Neutralizing Popularity Bias in Recommendation Models

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ABSTRACT

Most existing recommendation models learn vectorized representations for items, i.e., item embeddings to make predictions. Item embeddings inherit popularity bias from the data, which leads to biased recommendations. We use this observation to design two simple and effective strategies, which can be flexibly plugged into different backbone recommendation models, to learn popularity neutral item representations. One strategy isolates popularity bias in one embedding direction and neutralizes the popularity direction post-training. The other strategy encourages all embedding directions to be disentangled and popularity neutral. We demonstrate that the proposed strategies outperform state-of-the-art debiasing methods on various real-world datasets, and improve recommendation quality of shallow and deep backbone models.

CCS CONCEPTS

• **Information systems** → **Recommender systems**.

KEYWORDS

recommender systems, popularity bias, disentangled representation

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1 INTRODUCTION

Recommender Systems (RS) have been widely applied in our daily lives [2]. Despite their huge success in E-commerce and many other domains, most RS suffer from popularity bias. They recommend popular items much more frequently than long-tail items, which have negative impacts on both users and businesses. The user experience is harmed because of non-personalized recommendations. Niche items are unfairly treated and revenue decline is expected for item providers. Moreover, there exists a vicious cycle of popularity bias: since user selection will be affected by how RS expose items, the popular items will become more and more popular.

Most recommendation models, including shallow models such as MF [19] and state-of-the-art deep learning based models [13, 14], represent items as numerical vectors called embeddings. A natural assumption is that biased predictions are made because the item embeddings inherit unintended popularity bias from user feedback. To investigate this assumption, we train five well-known recommendation models (i.e., BPR [21], LightGCN [12], WMF [20], ItemAE [23], eALS [15]) on an RS benchmark dataset MovieLens100K [11]. We first extract item embeddings for popular (i.e., top 10% movies with most ratings) and long-tail items (i.e., bottom 10% movies). As illustrated in Figure 1, popular and long-tail items cluster in distant regions of the embedding space. Moreover, we conduct statistical analysis to uncover the association between each embedding direction and popularity. We conduct paired samples t-test to popular and long-tail items on each embedding direction, and as shown in Table 1, a majority of directions are significantly different for popular and long-tail items. Next, for all items, on each embedding direction, we compute Spearman Rank Correlation between the direction and each item's corresponding popularity. As shown in Table 1, more than half of the directions are positively correlated with the popularity of items.

The above observation motivates us to seek a de-biasing strategy by learning popularity-neutral item embeddingss. This is not a

Table 1: Percentages r of embedding directions in which popular and long-tail items are significantly different (t-test with confidence ≥ 0.95). Percentages p of embedding directions that are positively correlated with popularity (Spearman's Rank Correlation $\rho > 0$).

RS model	BPR	LightGCN	WMF	ItemAE	eALS
r	95.31%	100%	73.44%	70.31%	43.75%
p	59.38%	53.12%	56.25%	50.00%	62.50%

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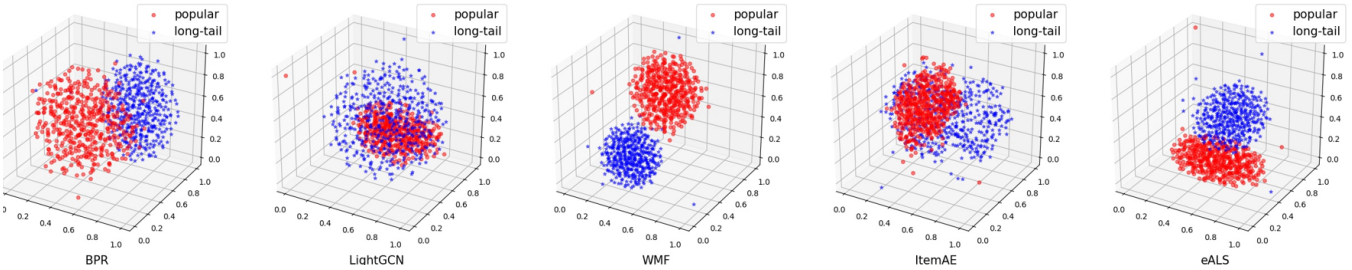

Figure 1: T-sne visualizations of representations for popular and long-tail items learned by different recommendation models

trivial problem as two challenges must be addressed. (1) Trade-off between unbiased recommendation (i.e., fair positioning of popular and long-tail items in the recommendation list) and overall recommendation accuracy (e.g., HitRatio at topK recommendations) [3] is often observed for previous de-biasing strategies [29, 32], thus the proposed debiasing strategy can not hurt the overall recommendation accuracy. (2) Since many recommendation models exhibit popularity bias in item embeddings, the debiasing strategy should be able to be applied to different recommendation models and achieve robust performance enhancement.

Although popularity bias has been extensively studied in the literature [1, 8–10, 16, 25–27, 29, 31–34], they mainly fall into three categories [7]. (1) At data level: inverse propensity scoring (IPS) methods [9, 16, 27] down-weigh popular items in the training process. (2) At loss level: unbiased objective methods augment the loss function to balance popular and long-tail items in the recommendation results [1, 34]. (3) At model level: causal inference methods [5, 25, 26, 29, 31, 32] use counterfactual reasoning to predict user interaction. De-biasing at the representation level and its effect in recommendation quality have remained relatively unexplored.

There is also a recent surge of research [4, 24, 30] in de-biasing word embeddings in Natural Language Processing. However, they mainly focus on bias related to categorical attributes such as gender bias, and they detect and reduce bias in pre-trained word embeddings. They can not be applied to learn item embeddings that are neutral with respect to a continuous attribute such as popularity.

In this paper, we present two strategies to derive popularity neutral item embeddings. The two strategies differ in the phase when neutrality is obtained. The first strategy isolats popularity bias in one embedding direction during training, and neutralizes the popularity direction during prediction. The second strategy encourages all directions to be disentangled and popularity neutral in the learning. Both strategies are implemented by adding regularization terms in the loss function, and thus can be flexibly plugged into different backbone models and reduce popularity bias while preserving the overall recommendation accuracy. Our experiments on various real RS datasets demonstrate that the proposed strategies can robustly improve the recommendation accuracy and reduce popularity bias on both shallow and deep models. The proposed strategies outperform state-of-the-art debiasing methods in terms of recommendation accuracy and recomendation fairness.

In summary, our contributions are two-fold. (1) We present two simple and effective strategies to neutralize popularity bias in item embeddings, in a pre-training and an in-training manner, respectively. (2) We show that directly neutralizing popularity bias in item embeddings can greatly improve recommendation quality of different backbone models on a variety of recommendation benchmark datasets.

2 RELATED WORK

Recent years have witnessed a rapid growth of research papers on mitigating popularity bias in RS [1, 8–10, 16, 25–27, 29, 31–34]. One line of existing work addresses popularity bias from training data level by Inverse Propensity Scoring (IPS) [9, 16, 27], which re-weights each instance by the inverse popularity value, thus popular items are imposed lower weights, while the long-tail items are boosted. IPS-based methods can achieve state-of-the-art performance, however, they are highly sensitive to the weighting strategy. The second line incorporates regularization terms in the loss function, which usually reflects the degree of bias in the recommendation results. For example, the long-tail coverage in recommendation lists [1] or the popularity-rank correlation for users (PRU) and items (PRI) [34]. The third line alleviates popularity bias at model level, including exposure dependent models from missing-not-at-random implicit feedback [22] and recent causal learning [5, 28, 32] methods that estimate the causal effects of the treatment variables (e.g., exposure) on the feedback outcome.

In summary, literature that considers debiasing directly at embedding level is very limited. To the best of our knowledge, CausE [5] and DICE [32] are most similar to our work. However, they both learn two sets of embeddings instead of operating on embedding directions. Furthermore, CausE [5] trains unbiased embeddings on a small unbiased dataset. The unbiased embedding is more noisy because of insufficient training on the small dataset. DICE [32] needs cause-specific data under the framework of multi-task learning.

3 METHODOLOGY

Preliminaries. Our goal is to design methods that are generally applicable to any recommendation model M which learns to encode item features in a matrix $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$, where N is the number of items, and D is the dimension size. The item representation for item $i, i = 1, \cdots, N$ is a row of $\mathbf{V}$, denoted by $\mathbf{V}_{i,:} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times D}$, which is a $D-$dimensional numerical row vector. Similarly, the $d-$th column of $\mathbf{V}$ is denoted by $\mathbf{V}_{:,d} \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$, which represents the $d-$th direction of the item space. The subscripts can be ranges, for example

$\mathbf{V}_{i,d}, d = 1, \cdots, D$ denotes the $d-$th component of item i's representation, while $\mathbf{V}_{1:n,d}$ denotes representations of items $i = 1, \cdots, n$ in direction d. The item representations are usually a separate part of the model parameters, or are obtained by some feature transformation modules using a set of trainable weights ϕ. Without loss of generality, the model predictions are made by $M_\phi(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V})$, where $M()$ is a function operated on user representations $\mathbf{U}$ and item representatons $\mathbf{V}$. The model parameters, including ϕ or/and $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}$ are learned via minimizing a recommendation loss function $\mathbb{L}^{RS}$. As depicted in Section 1, such a training paradigm does not guarantee unbiased item representations. We next describe two strategies to de-bias item representations $\mathbf{V}$.

3.1 PID: Post-training De-biasing

A straightforward approach is to remove components in item representations that are biased towards popular items. However, as shown in Table 1, many directions are associated with popularity bias, removing them will seriously harm the RS performance.

Our intuition is to isolate one direction to be popularity biased during training, and neutralize this popularity direction post-training. Since only the popularity direction is corrected, information captured by other directions will be preserved and the recommendation performance is optimized.

Algorithm 1: Framework of PID

Input: loss coefficient $\alpha^{PID} \in (0, 1)$, popularity vector $\mathbf{p}$
Output: Predictions $M_\phi(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V})$

1 Randomly initialize $\mathbf{\Theta} = (\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}, \phi)$, fix $\mathbf{V}_{:,D} = \mathbf{p}$;
2 **for** *number of training epochs* **do**
3 Maximize $S\big(\mathbf{V}_{:,1:D-1}\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{p}\big)$ with respect to $\mathbf{w}$;
4 Minimize $\alpha^{PID} S\big(\mathbf{V}_{:,1:D-1}\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{p}\big) + (1 - \alpha^{PID})\mathbb{L}^{RS}$ by SGD with $\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{p}$ fixed;
5 Neutralize $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{0}$ in $\mathbf{V}$;
6 Compute $M_\phi(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V})$;

Algorithm 1 describes the framework of post-training item representation de-biasing (PID). To define a popularity direction, we simply compute the popularity of each item and assign a popularity vector $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^N$, where $\mathbf{p}_i$ is the number of interactions (e.g., clicks, ratings, etc.) item i receives. To initialize the training process, we fix the last column of the item space to be equal to the popularity vector (line 1). To isolate the popularity direction, we attempt to reconstruct popularity direction from the other $D-1$ directions, i.e., $\mathbf{V}_{:,1:D-1}\mathbf{w}$, where $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{D-1}$ is a learnable reconstruction coefficient vector. The reconstruction is evaluated by a similarity metric $S()$ on $\mathbf{V}_{:,1:D-1}\mathbf{w}$ and $\mathbf{p}$. We alternatively maximize the similarity (line 3) and minimize the recommendation loss $\mathbb{L}^{RS}$, regularized by the similarity (line 4). Note that the minimization procedure is a set of stochastic gradient descent steps, depending on the actual implementation of the backbone model. The coefficient α^{PID} balances between recommendation performance $\mathbb{L}^{RS}$ and popularity independence of the subspace $\mathbf{V}_{:,1:D-1}$. In testing, we neutralize the popularity direction, e.g., by setting all components to zeros (line 5) and use the item representations to make predictions (line 6).

3.2 IID: In-training De-biasing

Instead of compressing popularity bias in one direction and removing it post-training, an alternative strategy is to encourage all directions to be popularity neutral during training. Intuitively, we can again define the popularity vector $\mathbf{p}$, evaluate the similarity for every direction, and minimize the aggregated similarity over all directions. However, since each direction of the item representation is essentially an arbitrary combination of distinct feature aspects, the risk of over-computing popularity bias is high. For example, suppose "reputation" of an item is one aspect that influences user feedback in RS, and it is correlated with item popularity. Thus, the similarity between "reputation" and popularity will be high, and will contribute for multiple times by all directions that encode "reputation".

To eliminate the effect of over-computing popularity bias, our solution is to disentangle the directions by imposing orthogonal regularization. Thus, the optimization objective is:

$$\mathbb{L}^{IID} = \alpha_1^{IID}\|\mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V} - \mathbf{I}\|_2^2 + \alpha_2^{IID}\sum_d S\big(\mathbf{V}_d, \mathbf{p}\big) + (1 - \sum_{i=1,2}\alpha_i^{IID})\mathbb{L}^{RS}, \tag{1}$$

where $\|\mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V} - \mathbf{I}\|_2^2$ is the orthogonal regularization to learn independent directions, $\mathbf{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{D\times D}$ is the identity matrix, $\sum_d S\big(\mathbf{V}_{:,d}, \mathbf{p}\big)$ is the aggregated similarity over all directions, $S()$ is the similarity metric, $\alpha_i^{IID} \in (0, 1), i = 1, 2$ are coefficients to control the degree of disentanglement and popularity neutrality.

4 EXPERIMENT

In this section, we conduct experiments in order to answer the following research questions: **RQ1**: Do PID and IID improve the recommendation quality of different recommendation models, and outperform other debiasing methods? **RQ2**: How does the hyper-parameter, i.e., α, affect the recommendation performance?

In the following, we first demonstrate our experiment setup in Sec. 4.1. Then, the performance of PID and IID is verified by both shallow and deep learning based recommendation models on three well-known recommendation benchmarks in Sec. 4.2 (RQ1). Finally, we investigate the parameter influence in Section 4.3 (RQ2). Source codes are available[1].

4.1 Experimental Setup

Dataset. We use three benchmark data sets for RS in our experiments: ML-100K[2], Epinions[3] and Amazon Digital Music[4]. We apply 10-core pre-processing on ML-100k and Epinions dataset and 5-core pre-processing on Amazon Digital Music dataset to make sure each user/item has sufficient feedback. Tab. 3 lists the statistics of the three datasets.

Backbone recommendation models. We apply PID and IID to two recommendation baselines: (1) BPR [21] learns latent factors for users and items by optimizing a triplet loss based on the inner product of the user and item factors. (2) LightGCN [12]learns user and item embeddings by linearly propagating them on the user-item

[1]https://github.com/XMUDM/NeutralizingBias
[2]https://grouplens.org/datasets/movielens/100k/
[3]http://trustlet.org/downloaded_epinions.html
[4]http://jmcauley.ucsd.edu/data/amazon/

Table 2: Recommendation performance of different methods. Best performance is shown in bold font. Second best performance is underlined. Improvements (Imp.) of PID and IID with respect to the backbone: ↑: better performance, ↓: worse performance, or −: comparable performance.

Dataset	ML-100K				Amazon DM				Epinions			
Method	R@20	HR@20	NDCG@20	PRU	R@20	HR@20	NDCG@20	PRU	R@20	HR@20	NDCG@20	PRU
BPR	0.1011	0.5101	0.0790	0.6598	0.0736	0.1645	0.0382	0.5465	0.0146	0.0929	0.0100	0.6638
IPS	0.0964	0.4963	0.0740	0.5481	0.0578	0.1283	0.0297	0.3968	0.0086	0.0656	0.0066	0.4606
IPSC	0.1149	0.5534	0.0893	0.5521	0.0583	0.1333	0.0306	0.3875	0.0115	0.0813	0.0084	0.4893
IPSNC	0.1213	0.5708	0.0881	0.5879	0.0823	0.1885	0.0454	0.4717	0.0198	0.1300	0.0147	0.5823
CausE	0.0950	0.4974	0.0670	0.7527	0.0151	0.0399	0.0080	0.5764	0.0066	0.0462	0.0042	0.6850
DICE	0.1114	0.5259	0.0738	0.7017	0.0576	0.1232	0.0300	0.6534	0.0179	0.1061	0.0117	0.7414
PID	0.1231	0.5767	0.0912	0.5735	0.0864	0.1968	0.0478	0.4647	0.0203	0.1312	0.0147	0.5657
Imp.	↑ 22%	↑ 13%	↑ 15%	↑ 13%	↑ 17%	↑ 19%	↑ 25%	↑ 15%	↑ 39%	↑ 41%	↑ 47%	↑ 15%
IID	**0.1343**	**0.6021**	**0.1002**	**0.4994**	**0.0918**	**0.1968**	**0.0524**	0.4172	**0.0227**	**0.1377**	**0.0172**	**0.4293**
Imp.	↑ 33%	↑ 18%	↑ 27%	↑ 24%	↑ 25%	↑ 20%	↑ 37%	↑ 24%	↑ 55%	↑ 48%	↑ 72%	↑ 35%
LightGCN	0.0957	0.4825	0.0691	0.8932	0.0090	0.0216	0.0042	0.6227	0.0034	0.0194	0.0021	0.7736
IPS	0.0235	0.2074	0.0221	0.4419	0.0082	0.0238	0.0039	0.3456	0.0032	0.0198	0.0021	0.9284
IPSC	0.1010	0.4921	0.0744	0.6605	0.0105	0.0254	0.0047	0.5402	0.0031	0.0194	0.0020	0.9365
IPSNC	0.1000	0.5016	0.0777	0.6531	0.0089	0.0240	0.0040	0.4963	0.0027	0.0194	0.0018	0.6011
CausE	0.0387	0.2804	0.0311	0.8874	0.0056	0.0173	0.0026	0.4050	0.0032	0.0196	0.0020	0.5019
DICE	0.1128	0.5407	0.0835	0.7629	0.0099	0.0262	0.0048	0.5878	0.0030	0.0226	0.0021	0.7531
PID	0.0818	0.4561	0.0610	0.8144	0.0077	0.0243	0.0040	**0.2233**	**0.0034**	0.0193	0.0020	0.6811
Imp.	↓	↓	↓	↑ 9%	↓	↑ 13%	-	↑ 64%	-	-	-	↑ 12%
IID	0.1016	0.4953	0.0691	0.7372	0.0167	0.0377	0.0071	0.3296	0.0034	0.0194	0.0024	0.4688
Imp.	↑ 6%	↑ 3%	-	↑ 17%	↑ 86%	↑ 75%	↑ 69%	↑ 47%	-	-	↑ 14%	↑ 39%

Table 3: Statistics of datasets

Data	#Users	#Items	#Ratings	Sparsity
ML100K	943	1,152	97,952	0.0902
Amazon Digital Music	5,531	3,568	64,706	0.0033
Epinion	10,706	8,945	300,304	0.0032

interaction graph. They are both commonly adopted in the literature as backbone models [32]. We use the public implementation[5] .

Competitors. We compare PID and IID with several classic inverse propensity scoring methods and recent causal inference methods, including (1) IPS [17] re-weights each instance by the inverse popularity value. (2) IPSC [6] adds max-capping on IPS weighing. (3) IPSNC [9] adds max-capping and normalization on IPS weighing. (4) CausE [5] trains two set of embeddings on a biased and an unbiased dataset respectively and force them to be similar with each other. (5) DICE [32] learns user preference and popularity bias into two sets of embeddings. The competitors can be applied to the backbone models.

Implementation. For the backbone recommendation models, the embedding dimensionality of users and items is 64. We set 0.001 as initial learning rate and the weight decay rate is 5e-6. We use Adam [18] for optimization. In PID and IID, we use Pearson Correlation Coefficient (PCC) as the similarity measurement $S()$.

[5]https://github.com/tsinghua-fib-lab/DICE

For a fair comparison, we split the datasets following the standard protocol [5, 32] to ensure all items have the same prevalence in the testing set.

Evaluation metrics. To analyze whether the recommendations are accurate, we use three commonly adopted ranking metrics: Recall, HitRatio, and NDCG at top K results. For each user, we compare the top-K recommendations with the ground-truth (i.e., which items receive user feedback in the testing set), and the evaluation metrics are computed over all users:

$$\begin{aligned} R@K &= \frac{1}{|\mathcal{U}|}\sum_{u\in\mathcal{U}}\frac{\sum_{j\le K} IK_{u,j}}{\sum_j IK_{u,j}}, \\ HR@K &= \frac{1}{|\mathcal{U}|}\sum_{u\in\mathcal{U}}\frac{\sum_{j\le K} IK_{u,j}}{K}, \\ NDCG@K &= \frac{1}{|\mathcal{U}|}\sum_{u\in\mathcal{U}}\frac{1}{Z_u}\sum_{j=1}^{K}\frac{2^{IK_{u,j}}-1}{\log_2(1+j)}, \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where IK_j returns 1 if the recommendation at position j receives feedback in the ground-truth, and returns 0 otherwise, and Z_u is a normalization term which ensures that perfect ranking for user u has a value of 1. Thus, R@K measures how many user preferred items are recommended, HR@K measures if the recommendation at least captures one preferred item, and NDCG@K measures the ranking accuracy from preferred to non-preferred items. The higher R@K, HR@K and NDCG@K are, the more accurate recommendations are made.

In addition, we also measure whether the recommendations are biased towards popular items by PRU [34]. For each user u, among the items that u interacts with in the testing set $\mathcal{I}_u^+$, we compare their ranking positions in the recommendation list $rl(\mathcal{I}_u^+)$ and their

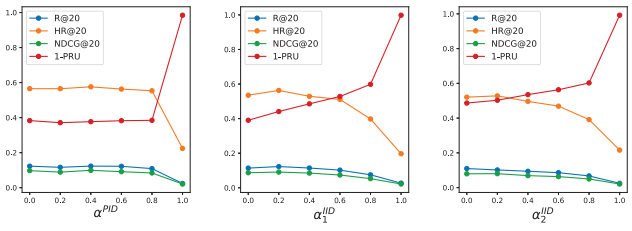

Figure 2: Recommendation performance with respect to different loss coefficients by PID of BPR on ML-100K

popularity positions $\mathbf{p}(\mathcal{I}_u^+)$, and compute PRU as:

$$PRU = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{U}|} SRC(rl(\mathcal{I}_u^+), \mathbf{p}(\mathcal{I}_u^+)), \tag{3}$$

where $SRC(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{cov(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})}{\sigma(\mathbf{x})\sigma(\mathbf{y})}$ is the Spearman's Rank Coefficients, $cov()$ is covariance of the rank variables, σ is the the standard deviations of the rank variables. The SRC is averaged over all users. Higher R@K, HR@K, NDCG@K and lower PRU values imply more accurate and less biased recommendations.

4.2 Comparative Performance

To answer **RQ1**, we conduct the backbone models with different debiasing methods. We have the following observations from Table 2. (1) IID with BPR outperforms all competitors in almost all evaluation metrics. PID with BPR obtains the second best performance. (2) The proposed methods can robustly reduce popularity bias of backbone models BPR and LightGCN on different datasets, while preserving accurate recommendations. We can see that PID and IID greatly improve the R@20, HR@20, NDCG@20, and PRU results for BPR on all datasets. Applied to LightGCN, PID and IID can obtain higher or comparable R@20, HR@20 and NDCG@20 in most cases. (3) On the contrary, IPS style methods tend to achieve good PRU at the cost of decreased recommendation accuracy. Causal inference methods are not as effective as IPS style methods in debiasing and their PRU results tend to be much higher.

4.3 Impact of Parameters

To answer **RQ2**, we analyze the change of recommendation performance with respect to different values of loss coefficients when applying PID and IID to BPR on the ML-100K dataset. For better illustration purpose, we report $1-PRU$ instead of PRU, so that higher values imply higher recommendation quality for all evaluation metrics. We set the coefficient to 0.0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0, respectively. For $\alpha_1^{IID}, \alpha_2^{IID}$, we change them separately, i.e., we change one coefficient at a time and fix the other as 0.

Analysis. We have the following observations from Figure 2. (1) For both PID and IID, larger coefficient value leads higher PRU. When the coefficient value equals to one, PRU approaches to zero, indicating that the recommendations have no relationship with popularity. Thus, the regularization terms proposed in PID and IID can directly control the degree of bias in RS. (2) For IID, although the recommendation accuracy decreases according to larger coefficient values, we can obtain stable performance with $\alpha^{PID} < 0.6$, and still increase fairness (i.e., higher $1-PRU$). (3) α_1^{IID} has a stronger impact on PRU than α_2^{IID}: increasing α_1^{IID} reduces PRU more than α_2^{IID}. It verifies our assumption that popularity bias can be correctly computed only if the representations are disentangled in latent spaces.

5 CONCLUSION

We explore how unbiased recommendations can be obtained in a model-independent manner, by removing popularity bias in the item embeddings, or training popularity-neutral item embeddings. We show that these simple strategies can effectively enhance recommendation quality, in terms of recommendation accuracy and fairness, of different backbone recommendation models.

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