Context-aware recommender systems are systems that incorporate contextual information, e.g., weather, location, mood, season, etc., alongside the core data (users and items) to generate better recommendations. Some research has shown that incorporating seasonality and weather contexts into recommender system produces better recommendations [5]. We can relate to how differently we feel in different seasons and how some activities are tied to seasons and weather conditions. For instance, certain products are not available in certain seasons, and some activities are only available in a particular kind of weather.

Some examples in [3], presents certain applications where traditional recommendation systems might fall short. An example of such scenario is a news application that recommends different news based on the day of the week. Here, “the day of the week” is a contextual information that should be incorporated into the recommender system. A news recommender application that suggests news based on the day of the week is a good example of a context-aware recommender system that filters and segments recommendation based on the context information that affects the likability of an item [3]. This shows the tremendous influence that context has in improving the quality of recommendation.

Our aim in this research is to develop two context-aware recommendation approaches that use coupled matrix factorization and show that it performs better than some of the existing context-

aware methods. Our proposed methods are contextual-driven, in the sense of making context front and center of our recommendation approaches and not just a factor to improving recommendation.

This work explores collaboration among users in different context, rather than focusing only on the overall collaboration among users. Context-aware and driven recommender systems tune recommendations based on user's situations and intent for that particular context.

## **1.2. Motivation**

We are increasingly seeing a large amount of data generated in different contexts or situations, especially with the advent of the “internet of things” connecting more and more day to day devices to the internet. The situations and circumstances surrounding the consumption of products and services are becoming more important in determining how and when users consume them. Weather and emotions are examples of circumstances that determine what items we buy and how we consume services.

Location is a good example of a contextual factor that determines the items available to a user based on his/her current geographical location. This serves as the hallmark of many services that we now refer to as “location-based service.” Mood, time, etc., are other contextual factors that could change the type of services or products a user might be interested buying.

Moving along these changes, we think recommender systems should incorporate relevant contextual factors into its process of recommendation and also make it front and center of its recommendation process. This means that we should not only incorporate context to enhance

recommendations generated for users but change recommendations as the context of interaction changes.

We define context as the circumstances, situations or facts that surrounds an activity or environment. A recommender system can take advantage of these circumstances to understand the changes in the interest and taste of its users and provide better recommendations that suite each context, rather than trying to generate recommendations that cover all scenarios.

We chose matrix factorization as our underlying method because it gives us the flexibility to extend and integrate our proposed methods.

### **1.3. Problem Statement**

Context characterizes a user's activity and shows the situation a surrounding user's interaction with an application or an online service. It also provides useful information about the factors that affect how a user uses a product, consumes an item or service on the internet. Based on several publications on the context-aware recommender system, it is obvious that leveraging contextual factors that affect user's interactions with items into the process of recommendation would produce a better recommender system. Examples such as [1], [6], [8], [9], incorporated context into their recommendation process to make it context-aware. There is a lot of research interest in this area.

However, while most context-aware recommender systems attempt to incorporate context to generate better results, a few provide recommendations that target each contextual factor relevant to the user. We think that providing recommendations tailored to the situation of the user improves the utility of the recommendations provided and makes context front and center of

recommendation. Some examples are, going to a restaurant close to you, listening to music or performing different activities based on your mood or time of the day. The examples presented show how location, mood and time context affects user behavior. We attempt to develop better recommendation approaches that use context information alongside user's history to understand user's preference and provide better recommendations for different contexts.

## 1.4. Contributions

- We propose and develop methods to effectively incorporate and generate recommendations that are context driven and tailored to their relevant situations. Using context to generate context driven recommendations is still an area of challenge in the field [6].
- We provide two methods that discover and incorporate the changes in user behaviors and item characteristics across different contextual conditions. Simply put, we develop methods to capture user-item-context interaction.
- We extend the coupled matrix factorization in [40] to produce two variants that modify the factorization process. The two variants are context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common user features and context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common item features. To the best of our knowledge, our work is the first of its kind.
- We proposed methods that model the relationship between user ratings and contextual conditions, item consumption and contextual conditions. The models can learn how contexts affect user preferences or item features to recommend items that are suitable for users in the relevant context.

- We introduce contextual condition based user and item bias to the context-aware coupled matrix factorization to accommodate user and item bias across different contextual conditions in the recommender system. Existing coupled matrix factorization techniques do not have these additions as far as we can tell.
- We experiment our methods on the last.fm music dataset and showed that our methods provide good prediction accuracy and that sharing common item features among different context while allowing the user features to vary works better than when sharing user features instead.

## **1.5. Thesis Organization**

We organize our work as follows: Chapter 2 provides the background and review of some literature in recommender systems. In chapter 3, we explore related works done in the area of recommender system approaches. We highlight the core idea of matrix factorization, explore different variants of matrix factorization, and review some works that incorporate context into the matrix factorization method. Finally, we explore couple matrix factorization.

Chapter 4 digs into our proposed methods in details. We provide an extensive discussion of the two variants and components of our proposed methods. Chapter 5 describes our experiment, evaluation metrics, results and evaluation of our methods. Chapter 6 provides some extensive discussion on the benefits and advantages of our proposed methods. Chapter 7 concludes the thesis and suggests some future research directions.

## **2. Background**

This chapter contains an overview of a recommender system, approaches to developing a recommender system, approaches and examples of the nearest neighbor algorithm. After that, we give an extensive discussion on matrix factorization, singular value decomposition, and principal component analysis. Finally, we give an extensive discussion of context and context-aware recommender systems.

### **2.1. Recommender Systems**

Recommender systems are tools that suggest items to users. They are a special kind of information filtering system that predicts the rating or rank that a certain user would give to an item. A recommendation algorithm specifies how the system should perform the filtering of items; the algorithm predetermines how a user would rate or rank items. They typically take in a dataset containing the activities of users and extract the preferences of users, based on the historical data available in the system. Recommender systems provide the solution to the problem of connecting available users with the right items in a massive inventory containing a huge number of items.

### **2.2. Collaborative Filtering (CF)**

Collaborative filtering assumes that users who prefer similar items in the past will prefer similar items in the future. The function of collaborative filtering is to estimate the rating  $R$  over a set of

users and items [11]. A collaborative filtering recommender system attempts to find users with similar ratings by comparing their historical behaviors; extracting similar users based on past behaviors and recommending items from similar user's catalogs.

CF model users with a matrix containing the ratings of items for each user. The models are used to extract factor vectors. These factors have different weights for each user and item factor models depending on the user's profile. A CF system in contrast to a content-based system makes its recommendation based on the preference of similar users and not on similar properties of the items. CF assumes that ratings are directly proportional to preferences, thereby it places more weight and emphasis on the ratings given to the item by other users, rather than the characteristics of the item like content-based approaches does, even if the characteristics of the item matches what the user likes. In other words, CF in its pure form solely rates items based on its historical rating and completely ignores the characteristics of the items [10].

CF is largely affected by the cold start problem when dealing with new users and items because it needs ratings from other users which new users and new items in the system don't have. The cold start problem in the recommender system is a problem of how to make recommendations for new users and items, in other words, how should the system handle users and items with no ratings? [35] In the following sections, we discuss neighborhood-based and model-based approaches.

### 2.2.1. Neighborhood-based Collaborative Filtering

Neighborhood-based recommender systems automate the word-of-mouth principle in which people rely heavily on what other people say, be it people they trust or people they share common opinions with [12]. The premise of the neighborhood method is that if users have preferred similar items in the past, the probability is very high that they will prefer similar items in the future, either

on a user-to-user level or an item-to-item level. Some variations of neighborhood-based techniques compute item similarities and user similarities once and can make recommendations for users without having to re-compute similarities again; this makes it very scalable and fast.

The neighborhood-based methods are intuitive, simple to implement and it is easy to justify the results of their recommendations. One important thing for a recommender system is the explanation of how the recommended items were generated. This is important for transparency and trust. It is easy for both user-based and item-based neighborhood methods to offer explanations because they can present the list of neighboring items, users and their corresponding ratings used to generate the recommendations.

There are three important factors to consider in the implementation of a neighborhood-based recommender system. The first one is normalization of ratings, approaches like mean-centering and Z-score are prominent methods to normalize user ratings on a global scale [12]. The second factor is the computation of the weights of similarities; correlation-based similarity and mean squared difference are some of the methods for calculating the similarities between users or items. The third factor is the selection of neighbors that affect the quality of recommended results. “Neighborhood selection involves selecting the users or items known as neighbors by filtering the users to select the likely candidates and choosing the best among these candidates to base the recommendations on” [12].

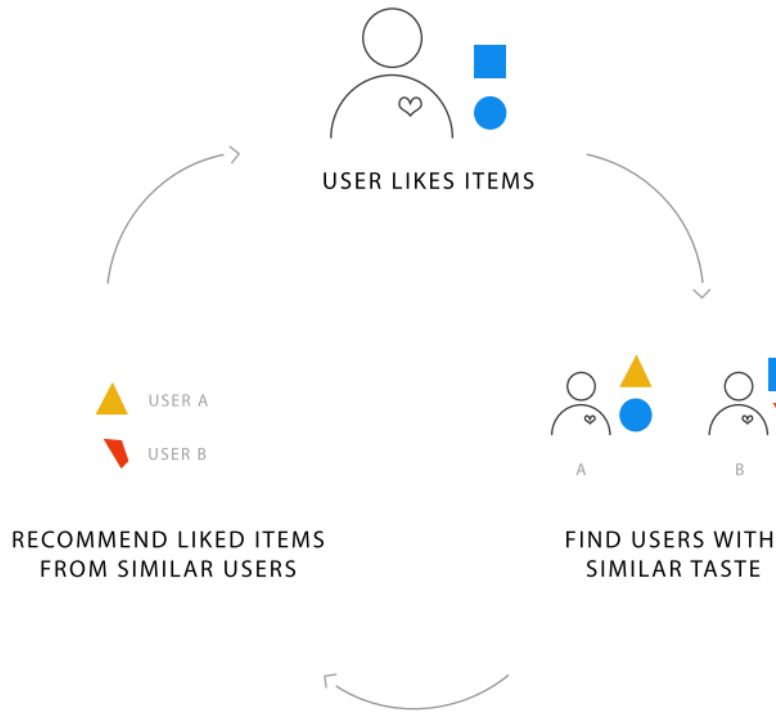


Figure 1. Neighborhood-based recommender systems.

Figure 1 is an illustration of the neighborhood-based approach. It shows that when user A likes certain items, other users with similar taste to user A get a recommendation for the same items. The same also applies to items: if a user likes certain items, we find the items that are similar to the liked items and recommend them to the user.

#### 2.2.1.1. Implementation and Example of Neighborhood-based Approaches

Implementing a neighborhood recommender system consists of normalizing item ratings, computing similarities and selecting closely-related users or items (neighbors) [12]. One simple and common method is called Jaccard distance. The similarity is calculated based on the rating of

items that users have in common. This assumes that similar users rate items in a similar manner and vice versa.

Another method for similarity measurement is Cosine similarity. It calculates the similarity between two users by dividing the dot product of two vectors by the product of their dimensions.

The equation for cosine similarity between two users  $a$  and  $b$  is below:

Eq. 2.1

$$\cos(a, b) = \frac{a \cdot b}{\|a\| \|b\|} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N r_{ai} \times r_{bi}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N r_{ai}^2} \times \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N r_{bi}^2}}$$

$a$  and  $b$  represents the two users,  $r_{ai}$  and  $r_{bi}$  represents the rating for item  $i$  by user  $a$  and  $b$  respectively.  $N$  is the total number of items in the dataset.

Cosine similarity measures the angles between the two user vectors. For example,  $\cos(a, b) = 1$  if vector  $a$  and vector  $b$  are the same and  $\cos(a, b) = -1$  if they are not the same.

We present some ratings in table 2.1 that are normalized by item centering normalization technique. For each user, we subtract from the rating for each item the average rating of the user. Normalization is done here to convert user's ratings to a global or universal scale [12]. The zero values in the table mean no rating available for the corresponding movies.

	Movie 1	Movie 2	Movie 3	Movie 4	Movie 5
John	0	-2.333	0	1.667	0.667
Frank	0	2.333	0	-1.667	-0.667
Eric	1.667	0.667	0	-2.333	0

Bill	-2.333	0	0.667	0	1.667
Thomas	1	1	0	-2	0
Tosin	0	-1	0	1	0

Table 2.1. Normalized User  $\times$  Item matrix showing the user's ratings for movies.

To show how cosine similarity works, we compare John and Frank using cosine similarity,

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(\text{John}, \text{Frank}) &= \frac{(-2.333 \times 2.333) + (1.667 \times -1.667) + (0.667 \times -0.667)}{\sqrt{2.333^2 + -1.667^2 + -0.667^2} \times \sqrt{-2.333^2 + 1.667^2 + 0.667^2}} \\ &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

The similarity between Frank and Eric is shown below:

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(\text{Frank}, \text{Eric}) &= \frac{(0.667 \times -2.333) + (-2.333 \times -1.667)}{\sqrt{2.333^2 + -1.667^2 + -0.667^2} \times \sqrt{1.667^2 + 0.667^2 + 2.333^2}} \\ &\approx 0.628 \end{aligned}$$

Looking at the rating matrix in table 2.1, Frank and Eric rated almost the same movies except for movie 1 and movie 5, and their ratings were fairly close. But John and Frank have opposite ratings for the same rated items; their similarity is -1. Also, when we look at the similarity between items, we would observe the ratings of movie 2 and movie 4 and conclude that movie 2 and movie 4 are unrelated. The problem with cosine similarity is that it doesn't consider the differences in the mean ratings of the users [12].

Pearson correlation coefficient similarity provides an adjustment to the cosine similarity. The equation below shows the Pearson correlation similarity between user  $a$  and  $b$ :

Eq. 2.2

$$PC(a, b) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (r_{ai} - \bar{r}_a) \times (r_{bi} - \bar{r}_b)}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (r_{ai} - \bar{r}_a)^2} \times \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (r_{bi} - \bar{r}_b)^2}}$$

$a$  and  $b$  represents the two users,  $r_{ai}$  and  $r_{bi}$  represents the ratings for item  $i$  by user  $a$  and  $b$  respectively.  $N$  is the total number of items in the dataset,  $\bar{r}_a$  and  $\bar{r}_b$  represents the mean ratings of users  $a$  and  $b$  respectively.

We compute the similarities for all users and select the  $k$  nearest neighbors (users with the highest similarity) for each user. The set  $N(a)$  contains the nearest neighbors of user  $a$ . We further divide this set into a subset of neighbors that have ratings for item  $i$  and represent it as  $N_i(a)$ .  $\widehat{r}_{ai}$  is calculated as the weighted average of the preference for item  $i$  by all neighbor users of user  $a$  that rated item  $i$ .

Eq. 2.3

$$\widehat{r}_{ai} = \frac{\sum_{b \in N_i(a)} PC(a, b) r_{bi}}{\sum_{b \in N_i(a)} PC(a, b)}$$

Where  $r_{bi}$  is the rating of user  $b$  for item  $i$ .  $PC(a, b)$  is the Pearson correlation similarity between  $a$  and  $b$ .

Normalizing equation 2.3 by considering the differences in the mean ratings of neighbor users, will produce a version normalized and scaled for different users below:

Eq. 2.4

$$\widehat{r}_{ai} = r_{bi} + \frac{\sum_{b \in N_i(a)} PC(a, b) (r_{bi} - \bar{r}_b)}{\sum_{b \in N_i(a)} PC(a, b)}$$

Where  $\bar{r}_b$  is the mean rating of user  $b$ , and all other symbols are as defined in previous equations.

As explained in [13], some users give higher ratings than others, and some items might be rated higher than others because of how those items are perceived. Therefore, to account for the biases in the mean user/item ratings, a baseline rating is added to adjust for global effects. We use notation  $b_{ai}$  to represent the baseline rating that accounts for the user and item effects in the unknown rating of item  $i$  for user  $a$  as shown below:

Eq. 2.5

$$b_{ai} = \mu + b_a + b_i$$

$\mu$  is the overall average rating,  $b_a$  is the deviation of user  $a$  from  $\mu$ , and  $b_i$  is the deviation of item  $i$  from the average rating  $\mu$ .  $b_a$  and  $b_i$  are calculated by solving the least square problem in equation 2.6.

Eq. 2.6

$$\min_{b^*} \sum_{a,i} (r_{ai} - \mu - b_a - b_i)^2 + \tau \left( \sum_a (b_a^2) + \sum_i (b_i^2) \right)$$

Combining equation 2.5 and equation 2.6 will give us the next equation below:

Eq. 2.7

$$\widehat{r}_{ai} = b_{ai} + \frac{\sum_{b \in N_i(a)} PC_{ab} (r_{bi} - b_{bi})}{\sum_{b \in N_i(a)} PC_{ab}}$$

### 2.2.2. Model-based Collaborative Filtering

Model-based methods create predictive models by learning and discovering features from the dataset. The created models are used to make predictions for the user. A model-based collaborative filtering method performs some offline analysis on the rating dataset to extract the models that

represent the latent factors that describe the relationship and characteristics between the users and items. This model is loaded instead of the dataset during the recommendation process. When contrasted with the neighborhood and content-based recommender systems, a model-based system finds the distinctive features of users and items by taking a gander at the rating information. It builds the user profiles and items profiles with the end goal of reusing both entities for subsequent analyses.

As shown in figure 2, the utility matrix is the dataset representing users' preferences. It is the structured dataset processed to discover the hidden features or factors for each user in the system. The process is repeated until the best features in the utility matrix are extracted to form a learned model. The process of generating a model that fits the utility matrix is called learning.

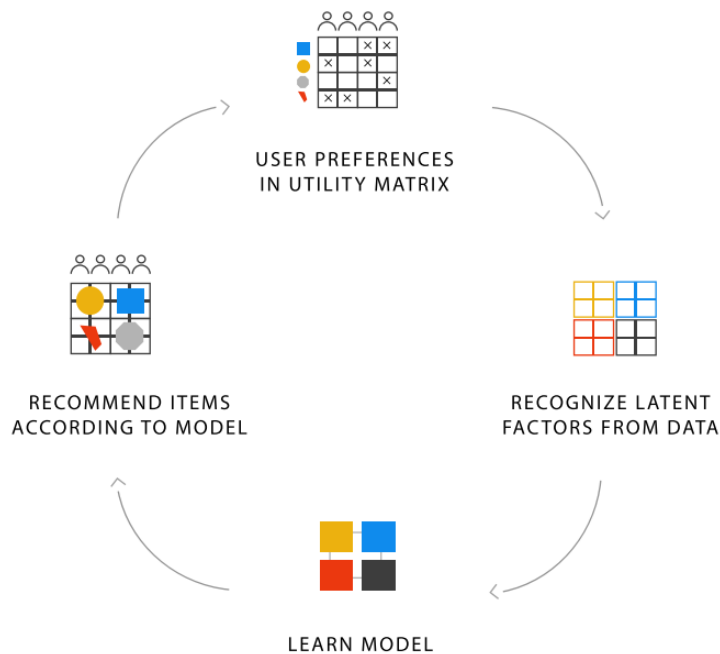


Figure 2. A framework for model-based recommender systems.

Training the recommender system can take some amount of time, and the models can easily be over-fitted to a dataset [14], this may cause inconsistency when using the model in a dataset other than the training dataset. We can group approaches to learning and training into classification and dimensionality reduction.

### 2.2.2.1. Foundations of Matrix factorization

Matrix factorization is a method under the model-based approach. In this section, we dive deep into the details of two approaches that are the foundation of several matrix factorization recommender systems. The two approaches are principal component analysis and singular value decomposition. These techniques form the foundation of many matrix factorization based recommender systems.

#### 2.2.2.1.1. Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

So much information is extracted on a regular basis from different data systems, the internet, and other sources that it turns out to be difficult to see the relations between entities and find what is imperative easily. Principal component analysis extracts the key components and properties in any dataset by finding the variance and detecting variables with the highest variance in the dataset, allowing it to discard the pieces of data in the dataset that are not useful. The purpose of the principal component analysis is to remove unnecessary data in the dataset, extract the hidden relations and present the data in a simpler structure that is easy to understand.

To explain the principle behind PCA, we will start with two items, after that, we will generalize for a large number of items as seen in real situations. First, let's assume we have  $n$  users that

have rated two items  $x$  and  $y$  and we have the ratings of users for these two items in sets  $a$  and set  $b$ . The variance for each item is defined as:

Eq. 2.8

$$\sigma_a^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (a_i - \mu_a)^2, \quad \sigma_b^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (b_i - \mu_b)^2$$

Where  $a_i$  represents an individual user rating for item  $x$  and  $b_i$  represents an individual item rating for item  $y$ ,  $n$  represents the total number of users,  $a$  and  $b$  are the sets containing the user ratings for item  $x$  and  $y$  respectively. We define  $\mu_a$  and  $\mu_b$  as the means of the two sets  $a$  and  $b$ .

Assuming the means of  $a$  and  $b$  is zero then  $\mu_a = 0$  and  $\mu_b = 0$ , the variance for the items is defined below:

Eq. 2.9

$$\sigma_a^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i a_i^2, \quad \sigma_b^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i b_i^2$$

If the value of the variance is high for the two sets, then we know that the users do not agree with the ratings for the two items  $x$  and  $y$ . If the values of the variance for the sets are low, this suggests that the users that rated item  $x$  agreed or have similar ratings for the item and that the users that rated item  $y$  agreed or have similar ratings for the item. Variance allows us to locate the important part in the dataset and do away with a lot of the data for the item if it has a low variance. We can shrink the rating dataset because they generally have a lot of similar rating data; and in the opposite, if we have a high variance, then we know that almost all the dataset for the item are important, and we might not be able to shrink the dataset.

To give an example of high and low variance, consider the ratings for five users on a scale of 1 to 5 for item  $x$  as  $a = (1, 1, 1, 5, 5)$  and for item  $y$  as  $b = (2, 2, 3, 3, 3)$ . We calculate the variance  $\sigma_a^2 = 3.84$ , and variance  $\sigma_b^2 = 1.2$ . From the rating sample, we can clearly see that the ratings for item  $x$  have a high variance and the ratings of item  $y$  have a low variance.

We define covariance which shows the degree of correlation between the two items  $x$  and  $y$  as:

Eq. 2.10

$$cov(x, y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (a_i - \mu_a) (b_i - \mu_b)$$

Also for covariance, we can determine if we have similar ratings and if the dataset contains similar information for items  $x$  and  $y$ , by checking if they have a close correlation between them. Positive or negative covariance value indicates this. But if the covariance for the items  $x$  and  $y$  is zero or tends towards zero, then  $x$  and  $y$  are unrelated and have different and independent.

To give an example of covariance, consider the ratings for five users on a scale of 1 to 5 for item  $x$  as  $a = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)$  and for item  $y$  as  $b = (2, 3, 4, 5, 5)$ . We calculate the covariance  $cov(x, y) = 1.64$ . From the rating sample and the covariance of the two items, we can see that  $x$  and  $y$  are correlated. If the covariance was zero then  $x$  and  $y$  would be uncorrelated and unrelated.

Our illustrations have been for two items thus far. We use it as a foundation and define a generalization for hundreds, and more related items since most systems in the real world typically have large items. We define a utility matrix  $X$  with dimension  $m \times n$  containing the ratings for

items  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m$  for  $n$  users. Each column in  $X$  represents ratings for each user and the rows represent the ratings for items

Eq. 2.11

$$x_1 = [a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n]$$

$$x_2 = [b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_n]$$

$\vdots$

$$x_m = [\dots]$$

Therefore,

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem 3 in [21] defined the variance for  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  as:

Eq. 2.12

$$\sigma_{x_{ij}}^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} X_i X_j^T$$

where  $X_i^T$  is the transpose of matrix  $X_i$ .

Theorem 5 in [21] can be used here to define the covariance matrix of  $X$  based on the variance and covariance defined above as:

Eq. 2.13

$$\text{cov}(X) = \frac{1}{n} X X^T$$

The diagonal values in  $cov(X)$  matrix is the variance of the items in the dataset. This indicates that the high values in the diagonal have high variance and are of great significance. The values not in the diagonal are the covariance between two items. High covariance values have low significance because they denote high redundancy between pairs of items and might not be useful in the dataset.

The  $cov(X)$  matrix should be diagonal, having positive values in its diagonal and zero in off diagonal places. To make  $cov(X)$  a diagonal matrix, we use the Theorem 6 in [21] which states that “a symmetry  $S$  is diagonalized by an Orthogonal matrix of its eigenvectors”. The theorem proves that:

Eq. 2.14

$$S = EDE^T$$

Where  $D$  is a diagonal matrix and  $E$  is a matrix of eigenvectors of  $S$ . The principal components of  $S$  are the eigenvectors of  $E$  and the diagonals of  $D$  are the eigenvalues. We can reduce the data in  $S$  by selecting the eigenvectors of  $E$  that corresponds to high eigenvalues in  $D$ . The high eigenvectors are the important components of the data set.

#### 2.2.2.1.2. Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Singular value decomposition decomposes a rating matrix  $X$ , into three matrices  $U, \Sigma$ , and  $V$ . Where  $U$  and  $V$  represents the left and right singular vectors, and the diagonals of  $\Sigma$  represents the singular values.  $\Sigma$  is a diagonal matrix whose diagonal contains the singular values.

Eq. 2.15

$$X = U\Sigma V^T$$

$U$  and  $V$  are orthogonal matrices that contain the left singular values and right singular values, respectively. Therefore, the original matrix  $X$  can be reconstructed by its constituents  $U$ ,  $\Sigma$  and  $V$ .

Singular value decomposition is similar to the principal component analysis described in section 2.2.2.1.1.

At the heart of it, SVD is a dimensional reduction technique. SVD is used in a recommender system to identify noise and separate it from the most important part of the rating dataset. As shown in figure 3, given a rating dataset containing vectors of ratings for a set of items, we can extract a vector of features that characterizes the original rating dataset but has a lower dimension.  $U$  and  $V$  in figure 3 represent the vectors of features obtained from the decomposition of the original ratings matrix. Vectors in  $U$  represent the degree of interaction between the users and the extracted features, vectors in  $V$  represent the degree of interaction between the items and the features. And  $\Sigma$  is a diagonal matrix whose diagonals represent the singular values here. The corresponding vectors in  $U$  and  $V$  with the highest singular values are selected as the important vectors or features that characterizes the ratings. Understanding the extracted features in SVD and relating them to the characteristics of items and users is another domain problem. It is possible to understand the extracted features by looking deeply at the characteristics of the items in the dataset and how users interact with them. For a music item, extracted features might mean or correspond to the music genres, etc.

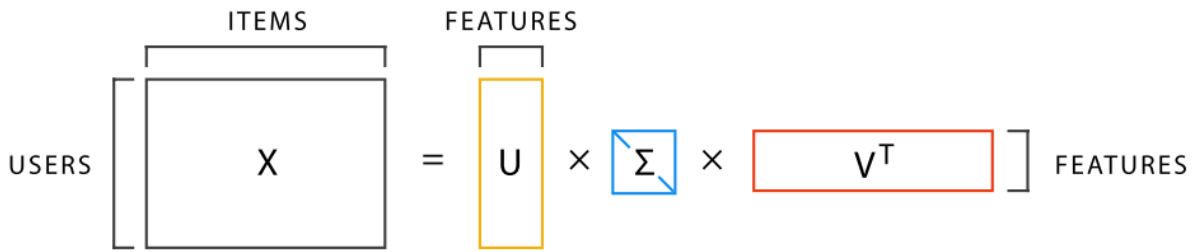


Figure 3. The singular value decomposition of X.

### 2.3. Context-Aware Recommender System

So far we have assumed that the predictions generated by recommender systems are legitimate and applicable to all circumstances and situations. Many other factors could influence the preference of a user: a user may, for example, lean towards leisurely activities at the end of the week but goes for more business-related activities on weekdays. These factors can affect the preference of users in a great deal. Thus, it is vital to consider the appropriate context during the process of recommendation. It is stated in [4] that “contextual recommender system acknowledges the effect of context in the recommendation and that the preference for an item within one context can be different in another context. “ We use context and contextual information interchangeably throughout this section; they mean the same.

Also, utilizing context in a recommender system gives users more confidence in predictions [16]. A recommender system might be able to explain its recommendation process regarding the contexts used and how they utilize each one [3]. Users might tend to trust the recommender system more because of its transparency.

To understand the value of context in a recommender system, we describe the typical traditional recommender system and how context-aware recommender system extends it. Typically, a traditional recommender system uses two-dimensional data space to estimate the rating for items or users. The rating function  $R$  for a traditional recommender system is calculated for the (user, item) pairs that haven't been rated by the user and defined as:

$$R: \text{User} \times \text{Item} \rightarrow \text{Rating}$$

Contextual recommender system extends the rating function by including one or more information in the form of context as shown below:

$$R: \text{User} \times \text{Item} \times \text{Context} \rightarrow \text{Rating}$$

The context used by a context-aware and driven recommender system could be fully observable, partially-observable or unobservable contextual information. Fully observable context means that the recommender system has full knowledge of the structures and values of the contextual information relevant to the interaction between users and items. An example is a movie recommender system; the contextual factors might be time or location. The structure of the time context might be the days of the week, the month of the year, etc., and the structure of the location might be street, city, province, state, etc.

The contextual factors relevant to the recommender system are partially observable if the system has a partial or incomplete knowledge about them. An example is when a movie recommender system is aware that time is a context relevant to a movie recommendation but not aware of other relevant factors [5]. Contextual factors are unobservable in a recommender system if the system is not explicitly aware of the contextual factors relevant to the system. A recommender system could

use inference and active learning techniques to extract the partially-observable and unobservable contexts [5].

In the following sections, we discuss the context in a recommendation, ways of incorporating contextual information into recommender systems and some important components of a context-aware recommender system.

### 2.3.1. Context in Recommendation

In [3], the author described the concept of context by attempting to derive its semantics from different fields. The consensus or common thing in all these fields or areas is how they look at their data from a contextual standpoint, enabling them to model data and build user profiles based on different context.

According to [4], contextual information can be in a static or dynamic form. The static form is when the contextual information is the same over the lifetime of the recommender system. Dynamic form is when the contextual information changes over the lifetime of a recommender system. A function in the recommender system constantly detects the relevant contextual information and updates as required. Dynamic form conveys a notion of adaptability, the ability to adapt to changing contextual factors in the environment. The system detects the relevant context and updates recommendations during the user's interaction with the system. This may occur in real-time where the context changes over time. Location is an example of a dynamic context that changes as you move from one point to another.

Contexts are factors that describe the environment and situations where the activity occurs. Much like rating data, we can acquire context data explicitly or implicitly. In the case of explicit context,

the user needs to specify the context deliberately. For example, a user could specify additional information in the recommender system. This may not be dependable since it is easy for users to overlook some relevant activities, particularly when it involves a lot of contextual information and it is over a long period [17]. Implicit data is extracted automatically without user involvement when a user interacts with the system. An example is the collection of information like location coordinates, weather, user social activities, etc. Mobile phones have features like the global positioning system (GPS) to collect location coordinates and obtain weather information from weather services using the location obtained.

Representation of the contexts obtained follows after extracting or inferring the context. Using the approach in [3], we show an example of a contextual data representation for a location-aware recommender system below. We represent a context as a set of contextual dimensions, each dimension in the set is defined by a set of attributes having a variety of granularities [3].

Given a location recommender system, we represent the set of contextual dimensions as  $D$  containing top-level contexts.  $D$  is defined below as:

$$D = \{ \text{Place\_Category}, \text{Weather} \}.$$

We further divide each element of  $D$  to a more granular or finer level such that :

$$D_{\text{place\_category}} = \{ \text{Food}, \text{Educational}, \text{Spiritual} \} \text{ and } D_{\text{weather}} = \{ \text{Winter}, \text{Summer}, \text{Fall} \}$$

Figure 4 below depicts a hierarchy tree structure showing the granularities in our example of a location recommender system.

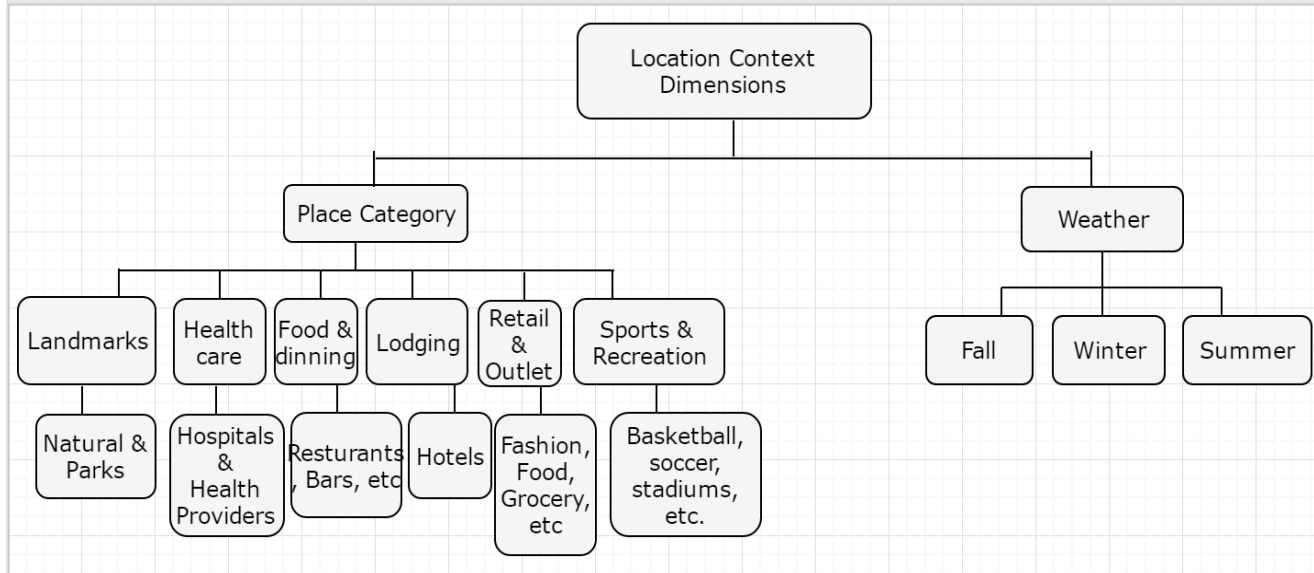


Figure 4. Hierarchy tree structure showing the granularities in a location recommender system.

### 2.3.2. Incorporating Contextual Information into A Recommender System

Unlike traditional recommender systems that solely rely on user preferences for some items, context-aware recommender systems use contextual information about the activities in addition to the user's preferences. Incorporating context into a recommender system can be done in three ways: contextual pre-filtering, contextual post-filtering, and contextual modeling.

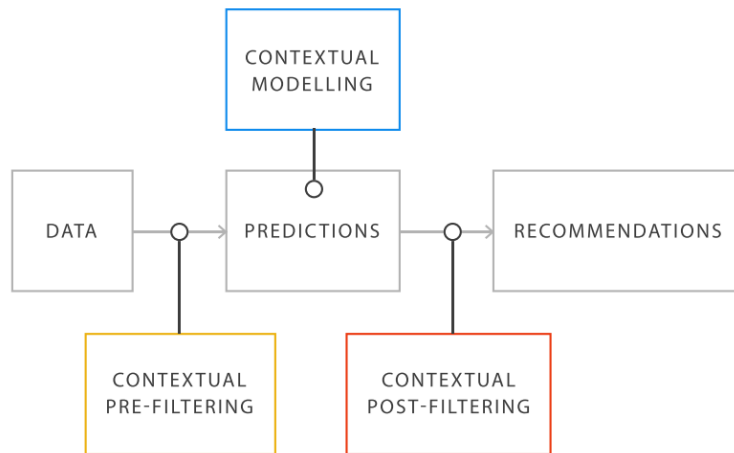


Figure 5. Ways of incorporating contextual information in a recommender system.

Figure 5 shows a general overview of the ways contextual information is incorporated into the recommendation process. The gray boxes represent the recommendation process in its pure form in sequence. The rating data goes into the predictions box, which represents the engine that performs the prediction and generates an output, the recommendations at the end of the process. Contextual pre-filtering filters the data before it goes into the prediction engine as represented by the orange box. Contextual post-filtering appears immediately after the prediction engine generates its output (recommendation), refining it to generate a more useful recommendation. Contextual modeling is incorporated directly into the prediction engine as shown by the blue box.

### 2.3.2.1. Contextual Pre-filtering

Contextual pre-filtering filters the rating data using the specified context before the recommender framework computes the recommendations. Recommendations are computed by utilizing a subset of the data that are significant to the context. This approach uses contextual information to filter the dataset for the most relevant data (user, item, rating), before the process of recommendation

[3]. A good example is a user that wants to find activities in a particular season; the recommender system only uses the preference data of the user and other users for that particular season.

In [6], a contextual pre-filtering technique based on implicit user feedback was used. This technique incorporated micro-profiling by splitting user profiles into several smaller profiles based on the contexts. After that, the system uses the context-based partitions for preference estimation.

Item Splitting is another pre-filtering approach. The concept is to split historical preference data that makes up the whole dataset profile into smaller segments and make predictions based a small segment. The major challenge of this approach is finding an efficient way to split the user profiles into optimal and appropriate segments [6]. This item splitting technique is referred to as micro-profiling. In [6], micro-profiling was applied on a music dataset to generate recommendations; the datasets were collected for a two-year period; it consists of implicit user feedback data, mainly the tracks the users of last.fm played. Multiple micro-profiles were used to model user's profiles based on time cycles. The smaller profiles represented the user profile for a specific time context. The work in [6] aimed to build a recommender system that could make predictions based on the time of the day. A comparison of the micro-profiling with the baseline prediction algorithm reveals that the micro-profiling performed better. During the evaluation of the algorithm, user profiles were separated into different partitions based on the time of the day; a range of time was used to group a partition. The contextual information used had different levels of granularities. We show an example of segmentation below. The contextual dimension used here is time, and it consists of different contextual conditions that were used to form different contextual situations as shown in the example.

An example of different pre-defined time segmentation also known as contextual situations over contextual time factor are:

$$T_{Time} = \{Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday, Sunday\}$$

$$T_{day\_segment} = \{morning, evening\} \quad T_{week\_segment} = \{weekend, working\ day\}$$

However, pre-filtering the rating dataset with contextual information might reduce the available dataset for the recommendation and cause a sparsity problem in the recommendation process. Context segments were proposed in [6] to create supersets and generalization of contextual factors that could be used for the pre-filtering process of the rating dataset. This provides a wider dataset that is filtered by the supersets rather than the individual contextual factors. Contextual pre-filtering is compatible with any of the traditional 2-dimensional recommendation algorithms.

### 2.3.2.2. Contextual Post-filtering

The post-filtering approach applies the recommendation process on the whole dataset and after that uses contextual information to filter the results to get the contextualized recommendations. Post-filtering examines the preference of a user in a given context to understand the item usage pattern for the given context and applies it to adjust the recommendation list [3]. The recommendation list can be adjusted by either filtering out the irrelevant items for that context or by ranking the list based on relevance in the given context.

Post-filtering allows a traditional recommendation algorithm to be used in the process of recommendation before a filter is applied to select relevant data. For example, in a location recommender system, if we want to recommend locations to a user based on a specific category,

we filter and return only the locations in the specific category or rank the recommended results based on the category context.

Two of the most used techniques in this approach is model-based and heuristic. In model-based, items are filtered out or re-ranked from the recommended result list by building models to predict the probability that the recommended item is relevant to the user in a given context or set of contexts. Filtering removes the items that have a lower probability than a set threshold from the list and re-ranking is done based on the probability-weighted rating. Heuristic involves filtering or re-ranking the initial recommendation results by finding common item characteristics for a given context or set of contexts [3].

Just like the contextual pre-filtering approaches, contextual post-filtering is compatible with traditional recommendation algorithms. This is a big advantage because any of the traditional 2-dimensional recommendation algorithms can be used with it.

### 2.3.2.3. Contextual Modeling

Contextual modeling incorporates context directly into its recommendation process. Contextual modeling uses a different approach to allow more than 2-dimensional data to be utilized to make recommendations. The 2-dimensional data are the user and item. Contextual information can be incorporated directly into the recommendation process alongside the user and item data. Predictive models like context-aware matrix factorizations, regression and decision trees are examples of contextual modeling techniques that incorporate context into their approach.

The contextual modeling approach is divided into Heuristics and model-based methods. [8] described a contextual modeling approach called contextual neighbors that is based on

collaborative user filtering. Heuristic-based methods extend traditional approaches. An example is the extension of the neighborhood approach using a multidimensional similarity method. The heuristic-based method finds the distance between users or items with similar context. The distance in consideration is the difference between the ratings being compared. To provide a generalized distance measurement, the dataset is grouped into segments using the available context, and the distance function is calculated on segments, this could help reduce sparsity where there are no adequate data for some contexts.

Different user profiles are created based on the available contextual conditions using different profiling methods. These contextual profiles are used to find the similarities between two users in a given context during the process of producing contextual neighbors. This approach finds all the nearest neighbors of a user in a given context by measuring the similarity between user's contextual profiles.

The work in [8] selects four different kinds of contextual neighbors. The first one has no constraint on selection; it selects all users similar to the given user in the given context. The second method adds a little constraint; it selects an equal number of users similar to the given user for each value of the contextual condition based on the neighborhood size. The third method goes further by selecting only neighborhood profiles for a given level of context; usually, the context has different levels of granularity as explained in previous sections. The fourth method selects an equal number of neighbors for each context level. The results of the experiment in [8] show that the first method performs better than the rest because of the unconstrained selection.

Several methods have extended the traditional model-based approaches for two-dimensional to incorporate contextual information; examples are Bayesian preference models, support vector machines, etc.

## 3. Related Work

In this chapter, we do a review of several works on recommender systems that have incorporated matrix factorization and contextual information into their process of recommendations. After that, we discuss coupled matrix factorizations. Because coupled matrix factorization is an extension of matrix factorization, we review some related works on traditional matrix factorization to set the stage and then we proceed to discuss some related works in context-aware matrix factorization methods. After that, we review some works on coupled matrix factorization; which serves as the core of our proposed methods.

### 3.1. Matrix Factorization

Matrix factorization attempts to characterize users and items based on the same latent factors learned by analyzing the rating patterns. Several researchers have adapted latent factors and matrix factorization models to predict ratings. Matrix factorization methods can be used to generate the latent factors that represent the features of users and items in the dataset, which is used to predict the rating users would give to items. The aim is to fill the missing values in the user  $\times$  item matrix by calculating the underlying factors that constitute and make up the interaction between users and items. This problem is similar to a matrix completion problem described in [23]. The main idea in [23] is to factor  $P \in \mathbb{R}^n \times m$  as  $P \approx AB^T$ , where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^n \times f$ ,  $B \in \mathbb{R}^m \times f$  and  $f$  is the rank of the latent factors. The idea is that a large matrix carries much less information or features than its dimension suggests, and the problem is whether we can find its low rank matrices in an optimal way without going through all its entries.

The use of SVD was proposed for factorization in [24], [36] and [37]. Sweeney, Lester et al. [24] discussed in details how to estimate low factors from a dataset using SVD. The authors in [24] used a student-course grade dataset to illustrate their method. They decomposed the dataset into a low rank space resulting in two sets of less noisy latent vectors representing student and courses. Predicting a grade for a student was a matter of multiplying the course feature vector with the student feature vector.

In [25], an improvement was made over the traditional Singular Value Decomposition by post-processing it with k-nearest neighbors and adding biases. Their method yielded an improvement in the predictions generated when compared to pure Singular Value Decomposition. Ratings are tabulated in a sparse user  $\times$  item matrix. Figure 6 shows an example of a matrix that contains the scores of students for several courses.

		<i>Courses</i>				
		<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>.....</i>	<i>m</i>
<i>Students</i>	<i>1</i>	4		3.67	4	
	<i>2</i>	3	3.33			
	<i>3</i>			2		
	$\vdots$	3	2.67		3.67	
	<i>n</i>		3.33			4

Figure 6. Student  $\times$  Course grade matrix as shown in [26].

Some of the problems with the SVD include: dealing with the sparsity in the rating matrix; a lot of unknown ratings might be present for some items. Another problem is how to avoid overfitting. Overfitting is an error that occurs when the model fits too closely to the training data, instead of the model learning from the training rating data, it memorizes it and causes a lot of inconsistency when you use the model on a new rating data. In [38], the problem of sparsity was addressed by

the imputation of the rating matrix to make the rating matrix dense, imputation, on the other hand, might misrepresent the data. The works in [14] and [39], suggested directly modeling the observed rating matrix and avoid overfitting by regularization. The methods involve adding a constant parameter to control the magnitude of the user and item latent feature vectors and finding the local minimum of the regularized squared error.

A lot of the approaches and methods stated in this section uses explicit dataset as opposed to our method that uses implicit feedback as our dataset. Implicit data can be easily extracted from user's activities. It is difficult to collect explicit feedbacks because they require user surveys and several other user-facing methods to collect feedback from users. The major addition of our approaches is the incorporation of contexts which is additional information. By coupling the additional information with the observed rating through joint factorization, we hope to improve the prediction accuracy.

## **3.2. Context-Aware Matrix Factorization Methods**

We categorize context-aware recommender systems into contextual pre-filtering, post-filtering and modeling according to [3] as discussed in the previous chapter. The proposed model in this thesis is under the contextual modeling classification. The proposed context-aware hierarchical Bayesian model in [30] is an example of a contextual modeling approach. The paper proposed grouping users and item together based on context; this is similar to how our proposed methods group items based on context before the factorization process.

A context-aware recommender method considers contextual information to generate recommendations with some contextual effects depending on how deep the context is integrated into the method. In [27], some context-aware matrix factorization (CAMF) techniques were developed to capture the interaction between the ratings and some contextual factors. The methods proposed by the authors measure the relevance of the contextual factors on the ratings based on three different assumptions. Three models were developed to capture the influence of each contextual condition on the user ratings.

The first model in [27] is called CAMF-C; it assumes that each contextual condition has a uniform influence over all the items. That is, the effect of each contextual condition over user ratings is the same for all items. A single parameter represents the effect for all items in a contextual condition. The total number of parameters is the sum of all contextual conditions of each contextual factor. Each parameter measures the deviation from the standard rating as a result of the contextual condition.

The second model in [27] is called CAMF-CI, it assumes that each contextual condition influences the ratings for all items. This means that the effect of each contextual condition is different for all items. This model introduces a large number of parameters, for each contextual condition and item pair, a parameter is used to model the deviation of the rating. This model provides better prediction according to the authors in [27].

The third and last model is called CAMF-CC, it groups items into categories and assumes that the influence of each contextual condition is the same for each item category. A parameter is used to model the deviation for each contextual factor and item category pair [27].

A contextual condition in [27] refers to a value of a contextual factor; we further explain what it means later in this section. The results of the experiments in [27] show that the CAMF-CC model performs better generally when compared to the other models in their work and another baseline context-aware factorization model. The problem with CAMF-CI is that it is too complex, thereby reducing prediction accuracy. One limitation of CAMF-CC when compared to our model is that it can only be used for items grouped in categories. CAMF-CC assumes that a domain expert can effectively group items, this becomes a problem when items cannot be efficiently grouped. In contrary, our proposed methods group ratings based on the contextual conditions they occurred. For example, we group ratings of music played in the morning; morning here is a contextual condition of the time contextual factor. This doesn't require a domain expert and makes the grouping and splitting process transparent. Another limitation of the methods in [27] is they capture only the influence of the contextual conditions on items. Our approach captures the influence of contextual conditions on users and items instead.

In [28], some correlation-based context-aware matrix factorization methods were developed and claimed to be an improvement over the models in [27], measuring correlation rather than rating deviation. The contextual correlation based CAMF measures the correlation between two contextual situations, the assumption is that two similar contextual situations for a user will produce similar recommendations for that same user.

A contextual situation in [28], is a set of contextual conditions, where each element is a contextual condition of a contextual dimension. A contextual dimension represents the contextual variables (contexts) or factors in the system, e.g., time, location, etc. A contextual condition represents a value of a contextual factor. For example, the contextual conditions of time could be weekday,

weekend, etc., depending on how it is partitioned. The correlation measured in [28] is between two contextual situations where one is empty. The contextual correlation was later integrated into the matrix factorization process.

Three different models were developed, namely independent context similarity (ICS), latent context similarity (LCS) and multidimensional context similarity (MCS). ICS measures the relationship between two contextual situations as the product of the correlations among different dimensions. It assumes that contextual dimensions are independent and therefore only calculates the correlation between contextual conditions in the same contextual dimension.

We give an example of two contextual dimensions: time and location, and two contextual situations: {Time = “weekend”, Location = “university”} and {Time = “weekday”, Location = “home”}. Table 3.1 shows a detailed example of correlation between contextual conditions where the correlation between the same condition shows a perfect correlation of value 1 and “N/A” shows that no correlation between contextual conditions belonging to different contextual dimensions. As an example, the contextual correlation is the correlation between Time = “weekend” and Time = “weekday” multiplied by the correlation between location = “university” and location = “home.”

The correlation values are learned in the minimization task of the factorization alongside other values. LCS attempts to solve the problem of calculating the correlation for new contextual conditions when they haven’t been learned in the training data. The authors chose five latent factors, and each contextual condition is represented by a vector containing the weights of these latent factors which are learned during the minimization process. The correlation between two contextual situations is calculated by the dot product of the two contextual condition vectors.

The MCS approach represents contextual conditions in a multidimensional coordinate system based on the number of contextual dimensions available in the system. The correlation between two contextual conditions is measured by the distance between two points in the coordinate using Euclidean distance. MCS outperformed the other models in the experiments conducted in [28].

In our proposed methods, rather than measuring the correlation between two contextual conditions to determine their influence as done in [28], we split ratings for each contextual condition into different matrices and perform a joint factorization while forcing the first model to have the same user matrix and the second model to have the same item matrix. The contrast with [28] is that instead of measuring the correlation between ratings in different contexts, we focus on finding the changes in user behaviors and item characteristics across different contexts.

	Time=Weekend	Time=Weekday	Location=Home	Location=Cinema
Time=Weekend	1	0.54	N/A	N/A
Time=Weekday	0.54	1	N/A	N/A
Location=Home	N/A	N/A	1	0.82
Location=Cinema	N/A	N/A	0.82	1

Table 3.1 An Example of a Correlation Matrix [28].

The work in [31] proposed an “improved context-aware matrix factorization” that “fully” incorporates contextual information alongside with user and item biases. The authors claimed that other approaches do not fully capture the influence of contextual information on ratings. The authors developed two methods called ICAMF-I and ICAMF-II. Both methods compute and incorporate the user-context interaction and the item-context interaction into the models created.

The first one (ICAMF-I), incorporates a global rating average, an item and user bias that aren't affected or influenced by the contextual factors.

The second method (ICAMF-II) built on the first method to incorporate item and user biases that changes over different contextual conditions. The item and user biases are modeled as the sum of all item and user bias over each contextual condition. Our methods measure and incorporate item and user biases for each contextual condition rather than as a sum. As an improvement to [31], we learn the item and user biases parameter for each contextual condition alongside the latent factors during training; this makes our contextual item and user biases more accurate and evolving as the rating behavior changes.

The authors in [32] created a context-aware recommender system that predicts the utility of items in a particular context. A tuple of user, items, context, and utility was used as the data structure to represent the problem of estimating the utility for a tuple. The utility of an item in a specified context is a function of its latent representation which is the column vector of the feature representation of the items and contextual factors. The Gaussian process was used to model the utility function.

### **3.3. Coupled Matrix Factorization**

Coupled matrix factorization is an approach that performs a joint factorization of two or more matrices. Several attempts have been made to develop different variants of coupled matrix factorization methods in [40], [41] and [33]. However, our methods are the first and only context-aware coupled matrix factorization as far as we can tell. The work in [40] defines a coupled matrix

factorization method that serves as the foundation of our proposed work. In [40] and [41], a coupled matrix factorization model was developed for factorizing two matrices by performing a joint matrix factorization of two matrices at the same time and minimizing using the gradient-based optimization method.

During the factorization of the two matrices, both matrices could share a common factor matrix. The idea for our work came from the common factor in [40]. However, we developed two models with two different variants of the common factor matrix in [40]. In our proposed methods, we use the term “common user factor” in our first model. The idea is that we assume a user’s taste remains consistent across different contextual conditions, but the item characteristics change in different contextual conditions. The second model assumes the characteristics of items remain the same over different contextual conditions but the user taste changes. We provide a detailed explanation of our two proposed methods in chapter 4.

Another improvement we added to [40] is the addition of contextual user and item biases. The method in [40] doesn’t incorporate any bias. The reason for item and user bias is because, in the rating dataset, the rating dataset is affected by some users or items that have extremely high or low ratings. This doesn’t model the general opinion. We incorporate bias to neutralize these effects by accounting for the influence of those biases. Finally, we incorporate contextual information into our models, making our work the first and only context-aware coupled matrix factorization.

“Coupling” according to [33] and [41] means the relationship among attributes of items in a dataset. They created a coupled similarity method that measures the similarity between attributes and characteristics of items to identify the relationship in the dataset. They incorporated the coupled similarity method into the matrix factorization method to form a coupled item-based

matrix factorization. We use the term “coupling” differently in our work; we use “coupling” to describe a process that jointly combines the factorization of different contextual matrices. We think our definition provides a better representation of the term “coupling” which means to combine or join. Our proposed models add user and item biases which were not added in [33] and [41]. We do not compare our methods to the coupled matrix factorization methods discussed here because they do not incorporate contextual information. There is no logical justification for comparison because it would be like comparing mangoes to apples because our proposed methods generate recommendations suitable for contextual conditions. We compare our methods to context-aware approaches only.

## 4. The Method

Matrix factorization techniques, as seen in chapter two and three are utilized in building recommender systems, especially in model-based approaches [18]. Researchers in the field of recommender systems have widely adapted and explored matrix factorization to some specific domains in recommender systems.

Time, location and weather provide useful contextual information in certain systems that can be exploited to provide better recommendations. For example, we can assume that users who listen to the same or very similar songs around the same time of the day say in the evening or morning, have more similar music taste and likely to be more predictive for each other. A user might like a song in the morning or certain days of the week but might not be so much interested in the same song in a different period of the day or day of the week. This is an example of how time can be used as contextual information in music recommendation.

The core idea underlying our context-aware coupled matrix factorization is, a way to incorporate the effects of relevant contextual information into the traditional matrix factorization method for producing better contextual based results. We focus on producing better predictions in a contextual condition rather than globally. We have defined contextual factors and conditions already in previous chapters, but we will give further explanations in this chapter on how we incorporate them to produce better prediction accuracy for different contexts.

To explain the methods developed in this thesis, we formulate the problem we are trying to solve as a contextual rating prediction problem. Given a dataset containing the ratings of users for certain items along with contextual information, e.g., time, our goal is to develop two models that predict

the rating a user would give to an item in different contextual conditions and compare the developed models with each other and other models.

We propose two context-aware coupled factorization methods in this thesis. The coupling part of our method is founded upon the approach in [40] which we explain in detail in this chapter. In the first section 4.1, we explain the foundation of our methods, introduce the recommendation problem and provide an overview of the proposed methods. In section 4.2, we explain how we group the ratings into different contextual matrices. Sections 4.1 and 4.2 also introduce some notations that we will use throughout this chapter. In section 4.3, we provide a detailed explanation of our proposed context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common user factors. Section 4.4 provides a detailed explanation of our proposed context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common item factors. Section 4.5 details the addition of contextual user and item bias to our proposed methods.

## **4.1. Foundations and Overview of the Proposed Methods.**

We define related symbols and notations to be used throughout this chapter in this section and provide the foundation for our proposed methods to enable us to set the stage for this chapter, understand the improvements made by our proposed methods and appreciate the importance of these improvements in predicting ratings.

We denote the user  $\times$  item matrix which contains user ratings for items and serves as the primary source of information as  $R$ . In our case, this contains all ratings without considering the context, making it a sample dataset containing only the ratings for users and items.

The foundation of our model is in matrix factorization, and as discussed in chapter 3, the goal of matrix factorization is to compute the latent factors of a matrix. The goal of a pure traditional matrix factorization is to find the factors  $A$  and  $B$  such that,  $R \approx AB^T$  and  $\hat{R} = AB^T$ .  $R$  is the observed rating (sample dataset) matrix and  $\hat{R}$  is the matrix of the predicted ratings.  $\hat{R} \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times J}$  where  $I$  and  $J$  denote the number of users and items respectively. The task is to compute the predicted rating matrix  $\hat{R}$  by computing the mappings of users and items to factors  $A$  and  $B$ .

Using a pure traditional matrix factorization without the incorporation of context or coupled factorization, the objective function to compute the predicted rating  $\hat{R}$  is given as:

Eq. 4.1

$$\hat{R} = AB^T$$

Where  $\hat{R}$  is the predicted rating matrix,  $A$  and  $B$  are the low factor matrices of  $\hat{R}$ , they represent the interaction between users/items and the latent factors. The factors represent what characterizes the items and the user behaviors in relation to items.  $A \in \mathbb{R}^F$  represents the relationship between users and the latent factors,  $B \in \mathbb{R}^F$  represents the relationship between items and the latent factors. The term “latent” here means “hidden”, the factors are discovered through this process and they are the same factors for both users and items. Once we have these factors, we can use them to predict the rating a user would give an item.  $F$  is the dimension of the latent factors,  $B^T$  is the transpose of matrix  $B$ .

The rating  $\hat{R}_{ui}$  for a user  $u$  and item  $i$  is denoted by:

Eq. 4.2

$$\hat{R}_{ui} = A_u B_i^T$$

Where  $\hat{R}_{ui}$  is an entry in the predicted rating matrix for user  $u$  and item  $i$ ,  $A_u$  denotes the user vector corresponding to user  $u$ , representing the interaction between the user  $u$  and the latent factors.  $B_i$  denotes the item vector corresponding to item  $i$ , representing the degree the item possesses the corresponding factors. The dot product  $\hat{R}_{ui}$  is the predicted rating.

The prediction task/problem is how to generate the latent factors and compute the mapping of users and items to factor matrices  $A$  and  $B$ .

With the understanding of the pure matrix factorization, our methods jointly factorize and incorporate contextual information into the process of matrix factorization to generate latent factors specific for contextual conditions. We show it in our proposed context-aware coupled matrix factorization models in section 4.3 and 4.4.

Our approach derives from the work done in [40]. We use the coupled matrix factorization idea in their work, but the model developed in [40] was not developed for making recommendations and does not incorporate contextual information. Our proposed methods, groups the rating dataset into its contextual conditions (the concept of contextual conditions was explained in the previous chapter) and jointly factorizes the contextual matrices, hence the word “coupled”.

Some of the additions we made to the approach in [40] are: incorporating contextual information, factorizing in a way to force the contextual condition matrices to have the same user factors, the addition of regularization to avoid overfitting during training, and the addition of contextual user

and item biases. We add regularization to ensure that the predicted rating model can be generalized as much as possible to be able to predict unknown ratings. Although regularization is our addition to the model in [40], it is by no means a new approach, many works have used it in the area of recommender systems.

## 4.2. Contextual Matrices and Dataset Grouping

Here we explain the method used to group a given dataset containing ratings with specified contexts. The contextual factors must be fully observable, meaning we assume that we have full information about the contextual factors relevant to our recommender system or ratings. A contextual factor is a distinct context that is relevant to the user-item rating. Time is the only contextual factor in the training dataset we used to perform our experiment. A context condition represents a value of the contextual factor.

Given a dataset with  $k$  contextual factors where  $k \geq 1$ , let  $C_1, \dots, C_k$  represent the set of contextual factors such that  $C_k$  contains the contextual factors for the  $k$ -th contextual factor.  $C_{kl}$  is the  $l$ -th contextual condition for the  $k$ -th contextual factor. For example, in our training dataset, we have just one contextual factor with three contextual conditions such that  $C_1 = (\textit{morning}, \textit{afternoon}, \textit{evening})$  is the Time contextual factor and  $C_{11} = \textit{morning}$ , is a contextual condition of Time.

We introduce the rating matrix  $R_{kj}$  to denote the matrix containing the ratings for the  $k$ -th contextual factor and  $l$ -th contextual condition for all users and items. We call this matrix a contextual condition matrix. For simplicity, we assume and limit our methods to incorporate only

one contextual factor containing three contextual conditions. The evaluation and experiments conducted in chapter 5 are based on this assumption. Hence,  $R_{11}$ ,  $R_{12}$ , and  $R_{13}$  represents the rating matrices for each contextual condition we use throughout this chapter. We refer to these matrices as contextual condition rating matrices. Each contextual condition rating matrix is formed by grouping together the ratings in the whole dataset that occurred in that contextual condition to form a subset. For example, in our training dataset, where we group together the counts of the artist played in the morning to form a morning contextual rating matrix.

### **4.3. Context-Aware Coupled Matrix Factorization with Common User Factors**

In this section, we explain our proposed model called context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common user factors. We use the term “common user factors” because we make the contextual condition rating matrices to have the same user latent factors by compelling the user factor matrix of each contextual condition rating matrix to be the same. We coin the name of the method in this section to illustrate the latent user factors shared by all the contextual condition rating matrices.

The rationale for this approach is based on the assumption that to incorporate the effect of context, we assume that during user interaction, the effect of context on ratings reflects only on items. That is, across different contextual conditions, the taste of users remain the same while the suitability of items differs. An item might not be suitable in a context due to its characteristics. Since a rating is a weighted product of the user and item latent factor matrices, the changes in ratings are largely

due to different values of item factors across the contextual conditions. Hence, in modeling the user-item-context interaction, the effect of context on the rating is reflected only on items. Our assumption makes sense in certain scenarios because some items are seasonal or suitable in certain conditions.

In this section, we define the objective function for our context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common user factor; this function is what computes the latent factors. The function generates the latent factors by minimizing the prediction error as shown later in this section.

Our method extends the approach in [40] by jointly factorizing  $R_{11}$ ,  $R_{12}$  and  $R_{13}$ , and sharing the same user factor matrix with all contextual condition matrices such that,  $R_{11} \approx AB^T$ ,  $R_{12} \approx AC^T$  and  $R_{13} \approx AD^T$ .  $A$  is the common user factor shared by the contextual condition matrices, where  $B$ ,  $C$  and  $D$  are the latent item factors of the observed contextual condition rating matrices  $R_{11}$ ,  $R_{12}$  and  $R_{13}$  consecutively.

The objective of our method is to generate the latent factors and compute the mapping of users and items to factor matrices  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$  and  $D$ . Once we have done that, then we can predict ratings for users and items in a contextual condition, such that,  $\hat{R}_{11} = AB^T$ ,  $\hat{R}_{12} = AC^T$ , and  $\hat{R}_{13} = AD^T$ .  $\hat{R}_{11}$ ,  $\hat{R}_{12}$  and  $\hat{R}_{13}$  are the predicted ratings for each contextual condition. We do this by defining and solving a minimization problem that minimizes the prediction error to a local minimum. In the simplest form, the difference between the observed rating and the predicted rating called the prediction error denoted by  $e$  is defined in [42] Eq. 2 as:

Eq. 4.3

$$e = R - \hat{R}$$

Therefore, for each user-item-contextual condition rating pair, the prediction error in its simplest form is defined as:

Eq. 4.4

$$e_{uick} = R_{uick} - \hat{R}_{uick}$$

Where  $R_{uick}$  represents the observed contextual conditional rating by user  $u$  for an item  $i$  in contextual condition  $ck$ .  $\hat{R}_{uick}$  is the corresponding predicted or computed rating for a contextual condition rating by user  $u$  for an item  $i$  in contextual condition  $ck$ .

Building on Eq. 4.4, we define our proposed context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common user factors objective function that incorporates joint factorization as an extension of Eq. 1 of [40] as:

Eq. 4.5

$$L = \|R_{11} - (A \times B^T)\|^2 + \|R_{12} - (A \times C^T)\|^2 + \|R_{13} - (A \times D^T)\|^2$$

Where  $\| \cdot \|$  denotes the Frobenius norm for matrices used as a loss function,  $A$  is the common user factor matrix that contains the mapping of users to the latent factors,  $B$ ,  $C$  and  $D$  are the latent item factors of  $R_{11}$ ,  $R_{12}$  and  $R_{13}$  containing the mapping of items to latent factors. The coupling can be seen here in the joint factorization process. The object function is solved as an optimization problem to minimize the prediction error while computing and learning the latent factors. This process generates our low latent factor matrices.

We already stated that  $A$  represents the relationship between users and the latent factors that determine  $B$ ,  $C$  and  $D$  denotes the latent vectors, representing the relationship between the items and latent factors for different contexts.

We modify our objective function in Eq. 4.5 by adding regularization to avoid overfitting during training, so that the prediction rating model can be generalized as much as possible to be able to predict unknown ratings. Regularization is done to penalize the magnitude of the low latent factors computed in the objective function.

We apply the constants  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  as used in [14] and [39] to regularize the squared error on the set of the observed contextual condition ratings, this is defined below as:

Eq. 4.6

$$L = \|R_{11} - (A \times B^T)\|^2 + \|R_{12} - (A \times C^T)\|^2 + \|R_{13} - (A \times D^T)\|^2 + (\beta \|A\|^2 + \alpha \|B\|^2 + \alpha \|C\|^2 + \alpha \|D\|^2)$$

Where  $\alpha$  controls the extent of regularization for the matrices  $B$ ,  $C$  and  $D$  and  $\beta$  controls the extent of regularization for the matrix  $A$ .  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are simply the penalty parameters.

To learn the latent factors in the low factor matrices, we optimize our objective function by solving the minimization problem below:

Formula 4.5

$$\min_{A, B, C, D} \|R_{11} - (A \times B^T)\|^2 + \|R_{12} - (A \times C^T)\|^2 + \|R_{13} - (A \times D^T)\|^2 + (\beta \|A\|^2 + \alpha \|B\|^2 + \alpha \|C\|^2 + \alpha \|D\|^2)$$

We use the stochastic gradient descent approach in [14] and [25] to solve the minimization problem. The purpose of minimizing using the gradient approach is to achieve our objective of computing and learning the low latent factor matrices which contains the mappings to the latent factors.

The stochastic gradient descent method attempts to minimize the difference between the observed rating and the predicted rating iteratively until it finds the local minimum; then it terminates.

Furthermore, we can break the minimization problem in formula 4.5 to:

Formula 4.6

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{A, B, C, D} & \left\| R_{ui11} - (A_u \times B_i^T) \right\|^2 + \left\| R_{ui12} - (A_u \times C_i^T) \right\|^2 + \left\| R_{13} - (A_u \times D_i^T) \right\|^2 \\ & + (\beta \|A_u\|^2 + \alpha \|B_i\|^2 + \alpha \|C_i\|^2 + \alpha \|D_i\|^2) \end{aligned}$$

Where  $A_u$  is the user vector factor for user  $u$ ,  $B_i$  is the item vector factor for item  $i$  in contextual condition 11,  $C_i$  is item vector factor for item  $i$  in contextual condition 12,  $D_i$  is the item vector factor for item  $i$  in contextual condition 13.

Using the gradient descent method, we minimize the objective function during each iteration until we get to a local minimum. This process is used to learn our low factors. After completing this process, we obtain our low factors  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$  and  $D$  containing the mappings to the latent features.

The goals of this model are to generate the latent factors, compute the common user factors and contextual condition item factors of the observed rating matrix. After which we can predict the ratings for any user and item in any contextual condition. Predicting the rating of user  $u$ , for item

$i$  in a contextual condition would be a weighted sum of the common user factor vector and the corresponding item factor vector defined as:

Eq. 4.7

$$\hat{r}_{uick} = A_u S_i^T$$

Where  $\hat{r}_{uick}$  is the predicted rating of user  $u$  for item  $i$  in a contextual condition  $ck$ .  $A_u$  is the common user factor vector for user  $u$  and  $S_i^T$  is the transpose of the associated item factor vector for item  $i$  in contextual condition  $ck$ ,  $S$  could be  $B$ ,  $C$  or  $D$ .

For two users to have similar ratings across different contextual condition, they must have similar common user factors and similar item ratings in a contextual condition. The core uniqueness of this method is generating common user factors for all the contextual condition rating matrices.

All factor matrices contain the interaction/ mapping of users and items to the latent factors. Our proposed method incorporates additional information; which in this work are contextual factors into the factorization process, making it richer in information as compared to the traditional matrix factorization.

## **4.4. Context-Aware Coupled Matrix Factorization with Common Item Factors**

In this section, we explain our proposed method called context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common item factors. We use the term “common item factors” because it forces the contextual condition rating matrices to have the same item latent factors by compelling

the item factor matrix of each contextual condition rating matrix to be the same. The name of this method is coined in this thesis to illustrate the “item factor” shared by all contextual condition rating matrices.

The rationale behind this approach is based on the assumption that to incorporate the effect of context; we assume that during user interaction, the effect of context on ratings is only reflected on users, the items maintain the same characteristics across different contextual conditions. This means, across different contextual conditions, the taste of users changes while the characteristics of item remain the same. And since a rating is a weighted product of the user and item latent factor matrices, the changes in ratings is largely due to different values of user factors across the contextual conditions. Hence, in modeling the user-item-context interaction, the effect of context on the rating is reflected only on users. This would make sense because some items are not seasonal or do not change characteristics in different context or conditions but a user’s taste might be seasonal or vary in certain situations.

In this section, we show the changes in notation from section 4.3; please refer to section 4.3 for the full description of the method. We define the objective function of our context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common item factor by building on the work in section 4.3. In our proposed context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common item factor, we adjust the work done in section 4.3 by jointly factorizing  $R_{11}$ ,  $R_{12}$  and  $R_{13}$ , while forcing the matrices to share the same item factor matrix such that,  $R_{11} \approx BA^T$ ,  $R_{12} \approx CA^T$  and  $R_{13} \approx DA^T$ .  $A$  is the common item factor shared by the contextual condition matrices, where  $B$ ,  $C$  and  $D$  are the latent user factors of the observed contextual condition rating matrices  $R_{11}$ ,  $R_{12}$  and  $R_{13}$  consecutively. We modify Eq. 4.4 to reflect the changes and define the objective function for this method as:

Eq. 4.8

$$L = \|R_{11} - (B \times A^T)\|^2 + \|R_{12} - (C \times A^T)\|^2 + \|R_{13} - (D \times A^T)\|^2 + (\beta \|A\|^2 + \alpha \|B\|^2 + \alpha \|C\|^2 + \alpha \|D\|^2)$$

Ultimately, we define our minimization task as:

Formula 4.9

$$\min_{A, B, C, D} \|R_{ui11} - (B_u \times A_i^T)\|^2 + \|R_{ui12} - (C_u \times A_i^T)\|^2 + \|R_{13} - (D_u \times A_i^T)\|^2 + (\beta \|A_i\|^2 + \alpha \|B_u\|^2 + \alpha \|C_u\|^2 + \alpha \|D_u\|^2)$$

Where  $A_i$  is the common item vector factor for item  $i$ ,  $B_u$  is the user vector factor for user  $u$  in contextual condition 11,  $C_u$  is the user vector factor for user  $u$  in contextual condition 12,  $D_u$  is the user vector factor for user  $u$  in contextual condition 13.

Predicting the rating of user  $u$  for item  $i$  in a contextual condition would be a weighted sum of the common item factor vector and the corresponding user factor vector defined as:

Eq. 4.10

$$\hat{r}_{uick} = S_u A_i^T$$

Where  $\hat{r}_{uick}$  is the predicted rating for user  $u$ , for item  $i$  in a contextual condition  $ck$ .  $A_i$  is the common item factor vector for item  $i$  and  $S_u$  is the associated user factor vector for user  $u$  in contextual condition  $ck$ ,  $S$  could be  $B$ ,  $C$  or  $D$ .

For two users to have similar ratings for a contextual condition, they must share similar user factor values for each contextual condition. They must also share similar item ratings within the context.

The core uniqueness of this method is generating common item factors for all the contextual condition rating matrices.

All factor matrices contain the interaction/ mapping of users and items to the latent factors. Our proposed method incorporates additional information; in this work, they are contextual conditions into the factorization process, making it richer in information as compared to the traditional matrix factorization.

## **4.5. Incorporating User and Item Biases in The Proposed Methods**

To have a better and more accurate prediction of ratings, we incorporate user and item contextual condition bias into the objective functions of both our proposed methods.

Biases are the variations in ratings due to individual effects certain users or items have. In a recommender system, there is a tendency for certain users to give higher ratings than others and for some items to receive higher ratings than others. This could be because some items or products are widely perceived as better due to factors like marketing, advertisement, etc. User bias and item bias captures the individual tendencies and variations. The item bias explains the tendency for an item to be rated lower or higher compared to the average rating and user bias explains the tendency for a user to rate higher or lower than the average rating.

The rating equations of our proposed methods; equations 4.7 and 4.10 calculates the ratings for an item in a contextual condition by an interaction between user factors and item factors for the most

part. This doesn't fully represent how a user rates. By incorporating item and user biases into the equation, we can then capture the part of the rating behavior that are specific characteristics of the individual user and item. For example, if the average rating is 3, and a user tends to rate an item 1 point higher than the average rating, and an item receives 0.5 rating less than the average rating. The rating of the user would be the addition of the average rating, user bias and item bias which would be 3.5 ( $3 + 1 + (-0.5)$ ).

User and item bias idea is gotten from the works in [14], [19] and [20]. The baseline estimate for an unknown rating that factors in item and user bias is defined in Eq. 1 of [14] as:

Eq. 4.11

$$b_{ui} = \mu + b_i + b_u$$

Where  $b_{ui}$  is the baseline estimate for an unknown rating of item  $i$  by user  $u$ ,  $\mu$  is the mean,  $b_i$  is the deviation of item  $i$  from the mean and  $b_u$  is the deviation of user  $u$  from the mean. We propose item and user contextual factor bias to factor in the individual effects of users and items on the contextual condition rating calculation. We incorporate contextual condition item and user bias into the rating equations of 4.7 and 4.10 to produce:

Eq. 4.12

$$\hat{r}_{uick} = A_u S_i^T + \mu_{ck} + b_{ick} + b_{uck}$$

Eq. 4.13

$$\hat{r}_{uick} = S_u A_i^T + \mu_{ck} + b_{ick} + b_{uck}$$

Where  $\mu_{ck}$  represents the mean rating in the contextual condition  $ck$ ,  $b_{ick}$  represents the bias of item  $i$  in the contextual condition  $ck$ ,  $b_{uck}$  represents the bias of user  $u$  in the contextual condition  $ck$

The contextual condition biases for item  $i$  and user  $u$  for the three contextual conditions we have in our model are:  $b_{u11}, b_{i11}, b_{u12}, b_{i12}, b_{u13}, b_{i13}$ . Hence, we extend both objective functions and learn the biases in the minimization task and also regularized the biases to avoid over fitting, the extended functions of formulae 4.6 and 4.9 are:

Formula 4.14:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \min_{A, B, C, D, b_{u11}, b_{i11}, b_{u12}, b_{i12}, b_{u13}, b_{i13}} \left\| R_{ui11} - (A_u \times B_i^T) - \mu_{11} - b_{i11} - b_{u11} \right\|^2 \\
& + \left\| R_{ui12} - (A_u \times C_i^T) - \mu_{12} - b_{i12} - b_{u12} \right\|^2 \\
& + \left\| R_{13} - (A_u \times D_i^T) - \mu_{13} - b_{i13} - b_{u13} \right\|^2 + (\beta \|A_u\|^2 + \alpha \|B_i\|^2 \\
& + \alpha \|C_i\|^2 + \alpha \|D_i\|^2 + \alpha \|b_{i11}\|^2 + \alpha \|b_{u11}\|^2 + \alpha \|b_{i12}\|^2 + \alpha \|b_{u12}\|^2 \\
& + \alpha \|b_{i13}\|^2 + \alpha \|b_{u13}\|^2)
\end{aligned}$$

Formula 4.15

$$\begin{aligned}
& \min_{A, B, C, D, b_{u11}, b_{i11}, b_{u12}, b_{i12}, b_{u13}, b_{i13}} \left\| R_{ui11} - (B_u \times A_i^T) - \mu_{11} - b_{i11} - b_{u11} \right\|^2 \\
& + \left\| R_{ui12} - (C_u \times A_i^T) - \mu_{12} - b_{i12} - b_{u12} \right\|^2 \\
& + \left\| R_{13} - (D_u \times A_i^T) - \mu_{13} - b_{i13} - b_{u13} \right\|^2 + (\beta \|A_i\|^2 + \alpha \|B_u\|^2 \\
& + \alpha \|C_u\|^2 + \alpha \|D_u\|^2 + \alpha \|b_{i11}\|^2 + \alpha \|b_{u11}\|^2 + \alpha \|b_{i12}\|^2 \\
& + \alpha \|b_{u12}\|^2 + \alpha \|b_{i13}\|^2 + \alpha \|b_{u13}\|^2)
\end{aligned}$$

## 5. Evaluation

We test our recommendation methods by performing an offline experiment. Offline experiments are experiments conducted using datasets or data sources collected from user interaction with a system, but the experiment process doesn't interact with the users. Online experiments carry out user studies and experiments that interacts with users during the process. We use implicit data; this means data collected about the activities of users which doesn't explicitly show intent. We explain the characteristics of the last.fm music dataset used and after that discuss the evaluation criteria and methods used. Finally, we discuss the results, analysis and performance of our methods and chosen baseline methods in the test performed.

### 5.1. Dataset

In our experiment, we use the dataset obtained from the last.fm music website. The dataset contains the music listening history of users. For each user, the dataset contains the tracks played by the user and the timestamp the user listened to each track. Each track is represented by the track id, the title of the track, the artist id, and name. The dataset contains 992 users, 176,948 artists and a total of 19,121,228 listening entries. The last.fm dataset is an example of an implicit dataset. An implicit dataset contains users' activities and actions that could be used to infer users' preference in a system. The music listening history is an example of an implicit dataset that could be used to infer the tracks that users like.

This dataset consists of tracks played by users. The average play count for a track is about two to three per user. For simplicity, and in order to have a less sparse dataset, we assume that tracks from the same artist are similar. Therefore, we accumulate user's play counts per artist and predict artists instead of tracks for users.

Studying this dataset, we found out that some users tend to listen to same artists, within the same time periods of the day. For example, some users listen to an artist between the period of 5 pm to 11 pm. In our work, we use this dataset to study the periodical play count pattern of users.

The contextual factor in this dataset is time. We split time into three contextual conditions: morning, afternoon and evening/night. Morning represents the period between 12 am and 11:59 am, afternoon represents the period between 12 pm and 5:59 pm while evening/night represents the period between 6 pm and 11:59 pm. We group the dataset into three subsets, each representing the three contextual conditions. Each subset contains the listening history within the corresponding period.

We split this dataset into two, a training dataset and a test dataset. We use the training dataset to train our proposed methods. We use a training and testing partition because we run the experiments for 10, 20 and 30 latent features each through 10,000 iterations to minimize the error, this would take a large amount of computation time for each evaluation considering the limited amount of computing resources we have available to use. In the test dataset, we predict the artists a given user would like in a given period. We select artists from a set of new artists not in the user's play history. We use the listening history data to get the play counts for an artist, in a given period. A user with a high play count for an artist in a given period, suggests that the user likes listening to that artist during that period.

## 5.2. Evaluation Method

To evaluate the performance of our proposed methods, we measure the prediction accuracy of our methods on our test dataset. We randomly select 100 users for testing. We divide our test dataset into three parts as explained in the dataset section, each containing user’s listening history for each time contextual condition, e.g., morning, evening, etc.

The data in the test dataset is excluded from the training dataset. For each user in the training dataset, the artist play count by the user is set to zero for the corresponding artist in the test dataset. We do this so that we can test the prediction accuracy of our methods on artists new to the user.

In this experiment, due to the limitations of implicit dataset not explicitly showing intent [46], we observe the user listening behavior in the dataset and came out with an assumption. Our assumption is stated below:

1. We assume that if a user has  $t$  play count for an artist, then the user probably likes the artist. Parameter  $t$  is set to the average play count for a user. This is because people tend to play the tracks they like more. We use this assumption to infer intent from the dataset. Because we used an implicit dataset that doesn’t explicitly state intent, we needed a way to infer intent from the dataset.

We evaluate the prediction accuracy of our methods on the test dataset using the Mean Absolute Error (MAE) and the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE). MAE is a popular statistical accuracy metric used in a recommender system to measure the deviation of a prediction or recommendation from the actual value [41]. MAE, as defined in Eq. 4 in [43], is defined below:

Eq. 5.1

$$MAE = \frac{\sum_{u,i} |P_{u,i} - r_{u,i}|}{N}$$

$P_{u,i}$  is the predicted rating generated by our methods for user  $u$  and item  $i$ ,  $r_{u,i}$  is the actual rating (observed rating) for user  $u$  and item  $i$  in the test dataset.  $N$  is the total number of ratings in the test dataset.

RMSE is a popular metric for evaluating the accuracy of predicted ratings by measuring the deviation of a predicted rating from the actual value [47]. RMSE, compared to MAE penalizes large errors and prefers smaller errors. RMSE ,as defined in Eq. 4 in [43], is defined below:

Eq. 5.2

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{u,i} (P_{u,i} - r_{u,i})^2}$$

$P_{u,i}$  is the predicted rating generated by our methods for user  $u$  and item  $i$ ,  $r_{u,i}$  is the actual rating (observed rating) for user  $u$  and item  $i$  in the test dataset.  $N$  is the total number of ratings in the test dataset.

We compare our methods with some baseline methods that incorporate context into their recommendation process.

The baseline methods we compare with our methods are:

- a. Independent context similarity (ICS) and latent content similarity (LCS) methods of the correlation-based context-aware matrix factorization (correlation-based CAMF) in [28]. We evaluate both ICS and LCS methods with the same training and test dataset used for our methods. The main rationale for choosing ICS and LCS is because they are both state-

of-the-art context-aware matrix factorization methods, and they performed better than some existing context-aware matrix factorization methods according to the results of the experiment in [28]. Also, we needed methods that could generate recommendations for different contextual conditions instead of making general recommendations. A lot of the existing context-aware methods use context to make general recommendations. Another reason why we choose to compare our proposed methods with ICS and LCS is to demonstrate and confirm that incorporating changes in user behavior and item characteristics across contextual conditions as used in our proposed methods is more effective than generating recommendations based on the correlation between two contextual conditions used in ICS and LCS. We discussed both ICS and LCS extensively in section 3.2.

- b. The context-aware matrix factorization (CAMF) methods in [27]. We compare our methods with CAMF-C and CAMF-CI in [27]. These methods are both state-of-the-art context-aware matrix factorization methods that can make recommendations for contextual conditions. We compare our proposed methods with CAMF-C and CAMF-CI to demonstrate and verify that our methods provide a better way to capture the influence of context on items. We discussed both methods extensively in section 3.2.

In general, we choose the methods above because they are context-aware methods that can be used to predict user ratings for a contextual condition.

### **5.3. Result and Analysis**

We train our models using the training dataset to generate different latent factors with different dimensions (number of factors). After that, we conduct a series of experiments to evaluate the

ability of our proposed methods to predict items for users in different contextual situations. We run different experiments to show the performance of our methods in comparison with the chosen baseline methods, using a different number of factors for each experiment. We provide below analysis of the results of the experiments conducted.

In running our experiments, we observed that, while the number of iteration is directly proportional to the effectiveness of our models, giving it a better MAE and RMSE scores, the number of iterations is also directly proportional to the time it takes to learn and generate our latent factors. The running time complexity of our methods is linear as a function of the number of iterations without taking the size of the dataset into consideration. Therefore, we use 10,000 iterations which take about 40 minutes to run for each iteration on a 4 GB RAM machine.

In choosing our parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we did some try-and-error to arrive at the best values because calculating the appropriate values for these parameters has been proved to be a difficult research problem [44]. In our experiment, we measure the sensitivity of our model to each try-and-error value we set by measuring the MAE and RMSE at each step of the training. We observed that our models performed better with small values of both parameters. We settled for  $\alpha = 0.6$  and  $\beta = 0.4$ .

We run some experiments to measure the prediction accuracy of our proposed methods and compare them to the prediction accuracy of our chosen baseline methods using MAE and RMSE. We set the number of latent factors to different values for each experiment to test whether the number of latent factors extracted affects the prediction accuracy of the proposed methods and to compare the performance of the baseline methods to our proposed methods when different dimensions are extracted. We use 10, 20 and 30 as the dimensions of the latent factors and run

different experiments for each dimension. We settled for these values after running different trials and observing that these dimensions provided the best prediction accuracies. The results are shown in table 5.1. In the table, we observed that setting the number of factors to 30 produced the best prediction accuracy.

We observe from our experiments that, context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common item factors shows better prediction accuracy for all dimensions, with an average improvement of 3.75% regarding MAE and 2.15% regarding RMSE across different dimensions. Context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common user factors show an average improvement of 2.75% regarding MAE and 1.43% regarding RMSE across the three dimensions used. Context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common item factors show an average performance of 25% and 20% regarding MAE and RMSE over context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common user factors. Therefore, we conclude that our proposed methods provide good prediction accuracy, but context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common item factors performs better.

The characteristics of the music dataset used could be an explanation for why the coupled matrix factorization with common item factors performed better in our experiment. In a music recommender system, most tracks would normally have the same characteristics and suitability across different contextual situations. It is the changes in user's taste in different conditions that account for what users consume in certain contexts. In certain scenarios where the changes in the consumption of items are largely due to the suitability of items across different situations, context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common user factor might perform better.

		Correlation- based CAMF - ICS	Correlation-based CAMF - LCS	CAMF- CI	CAMF-C
Coupled matrix factorization with common user factor	MAE	20.79%	25.76%	34.23%	45.31%
	RMSE	22.56%	25.03%	37.97%	45.05%

Table 5.1 Showing the average percentage improvement of coupled matrix factorization with common user factor over the baseline methods.

We run another set of experiments to compare our proposed methods to the selected baseline methods. Context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common item factors gives the best average performance improvement as shown in table 5.1. Context-aware coupled matrix factorization with user factors also performs better regarding MAE and RMSE than correlation-based CAMF – ICS, correlation-based CAMF – LCS, CAMF-CI, and CAMF-C. We conclude that our proposed methods perform better than all the chosen baseline methods. The results are shown in table 5.2.

The significance of using different dimensions for the latent factors is to investigate whether the number of the latent factors generated, affects the prediction accuracy of our proposed methods. Also, we wanted to see how the baseline methods compare to our proposed when we choose different dimensions for the generated latent factors.

We observe that with a small number of dimensions used, our proposed methods can accurately capture the low latent factors needed to generate good predictions and as the number of dimensions increased to a certain extent (30 in our experiment), our proposed methods become more effective. From these experiments, the significance of using a different number of dimensions for the low

factor matrices is to find the range of the dimensions that can effectively capture the latent factors that best describes the behaviors of users.

Method	No of latent factors	MAE	RMSE
Context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common user factors	10	0.545	0.772
	20	0.538	0.766
	30	0.530	0.761
Context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common item factors	10	0.479	0.698
	20	0.472	0.691
	30	0.461	0.683
Correlation-based CAMF - ICS	10	0.601	0.899
	20	0.591	0.890
	30	0.582	0.882
Correlation-based CAMF - LCS	10	0.644	0.927
	20	0.638	0.922
	30	0.621	0.911
CAMF-CI	10	0.752	1.152
	20	0.742	1.142
	30	0.701	1.101
CAMF-C	10	0.883	1.283
	20	0.852	1.252
	30	0.843	1.243

Table 5.2 Showing the MAE and RMSE results of the experiment conducted.

## 6. Discussion

Our work presents some improvements over traditional recommendation approaches, by incorporating additional information called context into the process of recommendation and making context critical rather than just some additional information. Because we make context front and center, our proposed methods can provide recommendations that are suited towards user's current state or contextual condition. Some examples are recommending music tracks for users in the morning, recommending activities suited towards a sunny day, etc.

E-commerce and content providers are seeing rapid changes in users' taste due to lots of information and items available on the web. If consumption of these items and information occurs in different contexts, a context-aware recommender system can be developed based on our proposed methods to help providers understand the changes in the taste of their users in different contexts and provide recommendations that are useful and tailored to fit the conditions and intentions of their users. Once we identify the contextual factors affecting the behavior of users in an application, we can use our approach and methods to split the dataset extracted from the application into different contextual matrices and predict what a user would like or buy in a contextual situation. For instance, in an event recommender system, user's location, weather condition, time of the event, etc., are some examples of contextual factors that affect users' choice of an event. We can use our proposed methods to split the events users have attended in the past into contextual factor groups and recommend events to users based on the combination of location, weather condition and the time of the event.

Our proposed methods provide an important value in the era of the internet of things where we want to make useful applications from the data generated by sensors. For instance, refrigerators, thermostats, mobile phones, clothes, etc. when connected to the internet can send additional data about their location and period of usage to a remote server on the internet. Our proposed methods can leverage this contextual information to develop a recommender system that predicts and generates contextual recommendations to the users of the connected objects. For example, a recommender system based on our proposed methods can be developed to use the data received from a smart refrigerator connected to the internet to recommend different food items to the user at the different time of the day.

Our proposed models would be beneficial to recommender systems because they can provide recommendations for new users by looking beyond the unavailable historical data and focusing on providing recommendations based on the current circumstances and contextual condition of the user. This can be achieved by looking at what existing users in the contextual condition have in common and recommending that to the new user. This could help to reduce the effect of the cold start problem, where the recommender system cannot provide recommendations for new users because it lacks historical data about the new user.

Our proposed methods can recommend other services, products and work with different datasets other than the music recommender system dataset used in chapter 5. Some other examples of product categories our approach can generate recommendations for are TV shows, movies, events, locations, etc. The same way we applied our methods to the music domain, we can apply our methods to other domains. The contextual factors that affect the problem domain or product must be stated and identified before applying our proposed methods to develop a context-aware

recommender system. One way to determine the contextual factors that affect a product is to look at users' behavior and purchase history. Once we can identify the contextual factors, we can apply the method in section 4.2 to group the dataset into contextual condition matrices. The contextual condition matrices serve as the input to both of our proposed methods.

Our methods personalize recommendations to users' contextual situations by considering the historical data in the specified contextual situation we wish to generate the recommendation. Our approach to generating recommendations is based on the position in [6] that, "people have more in common with other people in the same situation, or with the same goals than they do with past versions of themselves." By focusing on the preference and behavior of users in a contextual condition, our proposed methods can predict what a user would like in a contextual condition based on what other users in that contextual condition liked in the past.

One significant limitation of our proposed methods is scalability. Computing recommendation for users in a big dataset requires a lot of memory and computation resources. In a domain with hundreds of contextual factors affecting users' behavior, computing recommendations with our proposed methods might be a challenge. With hundreds of contextual factors, splitting the dataset into contextual situation matrices would be a cumbersome task. Coupled matrix factorization of hundreds of contextual matrices would require a lot of computing and memory resources. A possible solution to this challenge is applying parallel and distributed principles to design algorithms that would compute different pieces of our proposed methods on multiple computers and processors. Another possible solution is precomputing and generating the models that predict recommendation for a snapshot of the dataset and performing an incremental computation to rebuild the latest models as the dataset changes.

## 7. Conclusion and Future Work

### 7.1. Conclusion

In this age of big data and information explosion, providing recommendations help users to get relevant data in an online system. Mostly found in many online systems, a recommender system takes historical information about user's interaction and applies an algorithm to predict what the user would like. A context-aware recommender system is a type of recommender system that takes into consideration information regarding the circumstance or settings around the interaction of a user with an item when predicting what the user would like.

We aimed to develop a context-aware approach to making recommendations that are context centric; i.e., an approach that provides recommendations based on contextual rating, the rating given in a particular context. Therefore, our focus was to develop methods that provide recommendations for different contexts and not general recommendations.

After evaluating our methods on the last.fm dataset, our experimental results showed that both the proposed context-aware coupled matrix factorization methods showed a good performance on predicting new artists for users, but the method with the common item factor showed better prediction results. Therefore, the taste of users changes across different contexts, but the characteristics of items don't change that much when compared to user's behaviors, based on our experiments. This would make sense for certain items like music or artist; whether a user likes a song in the morning or evening is relative to the user for the most part. This means for two users

to share similar artist taste in a context, they must have similar ratings or taste for the artist in the context being considered. Our results also show that other factors like parameters of the methods and number of iterations the method runs during the training affect the accuracy of prediction.

We compared our methods with some state-of-the-art context-aware recommendation methods, and our proposed methods showed a fairly significant improvement over all the methods considered. We have to mention that our method is more suited towards making predictions for specific contexts, and might be less effective in applying contextual information to make general predictions. Also splitting ratings into contextual groups before performing predictions make our method more effective towards performing context centric recommendations. We also made some assumptions during the experiment as stated in the evaluation section of the previous chapter. These might have added some advantages to our proposed methods.

From the results of our experiments, we can deduce that jointly factorizing matrices work for contextual rating matrices (rating matrices containing ratings for a contextual condition). Jointly factorizing the ratings for different context also saves time, because the factorization is done at once together. Furthermore, forcing the contextual condition matrices to have a common low factor matrix, especially a common item low factor matrix, helps to attach the information that is not context specific to different contextual conditions; thus, avoiding overfitting to a particular contextual condition. This was shown in the disparity of the results obtained by the two methods (table 5.1), and it is clear that having a common factor works but knowing which factor to share was not evident until after performing the experiment.

One limitation of our proposed methods is, they only incorporate one context. This would be a challenge in a domain or dataset with multiple contexts. Some scenarios would require the

recommender systems to incorporate multiple contexts in its recommendation process. An example is an event recommender system with multiple contextual factors like time of the event, location of the user and event, weather conditions, etc.

Another limitation of our proposed methods is the assumptions made by each method. The context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common user factors model assumes users' taste remains the same across different contextual conditions and the context-aware coupled matrix factorization with common item factors model assumes the characteristics of items remains the same across different contextual conditions. There might be scenarios where users' taste and item characteristics change across different context. Our methods might fall short in such scenarios. An example is a news application, users' consumption and the characteristics of news items change across different categories and locations. This behavior is similar for most content-based applications.

## **7.2. Future Work**

Our proposed methods were formulated and experimented with only one context. It would be interesting to extend this work to incorporate more than one context, find out the challenges in doing that and the necessary modifications to our methods to accommodate such extension. Although we believe this would be a straightforward extension, there might be some challenges with scalability when each context contains several contextual conditions. Extending our proposed methods to incorporate more contextual factors and dimension is a matter of adding more contextual situation matrices and biases to the existing model to accommodate the additional

contextual factors. We discussed the problem of scalability and a possible solution to the problem in chapter 6.

Another interesting future work to consider would be, exploring techniques that adequately extract and share relevant user and item features across different contexts and contextual condition during prediction. We believe that although user behavior or item characteristics changes across different context, separating what changes from what remains the same across different context is very important to generate useful recommendations. Although our proposed methods shares either users taste or item characteristics, we do not provide a method that shares both across different contextual conditions. We think that it would be interesting to develop a model that can determine both user and item features that are common to the interaction irrespective of the context or contextual condition when making predictions. This would provide a better way to adequately model users' interactions with items in different contexts and ultimately enhance the predictions generated.

Another interesting further research would be how to make contextual predictions without manually identifying the contextual factors that affect users' interaction and grouping the rating data by contextual conditions. One possible approach is to develop methods that could automate the process of identification and extraction of contextual factors. A possible way to do that is to examine the metadata and additional data that comes alongside the user-item rating for patterns and changes that correlate with the user-item rating data. Identifying and splitting a dataset manually according to its contextual factors is cumbersome and error-prone, methods and approaches that can automatically extract this pattern and information effectively would improve the quality of the recommendation generated in a context. These methods would require

understanding the problem domain of the application generating the dataset and the factors that affect users' interactions with items.

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