# Recommendations in Sparse-Data Low-Resource Settings by Constructing Concise User Profiles from Review Text

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#### Abstract

Recommender systems are successful for popular items and users with ample interactions (likes, ratings etc.). This work addresses the difficult case of users who have very sparse interactions but post informative review texts, with the additional desideratum of low-cost computation. We specifically address book communities, as they exhibit sparseness (most users reviewed only tens of books) and a long tail of user interests (including books that are reviewed only by few other users). We design a light-weight framework with transformerbased representation learning, covering user-item interactions, item content, and user-provided reviews. A key contribution is a suite of novel techniques for selecting the most informative cues from userwritten reviews to construct concise user profiles. Comprehensive experiments, with datasets from Amazon and Goodreads, show that judicious selection of text snippets achieves the best performance, even in comparison to LLM-generated rankings and to using LLMs to generate user profiles.

## CCS Concepts

• Information systems  $\rightarrow$  Recommender systems.

#### Keywords

recommender, sparse data, user text, language model, transformer

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## 1 Introduction

#### 1.1 Motivation

Recommender-system methods fall into two major families or hybrid combinations [\[22\]](#page-8-0): i) interaction-based recommenders that leverage binary signals (e.g., membership in personal playlists or libraries) or numeric ratings for user-item pairs, and ii) contentbased recommenders that exploit item features and user-provided content, ranging from metadata attributes (e.g., item categories) all the way to review texts.

In settings where interaction data is sparse, content-based methods are the only option, and this is the focus of this work. In particular, long-tail users and long-tail items pose major challenges. Some works advocate countering data sparseness by clustering long-tail items (e.g., [\[14\]](#page-8-1)). However, this is not sufficient to gear up for users with few interactions but diverse tastes. Approaches for cold-start and cross-domain recommendations and zero-shot learning (e.g., [\[8,](#page-8-2) [10,](#page-8-3) [20,](#page-8-4) [31\]](#page-8-5)), mostly focus on the item side only: transferring (latent) knowledge from existing items to new ones. User-side sparseness, where a user likes only a few items, is much less explored, and particularly challenging when these few items are in the long tail of the popularity distribution.

The most promising approach for this data-poor regime is to leverage review texts by users (e.g., [\[2,](#page-8-6) [11,](#page-8-7) [29,](#page-8-8) [32\]](#page-8-9)). In this work, we focus on settings where users spend substantial time per item. This holds for the vertical domains of books and travel destinations, as opposed to items with short attention spans, like music, restaurants and video streams. In book communities, even users with few interactions often leave rich texts that reflect their interests and tastes. The book domain thus provides a challenging stress-test, especially when computational resources are limited and with focus on longtail items and users. This paper presents a new framework to tackle both data sparseness and diversity of tastes with low computational resources, by constructing concise user profiles from review texts.

#### <span id="page-0-0"></span>1.2 Research Questions

Our approach constructs concise user profiles from reviews, focusing on the book domain. Unlike movies or restaurants, books have a much longer tail of popularity and exhibit huge diversity of user tastes. Also, negative reviews are very rare (most have 4 or 5 stars), so that we deal with binary data and have no negative samples. This setting raises several research questions (RQs):

<sup>∗</sup>Work done prior to joining Amazon.

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- RQ1: Learning with Language Models for Data-Poor Users. As most users have very sparse interactions with items, we need to leverage cues in the users' reviews. This naturally calls for making use of language models. How can we best incorporate models like BERT, T5, GPT or Llama for encoding the gist of a user's reviews, enhanced with the LM's world knowledge?
- RQ2: Low-resource Computation. Although modern language models can handle fairly large text inputs, the computational cost substantially increases with the number of input tokens. This involves the monetary costs of API calls, and also the compute cycles and energy consumption at both training and inference time. Therefore, the issue is how to make best use of model inputs that impose a tight limit on their number of tokens?
- RQ3: Review Aspects. User reviews express a mix of aspects: personal background (e.g., "I'm a retired teacher"), sentiment expressions (e.g., "what a great story"), general emotions (e.g., "brings back lovely memories"), and comments about the book contents. Figure [1](#page-1-0) depicts a challenging example of a mixture of informative and uninformative content found in user-written reviews from real data. As sentiments do not add value for a book already known to be liked, only the content comments yield cues towards new recommendations. How can we identify the truly informative pieces for concise user profiles?

<span id="page-1-0"></span>The most influential book I've ever read! I first read this book when I was 13, and sometimes I wish I hadn't. This book took away all the naiveté I needed then. I've read this book twice, but it is a long and engaging read. This book will always be my number one. If you want to read something with depth, wisdom, and tragedy, then this book is for you. This book is mostly about the beginnings of myth, superstition, and religion. It challenges the idea of kings and gods, but it isn't a story of emancipation. The Egyptian is an adventure. You can't read this book, and be the same person. You will always live as though you've lived as the Egyptian. He's just really really beautiful. My favorite book of aaaaall time! Please read it.

Figure 1: User-written review, with uninformative text crossed over. Personal background is in purple, pure sentiment in orange, most informative cues in green.

## 1.3 Approach

We devise a light-weight framework, called CUP, for constructing Concise User Profiles and encoding them in a recommender system. We pursue a two-tower transformer-based architecture that supports end-to-end learning of item and user encodings, making use of a language model (LM). The end-to-end learning operates on sufficiently short, judiciously constructed profiles. Our choice for the LM is BERT; alternatives such as T5, GPT or Llama can be easily plugged in. However, the latter incur substantially higher computational cost. We want to focus on low-resource settings, hence the conservative choice of BERT. Our experiments will show that this configuration yields results on par with or better than methods that employ T5 or GPT.

On top of the transformer, we place feed-forward layers, which provide more controllable fine-tuning for the downstream recommendation task. The prediction scores for user-item pairs yield the per-user ranking of items. This architecture is relatively simple, but very versatile in supporting different configurations. It can take as input a spectrum of categorical and textual cues about users and items.

The rationale for this design is twofold: i) ensuring that inferencetime computations are efficient, leveraging training-time-computed vectors for users and items and solely computing a scalar product at run-time, and ii) being able to express a wide range of user profiling techniques within the same architecture. Alternative architectures, such as CNN-based, or LLM-based with smart prompts, are baselines in our experiments.

In experiments, we limit the number of tokens per user profile, as a stress-test and to keep the computational cost and and energy consumption as light-weight as possible.

The experimental data, from two book communities, exhibits a very long tail of less popular items and users with diverse interests. Our experiments systematically explore the system behavior of coping with user-side sparseness. As an additional stress-test, we study both per-user recommendation and search-based recommendation, where the latter is initiated by user query (asking for books that are both relevant to the query and suitable for the user profile).

## 1.4 Contributions

Salient contributions of this work are:

- a new framework, called CUP, for Transformer-based recommenders that leverage language models and concise user profiles from reviews;
- judicious techniques for selecting and encoding informative cues from the long and noisy text of user reviews, outperforming methods based on prompting large language models (LLMs);
- comprehensive experiments with data-poor but text-rich users with highly diverse preferences.

Code and data are available on our project page [https://personalization.](https://personalization.mpi-inf.mpg.de/CUP) [mpi-inf.mpg.de/CUP](https://personalization.mpi-inf.mpg.de/CUP). An interactive demo for exploring a suite of configurations is running at <https://sirup.mpi-inf.mpg.de>.

#### 2 Related Work

Content-based recommenders incorporate item tags, item-item similarity, and user-side features. Item-item similarity typically computes distances between item embeddings. This can be combined with interaction-based methods that employ latent-space techniques (e.g., [\[3,](#page-8-10) [18,](#page-8-11) [23,](#page-8-12) [30,](#page-8-13) [32\]](#page-8-9)).

The most important user features are reviews of items, posted with likes or ratings. State-of-the-art methods employ deep neural networks with attention mechanisms [\[2,](#page-8-6) [11,](#page-8-7) [28,](#page-8-14) [29,](#page-8-8) [33,](#page-8-15) [34\]](#page-8-16). However, pre-dating the advent of LLMs, these methods rely on static wordlevel encodings such as word2vec, and are inherently limited. As a salient representative, we include DeepCoNN [\[34\]](#page-8-16) in baselines of our experiments.

Recent works leverage pre-trained LMs (mostly BERT) for recommenders, to i) encode item-user signals into transformer-based embeddings, ii) infer recommended items from rich representations of review texts, or iii) implicitly incorporate the latent "world knowledge" of the LM.

An early representative of the first line is BERT4Rec [\[24\]](#page-8-17), which uses BERT to learn item representations for sequential predictions based on item titles and user-item interaction histories, but does not incorporate any text. The P5 method of [\[5\]](#page-8-18) employs a suite of prompt templates for the T5 language model, in a multi-task learning framework covering direct as well as sequential recommendations along with generating textual explanations. We include an enhanced variant of the P5 method in our experiments.

On the "world knowledge" direction, early works, using BERT, elicit knowledge about movie, music and book genres [\[15\]](#page-8-19). Recent works prompt large language models (LLMs), such as GPT or PaLM, to generate item rankings for user-specific recommendations [\[6,](#page-8-20) [26\]](#page-8-21) or predict user ratings [\[7\]](#page-8-22), in a zero-shot or few-shot fashion. Our experiments include [\[6\]](#page-8-20) as an LLM-powered baseline.

Closest to our approach are the methods of [\[16,](#page-8-23) [17\]](#page-8-24), using BERT to create representations for user and item text, aggregated by averaging [\[17\]](#page-8-24) or k-means clustering [\[16\]](#page-8-23). The resulting vectors are used for predicting item scores. A major limitation is that the text encodings are for individual sentences only, losing signals from user reviews where cues span multiple sentences. Also, BERT itself is fixed, and the vectors for users and items are pre-computed without awareness of the prediction task. Our experiments include the BENEFICT method of [\[17\]](#page-8-24) as a baseline.

#### 3 Methodology

#### 3.1 System Architecture

The CUP framework is based on a two-tower architecture for representation learning (one "tower" for users, the other for items, following the prevalent architecture in neural information retrieval with query and document/passage encodings). The two towers are jointly trained, coupled by the shared loss function and ground truth. Figure [2](#page-2-0) shows a pictorial overview.

User reviews and items descriptions are fed into BERT followed by a feed-forward network to learn latent representations. Downstream, the vectors are simply compared by a dot product for scores that indicate whether the user likes an item or not. Importantly, unlike prior works, we allow the top-most layer of BERT to be fine-tuned as part of the end-to-end training process.

The per-item text usually comprises book titles, tags like categories or genre labels, which can be coarse (e.g., "thriller") or fine-grained (e.g., "Scandinavian crime noir"), and a short description of the book contents. The per-user text can comprise the titles and tags of her training-set books and the entirety of her review texts, which vary widely in length and informativeness, hence the need for smart text selection.

In the following, we present the CUP training procedure in Subsection [3.2,](#page-2-1) the test-time inference in Subsection [3.3,](#page-2-2) the judicious selection of input text snippets in Subsection [3.4,](#page-3-0) and the selection of negative training samples in Subsection [3.5.](#page-3-1)

## <span id="page-2-1"></span>3.2 Training

The input to CUP consists of an item description (almost always short, otherwise truncated) and a judiciously selected subset of the user-provided text (which may total to a longer text). For user  $u$ , this is a sequence of text tokens  $w_1^u$  $u_1^u \dots w_b^u$ , where *b* is the token budget

<span id="page-2-0"></span>

Figure 2: CUP architecture

by which the input is limited (set to 128 in our experiments). The sequences are fed through each of the two towers, consisting of BERT and a feed-forward network (FFN), to obtain a user-representation vector  $t^u$  (by averaging the per-token vectors). The FFN has two layers with ReLU activation

 $t^u = ReLU(t^u W_1^u + c_1^u)$  $^{u}_{1}$ ) $W_{2}^{u}$  +  $c_{2}^{u}$ 2

for user representation, and analogously for items.

A user-item pair is classified with score

 $s^{ui} = \sigma(< t^u, t^{\dot{t}}>)$ 

with dot product  $\lt$ ,  $>$  and sigmoid function  $\sigma$ .

We use the Adam optimizer to minimize the binary cross-entropy loss between predicted labels and the ground truth with sampled negatives. During training we update the top-most layer of BERT, which allows end-to-end training of all components. This is an important difference to earlier works with similar architectures, which use frozen BERT to encode user and item representations.

## <span id="page-2-2"></span>3.3 Inference

Prediction for Ranking. At test time, a prediction is made for useritem pairs. We encode the item description by running it through the trained network, and we compare it to the already learned user vector, which is based on the user's training-time reviews (none for the given test item). The scores for different test items, computed by the final dot product, yield the ranking of the candidate items. This is a very efficient computation, following established practice in neural IR [\[9\]](#page-8-25).

Search-based Recommendation. In a deployed system (as opposed to lab experiments with test samples), a typical usage mode would be search-based re-ranking: a user provides context with a tag-based query or an example of a specific liked item, which can be thought of as query-by-example. The user's expectation is to see a ranked list of recommended items that are similar to her positive sample (as opposed to recommendations from all kinds of categories). The system achieves this by first computing approximate matches to the query item (i.e., similarity-search neighbors), and then re-ranking a shortlist of say top-100 candidates. The CUP framework supports this mode, by using a light-weight BM25 retrieval model, querying all unlabeled items with the category and textual description of the positive point at hand, and keeping the top-100 highest scoring matches.

	#books	$avg \pm stdv$	#users	$avg \pm stdv$	$avg \pm stdv$
		#users per book		#books per user	review len
<b>GR</b>	1,573,290	$6.54 \pm 55.95$	279,969	$36.77 \pm 93.25$	$178 \pm 259$
GR-10K-dense	385,660	$3.74 \pm 18.96$	10,000	$144.16 \pm 232.49$	$187 + 259$
GR-10K-sparse	158,554	$1.66 \pm 3.09$	10,000	$26.25 \pm 56.46$	$173 \pm 248$
GR-1K-rich	45,412	$1.17 \pm 0.65$	1000	$53.32 \pm 91.04$	$426 \pm 384$
AM	2,281,866	$12.75 \pm 87.25$	3,105,696	$9.37 \pm 26.55$	$121 + 183$
AM-10K-dense	203,930	$2.51 \pm 7.3$	10,000	$51.19 \pm 177.37$	$239 \pm 281$
AM-10K-sparse	58,443	$1.36 \pm 1.6$	10,000	$7.93 \pm 11.19$	$106 \pm 169$
AM-1K-rich	15,753	$1.07 \pm 0.36$	1000	$16.79 \pm 23.53$	$282 \pm 265$

<span id="page-3-2"></span>Table 1: Statistics for datasets (only ratings  $\geq 4$ , #books per user  $\geq 3$ , train-test disjoint authors per user)

#### <span id="page-3-0"></span>3.4 Coping with Long and Noisy Texts

For constructing user profiles from text, the simplest idea would be to concatenate all available reviews into a long token sequence. Two problems arise, though. User reviews are a noisy mix of descriptive elements (e.g., "the unusual murder weapon"), sentiment expressions (e.g., "it was fun to read") and personal but irrelevant statements (e.g., "I read only on weekends"). Only the first aspect is helpful for content-based profiling (as the sentiment is already captured by user liking the book). Second, the entirety of user-provided text can be too long to be fully digested by the Transformer. Even when it would fit into the token budget, the computational and energy cost is quadratic in the number of input tokens. Therefore, we tightly limit the tokens for each user's text profile to 128, and devise a suite of light-weight techniques for judiciously selecting the most informative pieces.

Variants of our methodology are to create concise profiles by generative language models upfront (e.g., using T5 or ChatGPT), or to digest multiple chunks of text with downstream aggregation by max-pooling or averaging. We include these techniques in our experimental comparisons, but emphasize that both of these alternatives have much higher computational cost and climate footprint.

Our techniques for selecting the most informative parts of user reviews are as follows:

- Weighted Phrases: selected words or 3-grams, ordered by descending tf-idf weights, where tf is the frequency of the phrase in all of the user's reviews, and idf is pre-computed on Google books n-grams to capture informativeness.
- Weighted Sentences: selected sentences, ordered by descending idf weights, where a sentence's total weight is the sum of the per-word idf weights normalized by sentence length.
- Similar Sentences: selected sentences, ordered by descending similarity scores computed via Sentence-BERT [\[21\]](#page-8-26) for comparing the user-review sentences against the sentences of the item description. To ensure that the selected set is not dominated by a single item, the sentences are picked from different items in a round-robin manner.
- ChatGPT-generated Profiles: feeding all reviews of a user, in large chunks, into ChatGPT and instructing it to characterize the user's book interests with a few short keyphrases. The output size is limited per chunk with a total budget of 128 tokens, to enforce concise profiles.

• T5-generated Keywords: using a T5 model fine-tuned for keyword generation, to cast each user's review text into a set of keywords, concatenated to create the profile.

We provide anecdotal examples of selected user profile constructions in Table [7](#page-9-1) in the Appendix.

## <span id="page-3-1"></span>3.5 Coping with Unlabeled Data

A challenge for training in the data-poor regime is how to handle the extreme skew between positive samples and unlabeled data points for sparse users. The crux in many recommender applications is that there are extremely few, if any, explicitly negative samples, such as books rated with low marks. This holds also for the datasets in this work.

Therefore, we introduce and experiment with two different techniques to construct negative training samples from unlabeled data:

- Uniform random samples. Under the closed world assumption (CWA), aka Selected Completely At Random, negative training points are sampled uniformly from all unlabeled data. This is a widely used standard technique.
- Weighted pos-neg samples. Prior works on PU learning [\[1\]](#page-8-27), with positive and unlabeled data and without explicitly negative samples, is largely based on treating unlabeled points as pairs of samples, one positive and one negative with fractional weights. The weights can be based on (learned estimates of) class priors, but the extreme skew in our data renders these techniques ineffective. Instead we leverage the fact that relatedness measures between item pairs can be derived from interaction data. We compute item-item relatedness via matrix factorization of the user-item matrix for the entire dataset. The relatedness of two items is set to the scalar product between their latent vectors, re-scaled for normalization between 0 and 1. Then, each originally unlabeled sample is cloned, with one instance positive with weight proportional to its average relatedness to the user's explicitly positive points. The negative clone's weight is set to the complement.

#### 4 Experimental Design

## 4.1 Rationale

As a difficult and less explored application area for recommenders, we investigate the case of book recommendations in online communities. These come with a long-tailed distribution of user activities,

highly diverse user interests, and demanding textual cues from reviews and book descriptions.

Unlike in many prior works' experiments, often on movies, restaurants or mainstream products, the data in our experiments is much sparser regarding user-item interactions. We design the evaluation as a stress-test experiment, with focus on text-rich but otherwise data-poor users: who liked relatively few items but wrote informative, yet noisy reviews. With the focus on lightweight computation, we limited the input context to 128 tokens, hence the need for smart user profile extraction. Our experiments supports the choice of budget and architecture.

We further enforce the *difficulty of predictions* when items belong to groups with high relatedness within a group, by constraining disjointedness of authors per user in training and evaluation set. Thus, we rule out the near-trivial case of predicting that a user likes a certain book given that another book by the same author has been used for training.

#### 4.2 Datasets

We use two book datasets from the UCSD recommender systems repository [\[12\]](#page-8-28), filtered for english reviews:

- GR [\[25\]](#page-8-29): a Goodreads sample with item-user interactions for 1.5M books and 280K users, incl. titles, genre tags, item descriptions, ratings and textual reviews.
- AM [\[13\]](#page-8-30): an Amazon crawl for the books domain with 2.3M books and 3.1M users, incl. category tags, ratings and reviews.

While the GR data hardly appears in the literature, the AM-books data has been used for experiments in prior works (e.g., [\[27\]](#page-8-31)), mostly in the 10-core variant where are all users and items having less than 10 interactions are eliminated. This pre-processing clearly focuses on interaction-based predictions, whereas our intention is to study the underexplored case of sparse interactions with informative user reviews.

We view all book-user interactions with a rating of 4 or higher as positive, and disregard the lower ratings as they are rare anyway. We further pre-process the datasets by removing all users with less than 3 books, as we cannot split their interactions into training, validation, and test sets (with ratio 60:20:20).

Our data pre-processing is designed to evaluate text-based recsys performance with low interaction density and text-rich users. We select 1K users from each of the two datasets, based on descending order of average review length per book. In Table [1,](#page-3-2) rows GR-1Krich and AM-1K-rich show the characteristics of these data slices. Both GR-1K-rich and AM-1K-rich are extremely sparse in terms of users that share the same items ; so the emphasis is on leveraging text.

#### 4.3 Baselines

We compare our approach to several state-of-the-art baselines, which cover different methods for recommendation, ranging from traditional collaborative filtering approaches to text-centric neural models. We compare the following methods:

• CF: collaborative filtering operating on the user-item interaction matrix by pre-computing per-user and per-item vectors via matrix factorization [\[4\]](#page-8-32) (with 200 latent dimensions).

- DeepCoNN [\[34\]](#page-8-16) is a salient representative of using convolutional neural networks (CNN) over text inputs.
- LLMRank: following [\[6\]](#page-8-20), we use ChatGPT to rank the test items, given the user's reading history. The history is given by the sequence of titles of the 50 most recent books of the user, prefixed by the prompt "I've read the following books in the past in order:". This prompt is completed by a list of titles of test-time candidate items, asking the LLM to rank them.
- P5-profile [\[5\]](#page-8-18): prompting the T5 language model [\[19\]](#page-8-33), to provide a recommended item for a user, given their ids. Following [\[5\]](#page-8-18), we train P5 using the prompts for direct recommendation to generate a "yes" or "no" answer. Pilot experiments show that the original method does not work well on sparse data. Therefore, we extend P5 to leverage review texts and item descriptions. Instead of ids, the prompts include item descriptions and sentences from reviews with the highest idf scores (i.e., one of our own techniques).
- BENEFICT [\[17\]](#page-8-24) uses BERT to create representations for each user review, which are averaged and concatenated to the item vectors. Predictions are made by a feed-forward network on top. Following the original paper, each review is truncated to its first 256 tokens.
- BENEFICT-profile: our own variant of BENEFICT where the averaging over all reviews of a user is replaced by our idf-based selection of most informative sentences, with the total length limited to 128 tokens (for comparability to the CUP methods).

## 4.4 Performance Metrics

At test time, we present the trained system with each user's withheld positive items (20% of the user's books, with authors disjoint from those of the user's training items), along with negative items, sampled from all non-positive items, such that the ratio of positive to negative test points is 1:100. The system scores and ranks these data points. We evaluate all methods in two different modes:

- Standard prediction: sampling the 100 negative test points uniformly at random from all unlabeled data, and ranking the 100+1 test instances by the methods under test.
- Search-based: given the positive test item, searching for the top-100 approximate matches to the item's description, using the BM25 scoring model; then ranking the 100 + 1 candidates by our methods.

Following the literature, our evaluation metrics are NDCG@5 (Normalized Discounted Cumulative Gain) with binary 0-or-1 gain and P@1 (precision at rank 1). We compute these by micro-averaging over all test items of all users. We also experimented with macroaveraging over users; as the results were not significantly different, we report only micro-average numbers in the paper.

NDCG@5 reflects the observations that users care only about a short list of top-N recommendations; P@1 is suitable for recommendations on mobile devices (with limited UI). We also measured other metrics, like NDCG@k for higher k, MRR and AUC. None of these provides any additional insight, so they are not reported here.

## 4.5 Configurations

The CUP framework supports a variety of methods by specific configurations. All variants use an input budget of 128 tokens, to construct a stress-test and to emphasize that computational and environmental footprint is a major concern as well. In the experiments, we focus on the following text-centric options (see Subsection [3.4\)](#page-3-0):

- CUP<sub>idf</sub>: review sentences selected by idf scores.
- $\bullet$  CUP<sub>sbert</sub>: review sentences selected by Sentence-BERT similarity to a corresponding item description.
- CUP<sub>1qram</sub>: unigrams selected by tf-idf scores.
- CUP<sub>3qram</sub>: 3-grams selected by tf-idf scores.
- $\text{CUP}_{keywords}$ : set of keywords generated by a fine-tuned T5 model.[1](#page-5-0)
- $\text{CUP}_{GPT}$ : a concise set of keyphrases generated by ChatGPT from all reviews of a user.

When comparing against prior baselines, we employ  $\text{CUP}_{idf}$  as default configuration. For comparison, we also configure a more restricted variant,  $\mathrm{CUP}_{basic},$  that uses only genre tags as user text and title, and genre as item text. We enhance this by additionally using description for item text, denoted as  $CUP_{exp}$ .

We used the following hyperparameters for CUP configuration, obtained though grid search: 4e-5 as learning rate, 256 as batch size, 200 as FFN size. All methods were run on NVIDIA Quadro RTX 8000 GPU with 48 GB memory, and we implemented the models with PyTorch.

#### 5 Experimental Results

#### 5.1 Comparison of CUP against Baselines

Table [2](#page-5-1) shows the results for the AM-1K-rich and GR-1K-rich data, comparing our default configuration  $\text{CUP}_{text}$  (i.e.,  $\text{CUP}_{idf}$  with idf-selected sentences) against all baselines, for the two different ways of sampling negative training points. Results with statistical significance over the BENEFICT $_{text}$  baseline, by a paired t-test with p-value < 0.05, are marked with an asterisk. We make the following key observations:

- The interaction-centric CF fails completely for this extremely sparse data. The text-based baseline DeepCoNN also performs very poorly, and the BENEFICT method is only slightly better. Both DeepCoNN and BENEFICT utilize the entire user review texts without any judicious filtering of the noisy text. At the same time,  $P5_{text}$  and BENEFICT<sub>text</sub>, extended with our text-derived profiling, achieve decent performance. This emphasizes the need to address RQ3 (see Section [1.2\)](#page-0-0).
- LLMRank also performs poorly. Solely relying on the LLM's latent knowledge about books is not sufficient when coping with long-tail items that appear sparsely in the LLM's training data. Popularity and position bias [\[6\]](#page-8-20) further aggravate this adverse effect. Thus, to address RQ1 (see Section [1.2\)](#page-0-0), merely and fully resorting to LLMs alone is not a viable solution.
- Between the three CUP configurations, we see a clear trend: titles and tags alone (basic) are outperformed by adding item

<span id="page-5-1"></span>Table 2: Standard evaluation on both datasets.

AM-1K-rich						
	Train Uniform		Train Weighted			
Method	NDCG@5	P@1	NDCG@5	P@1		
CF	3.06	1.0	2.88	0.69		
<b>DeepCoNN</b>	3.0	0.8	3.01	0.83		
LLMRank	4.62	2.27	n/a	n/a		
$P5_{text}$	24.9	$14.5*$	n/a	n/a		
<b>BENEFICT</b>	9.4	3.53	14.4	5.74		
$BENEFICT_{text}$	24.38	12.98	24.66	12.81		
$CUP_{basic}$	25.42	13.64	26.95*	$14.27*$		
$CUP_{exp}$	$27.31*$	14.99*	28.83*	$16.05*$		
$\overline{\text{CUP}}_{text}$	$29.21*$	$15.82*$	31.09*	$17.71*$		
GR-1K-rich						
CF	4.44	2.69	3.83	2.26		
DeepCoNN	10.45	4.02	5.4	1.86		
LLMRank	4.86	2.1	n/a	n/a		
$P5_{text}$	28.01	14.46	n/a	n/a		
<b>BENEFICT</b>	23.76	12.17	25.23	13.26		
$BENEFICT_{text}$	30.26	16.83	31.77	17.74		
$CUP_{\text{basic}}$	26.75	13.28	28.4	14.89		
$CUP_{exp}$	30.92	16.3	33.28*	17.83		
$CUP_{text}$	38.39*		39.41*	$22.01*$		

descriptions ( $exp$ ), and the profiling over user reviews ( $text$ ) performs best. This confirms our intuition about RQ2 (see Section [1.2\)](#page-0-0): judicious selection of textual cues is important. Remarkably, even CUP  $_{basic}$  is better than all the baselines. CUP  $_{text}$  is ca. 5 percentage points better in NDCG@5 than the baselines.

- In search-based evaluation (Table [3\)](#page-6-0), the absolute results are much lower, emphasizing the difficulty of this realistic mode. Still, the relative comparisons between methods are nearly identical to the results with standard evaluation. Again,  $\text{CUP}_{text}$  is the winner, with a clear margin.
- The absolute numbers on GR-1K-rich are generally higher, due to the different data characteristics. The gains by  $CUP_{text}$  over the baselines and over the simpler CUP configurations are even more pronounced (e.g., outperforming  $\operatorname{BENEFICT}_{text}$  by 8 percentage points with standard evaluation).

To obtain insight on the root cause for the unsatisfactory performance of LLMRank, we also ran a variant with smaller test sets of only 20 candidate items (per positive test item), as in the original setup of [\[6\]](#page-8-20). This boosted the NDCG@5 for LLMRank from 4.8% to 23.5%, on GR-1k-rich in standard evaluation, which is still a large margin below  $\text{CUP}_{text}$  reaching 38.3% (and similarly big gaps for the other dataset). Obviously, even in this simplified setting the LLM misses out on "knowledge" about the many long-tail items, the key challenge in our setting.

Another observation is that the weighted training almost always improves performance. Therefore, the following subsections focus on results with weighted training samples.

<span id="page-5-0"></span><sup>1</sup><https://huggingface.co/ml6team/keyphrase-generation-t5-small-inspec>

<span id="page-6-0"></span>Table 3: Search-based evaluation on both datasets.

AM-1K-rich						
	Train Uniform		Train Weighted			
Method	NDCG@5	P@1	NDCG@5	P@1		
CF	3.02	1.0	3.03	0.83		
DeepCoNN	0.05	0.0	0.05	0.0		
<b>LLMRank</b>	3.49	1.1	n/a	n/a		
$P5_{text}$	$8.4*$	$3.88*$	n/a	n/a		
<b>BENEFICT</b>	2.45	0.66	3.69	1.29		
BENEFICT <sub>text</sub>	6.49	2.33	8.11	3.53		
$CUP_{\text{basic}}$	7.13	2.76	6.87	2.61		
$\overline{\text{CUP}}_{exp}$	$7.41*$	2.93	7.0	2.84		
$CUP_{text}$	$8.93*$	$3.53*$	$9.14*$	4.02		
GR-1K-rich						
CF	3.73	2.02	3.25	1.74		
<b>DeepCoNN</b>	1.84	0.55	1.35	0.35		
<b>LLMRank</b>	4.57	1.79	n/a	n/a		
$P5_{text}$	9.15	3.01	n/a	n/a		
<b>BENEFICT</b>	6.73	2.38	6.88	2.44		
$BENEFICT_{text}$	8.95	3.4	9.63	3.59		
$\text{CUP}_{\text{basic}}$	9.35	3.46	9.84	3.55		
$CUP_{exp}$	$10.66*$	$4.3*$	$11.18*$	3.94		
$CUP_{text}$	$14.18*$	$\overline{5.9}^{*}$	$13.76*$	$5.32*$		

Additionally, we ran a variant of the best performing model (CUP<sub>text</sub>) using increased input size of 256 tokens. We observed only slight improvements at best. More on this cost/benefit ratio of larger token budgets is in Subsection [5.2.](#page-6-1)

Finally, to study CUP beyond its primary regime of sparse data, we experimented with data slices that have higher density of interactions. Subsection [5.4](#page-7-0) discusses this study.

## <span id="page-6-1"></span>5.2 Efficiency of CUP

Two architectural choices make CUP efficient:

- input length restricted to 128 tokens, and
- fine-tuning only the last layer of BERT and the FFN layers.

For more analysis, we measured the training time and resulting NDCG on the GR-1K-rich data, comparing different input size budgets and choices of tunable parameters. Figure [3](#page-6-2) shows the NDCG@5 results on the validation set.

We observe that the 128-token configuration has the lowest training cost: significantly less time per epoch than the other variants and fast convergence (reaching its best NDCG already after 15 epochs in ca. 3000 seconds). The 256- and 512-token models eventually reach higher NDCG, but only by a small margin and after much longer training time. This confirms that concise user profiles, with a small token budget, are the best approach in terms of benefit/cost ratio.

As for configurations with more or less tunable parameters, we observe that the variant with frozen BERT takes much longer to

<span id="page-6-2"></span>

Figure 3: Training time for different input lengths and trainable parameters (lines are marked every 5th epoch).

converge and is inferior to the preferred CUP method even after more than 50 epochs. The other extreme, allowing all of BERT parameters to be altered , performs best after enough training epochs, better than the CUP configuration that tunes only the last BERT layer. However, it takes almost twice as much time per epoch. So again, from the benefit/cost perspective, our design choice hits a sweet spot in the spectrum of model configurations.

## 5.3 Comparison of CUP Configurations

To obtain refined insights into the performance for specific kinds of users and items, we split the 1000 users and their items into the following groups, reporting NDCG@5 for each group separately. Note that this refinement drills down on the test outputs; the training is unaffected.

- Items are split into unseen (u) and seen (s) items. The former consist of all positive test-time items that have not been seen at training time. The latter are those items that appear as positive samples at test-time and are also among the positive training items (for a different user).
- Users are split into three groups based on the #books-per-user distribution:
	- Sporadic (s) users are the lowest 50% with the least numbers of books. For GR-1K-rich, this threshold is 13 books per user; for AM-1K-rich it is 5 (with means 6 and 3, resp.).
	- Regular (r) users are those between the 50th percentile and 90th percentile, which is between 13 and 71 books per user for GR-1K-rich, and between 5 and 20 for AM-1K-rich (with means 31 and 9, resp.).
	- Bibliophilic (b) users are the highest 10%: above 75 books per user for GR-1K-rich and above 20 for AM-1K-rich (with means 156 and 43, resp.).

We now turn to comparing all CUP configurations, with drilling down on user and item groups. Table [4](#page-7-1) shows the NDCG@5 results for the AM-1K-rich and GR-1K-rich data. From here on, all

<span id="page-7-1"></span>Table 4: CUP results, by user/item groups, on both datasets (NDCG@5 with Search-based evaluation).



presented results are obtained with weighted training (as this outperforms uniform training) and with search-based evaluation. We focus on NDCG@5, as the P@1 metric strongly correlates. The asterisk for statistical significance is by a paired t-test with  $p < 0.05$ against  $\text{CUP}_{idf}$ . We offer the following notable observations:

- Across all users, all CUP configurations are competitive. The overall differences between them are relatively small. The winner, by a small margin, is  $\text{CUP}_{kw}$ , closely followed by the default configuration  $\text{CUP}_{idf}$  and  $\text{CUP}_{sbert}$  as well as  $\text{CUP}_{1gram}$ . None of the methods is able to extract the "perfect" gist from the noisy review texts; but all of them do a decent job. Despite the fact that  $\text{CUP}_{k,w}$  is slightly ahead of the others, the bottom line is that a relatively simple configuration, like idf-selected sentences, is a very good choice. Notably, even the seemingly most promising  $CUP_{GPT}$  performs on par with the simpler configurations.
- The CUP<sub>GPT</sub> variant achieves its highest gains for the richer item/user groups: seen items and regular or bibliophilic users. This provides ChatGPT with longer and more informative texts. A similar effect, but to a lesser and noisier extent, can be observed for T5-based CUP<sub>kw</sub>. Conversely, these methods perform substantially worse on the sporadic-unseen group.
- On the GR-1K-rich data, the overall performance is higher than for AM across all configurations. This can be attributed to the fact that GR has longer reviews, and these texts tend to be more informative than the ones in the AM data (which sometimes refer to packaging, shipment and other non-content aspects).

## <span id="page-7-0"></span>5.4 Influence of Interaction Density

The slices AM-1K-rich and GR-1K-rich are constructed with a textcentric stress-test in mind. Both are extremely sparse in terms of user-item interactions. To study the influence of sparseness in isolation, we created two larger samples of both datasets, one still sparse by design and the other denser in terms of users sharing

items. We refer to these as AM-10K-sparse and AM-10K-dense, and analogously for GR. All these samples cover 10K users: 10x more users than our previous text-rich slices, to allow more potential for learning from interactions. Table [1](#page-3-2) shows the statistics.

The datasets are constructed as follows. To ensure connectivity in the interaction graphs, we first select 500 users and sample 2000 books connected to these users, both uniformly at random. This is the seed for constructing two variants of data, based on the cumulative item degrees of users, that is, the sum of the #users per book for all books that the user has in her collection:

- 10K-dense: We randomly select 10K (minus the initial 500) users from all users in proportion to the users' cumulative item degrees. This favors users with many or popular books.
- 10K-sparse: We select users inversely proportional to their cumulative item degrees, thus favoring sparse users.

<span id="page-7-2"></span>Table 5: NDCG@5 for AM-10K Sparse vs. Dense (Search-based evaluation, by user/item groups)

Method	ALL	$u-s$	$u-r$	u-b	$S-S$	$S-T$	$s-b$
AM-10K-Sparse							
CF	5.06	0.0	0.01	0.01	18.79	17.16	12.39
$CUP_{text}$	9.78	3.4	3.9	6.64	22.43	21.65	18.29
$CUP_{text}$ +CF	5.79	1.65	0.43	0.13	19.45	18.77	13.0
AM-10K-Dense							
CF	19.02	0.13	0.03	0.14	51.76	34.75	21.46
$CUP_{text}$	20.24	1.23	2.44	5.81	49.98	34.4	21.12
$CUP_{text}+CF$	19.12	0.38	0.04	0.27	51.7	35.04	21.49

<span id="page-7-3"></span>Table 6: NDCG@5 for GR-10K Sparse vs. Dense (Search-based evaluation, by user/item groups)



In this sensitivity study, we focus on comparing CF (based on matrix factorization) against our default  $\text{CUP}_{text}$  configuration (with idf-selected sentences) and the hybrid combination  $\text{CUP}_{text}$  + CF. In the hybrid setting, we enhance text-based representations with collaborative filtering (CF) signals, by concatenating the learned latent per-user and per-item vectors. These are precomputed by factorizing the training-set user-item interaction matrix, using the method of [\[4\]](#page-8-32), with gradient descent for minimizing a cross-entropy loss.

Tables [5](#page-7-2) and [6](#page-7-3) show the results for the AM-10K data and GR-10K data, comparing the sparse vs. the dense variants with search-based evaluation. Results with the standard evaluation have the same trends, but with a higher absolute values.

Key insights are:

- As the 10K-sparse data is already much denser than the stresstest 1K-rich slices, CF can achieve decent results on the sparse data. Especially in search-based mode, CF is almost on par with CUP. Note that these gains come from the seen items alone, as CF is bound to fail on unseen items.
- $\bullet$  CUP<sub>text</sub> is still the clear winner on the sparse variant. The hybrid configuration, with text and CF vectors combined, is inferior to learning from text alone.
- For the 10K-dense data, CF alone performs well, as this is the traditional regime for which CF has been invented. An interesting point arises for the search-based mode and with dense data. Here, the negative test points are closer to the positive sample (after the BM25 search), and pose higher difficulty for text cues alone to discriminate them. Thus, CF becomes more competitive. On GR, hybrid CUP+CF performs best.

#### 6 Conclusion

This work addressed text-centric recommender systems in datapoor situations, specifically for the demanding case of book-reviewing communities where many users have only a few items and exhibit diverse tastes, but post text-rich comments. We presented a transformer-based framework CUP, with novel techniques for constructing concise user profiles by selecting informative pieces of user text. To mitigate the absence of explicitly negative training points, we used a technique of picking weighted negative samples from unlabeled data. Our experiments, with both standard evaluation and a search-based mode, show that leveraging user text is beneficial in this data-poor regime, and that CUP methods clearly outperform state-of-the-art baselines like DeepCoNN, BENEFICT, P5, and LLMRank.

One limitation of our study is the size of our curated dataset, which we used for our offline experiments. Running large scale online evaluation is beyond the scope of this work, as such data is available only on propriety platforms of big enterprises.

Finally, we identify the following directions for future work. First, we plan to extend our experiments to further recommendation domains (e.g., movies or video games). Although the book domain stands out, due to its rich textual content, our proposed framework can be effective in further applications. Second, our work is centered around concise user profile construction, leaving the selection of the downstream ranking model for further research.

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# <span id="page-9-0"></span>A User Profile Examples

Table [7](#page-9-1) shows anecdotal examples for the profiles generated for an Amazon user and a Goodreads user, all cropped to the 128-token limit (or less if the construction method does not fully utilize its budget).

<span id="page-9-1"></span>

Table 7: Profiles of selected users constructed by various methods