

Machine Learning Based Collaborative Filtering Using Jensen-Shannon Divergence for Context-Driven Recommendations

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Keywords: Recommendation System, Collaborative Filtering, Clustering, Context-Driven, Contextual Similarity, Jensen-Shannon.


Abstract: This research presents a machine learning-based context-driven collaborative filtering approach with three steps: contextual clustering, weighted similarity assessment, and collaborative filtering. User data is clustered across 3 aspects, and similarity scores are calculated, dynamically weighted, and aggregated into a normalized User-User similarity matrix. Collaborative filtering is then applied to generate contextual recommendations. Experiments on the LDOS-CoMoDa dataset demonstrated good performance, with RMSE and MAE rates of 0.5774 and 0.3333 respectively, outperforming reference approaches.


1 INTRODUCTION


Recommender systems are intelligent systems that suggest items or services likely to interest users and facilitate their choices (Latrech et al., 2024). Traditionally, these systems are based on two key factors: users and items. Context-Aware Recommender Systems (CARS) emerged to enrich the traditional recommendation process with the context in which the user makes choices (Adomavicius and Tuzhilin, 2010). Unlike traditional approaches, CARS add a third essential component, context. However, while this development marks a significant advance, it presents an essential limitation. Indeed, CARS consider context as an additional information, used to refine recommendations and imply that a user's preferences are static (Pagano et al., 2016). From this perspective, the importance of Context-Driven Recommendation Systems (CDRS) emerges. Context-driven recommenders drive the recommendation process based on the contextual situation in which the user intends to consume the products. They consider that user preferences are dynamic and constantly shifting depending on various contexts and provide more relevant and dynamic responses (Pagano et al., 2016). In line with this perspective, we propose a new model that can adapt to fluctuations in users

preferences. Our approach is a machine learning-based context-driven collaborative filtering, structured in three main stages: contextual user clustering, weighted contextual similarity assessment and contextual similarity-based collaborative filtering. The system segments user data into three contextual aspects: emotional, demographic, and temporal, generating probability distributions for each user's membership to clusters within these aspects. It calculates three similarity scores using Jensen-Shannon divergence, dynamically weighting them to reflect the importance of each aspect in user preferences and aggregating them to compute global similarity scores. These scores are used to build and normalize a User-User weighted similarity matrix for contextual similarity-based collaborative filtering, identifying the K closest neighbors for each user. Finally, the system predicts ratings for unrated items based on neighbors' ratings and provides contextually driven recommendations. Experiments on LDOS-CoMoDa dataset showed our model's robustness to capture contextual dynamics, achieving RMSE and MAE rates of 0.5774 and 0.3333 respectively, and outperforming benchmark approaches to deliver relevant recommendations.

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows: Section 2 presents related works. Section 3 describes our recommendation model in details. Section 4 presents the experimental protocol, while Section 5 concludes and proposes perspectives for future work.

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2 RELATED WORKS

The integration of machine learning in our approach aligns with advancements in recommender systems, addressing the complexity of contextual data. In this section, we examine several recommendation approaches based on machine learning technologies to deliver accurate recommendations. For instance, in this work (Karatzoglou et al., 2010), the authors proposed a collaborative filtering approach based on tensor factorization, which is an extension of traditional matrix factorization. This method models data as a multidimensional tensor (user-item-context) rather than a two-dimensional user-item matrix. The model introduces various types of context as additional dimensions in the data representation.

In this article (Said et al., 2011), the authors presented the concept of Contextual inferred User Profiles (CUP), which enriches the classical definition of a user profile to include the specifics of a user in a particular context. Instead of using a global profile for each user, the system uses two distinct contextual profiles, only one of which is used to formulate recommendations.

In this work (Karabila et al., 2023), the authors developed a new recommendation system that exploits the strength of ensemble learning, and combines sentiment analysis from textual data with collaborative filtering techniques, to offer more personalized and accurate recommendations to users.

Although the various machine learning-based recommendation approaches reviewed in this state-of-the-art section have produced innovations and advanced results, none of them addresses our specific approach. Our system differs from others in that it combines machine learning technologies with a method to calculate divergence between probability distributions, and enables multi-aspect analysis of contextual data. This integration offers a unique way to capture complex variations linked to context, optimizing the accuracy and relevance of recommendations.

3 APPROACH OVERVIEW

The proposed model is articulated around 3 stages, namely: (1) Users contextual clustering stage, (2) Weighted contextual similarity assessment stage and (3) Contextual similarity-based collaborative filtering stage. Figure 1 presents an overview of the proposed model.

3.1 Users Contextual Clustering Stage

In this phase our model groups users into 3 distinct contextual aspects: demographic, emotional and temporal. These aspects enable to segment users more finely, where each user is associated with groups reflecting the contextual influences that can modify his choices. This stage uses clustering algorithms specific to each aspect. For each user, the system calculates a probability distribution for inclusion in each cluster for each aspects. This distribution is determined via the results of the clustering algorithms. For each contextual aspect $i \in \{\text{demographic, emotional, temporal}\}$ the system assigns to the user u a vector of probability of membership $P_{u,i} = [p_{u,i}^1, p_{u,i}^2, \dots, p_{u,i}^K]$, where K is the number of clusters relative to aspect i and $p_{u,i}^K$ is the probability that user u belongs to cluster K of aspect i . Algorithm 1 details the users contextual clustering stage steps.

Data: Users' data, contextual aspects
Result: Users' probabilities distribution
Initialize $i = 0$;
Initialize *contextual_aspects* =
[demographic, emotional, temporal];
while $i < \text{size}(\text{contextual_aspects})$ **do**
 Train correspondent clustering algorithm;
 Identify the number of clusters K ;
 Initialize $u = 0$;
 while $u < \text{number_of_users}$ **do**
 Predict $P_{u,\text{contextual_aspects}[i]} =$
 $[p_{u,\text{contextual_aspects}[i]}^1,$
 $p_{u,\text{contextual_aspects}[i]}^2, \dots,$
 $p_{u,\text{contextual_aspects}[i]}^K]$ for user u ;
 Increment u by 1;
 end
 Increment i by 1;
end
Return users' probabilities distribution.

Algorithm 1: Users contextual clustering stage.

3.2 Weighted Contextual Similarity Assessment Stage

In this stage of the model, for each contextual aspect and for each pair of users, the system calculates a measure of similarity between probability distributions using the Jensen-Shannon divergence method (Lin, 1991). The latter measures the similarity between two probability distributions based on the Kullback-Leibler distance (Kullback and Leibler,

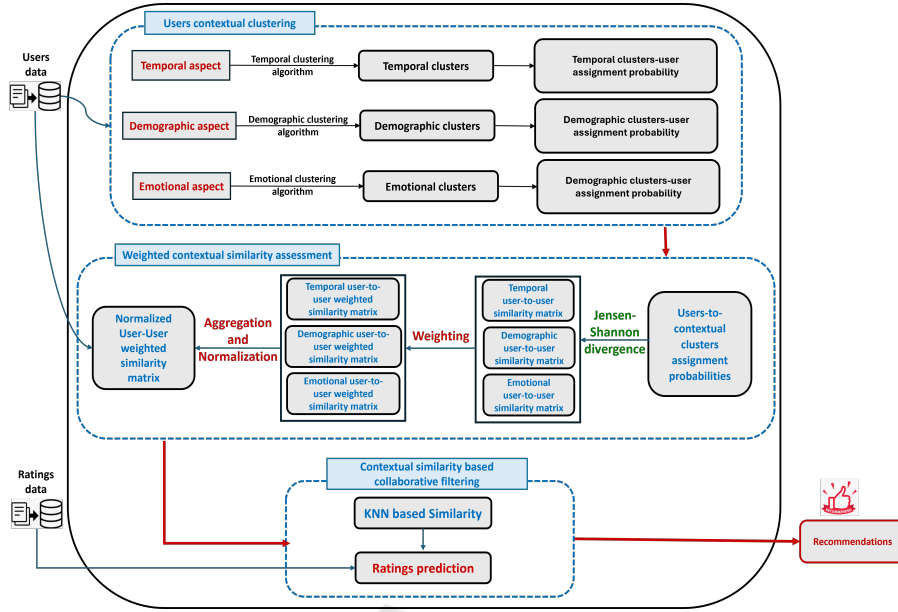


Figure 1: An overview of the proposed model architecture.

1951), but symmetrical and more stable. The Jensen-Shannon divergence between two probability distributions P and Q is defined as shown by Formula 1.

$$JS(P, Q) = \frac{1}{2} KL(P \| M) + \frac{1}{2} KL(Q \| M) \quad (1)$$

Where $JS(P, Q)$ denotes the distance between two probability distributions P and Q . The $M = \frac{1}{2}(P + Q)$ is the mean distribution, and $KL(P \| Q)$ is the Kullback-Leibler divergence (Kullback and Leibler, 1951). The similarity for a contextual aspect i between two users u and v is defined as denoted by Formula 2:

$$Sim_i(u, v) = 1 - JS(P_{u,i}, P_{v,i}) \quad (2)$$

Where $Sim_i(u, v)$ designates the similarity score between user u and user v for the aspect i . $JS(P_{u,i}, P_{v,i})$ is the Jensen-Shannon distance between the cluster membership probability distributions of u and v for aspect i .

We applied dynamic weighting to the similarity scores for each contextual aspect (demographic, emotional, temporal), based on their relative importance for each user. This approach assigns higher weights to the most influential aspects for user preferences, as defined by Formula 3.

$$w_i(u, v) = \frac{1}{\sum_{j \in \{demo, emo, tempo\}} \frac{1}{|sim_j(u, v) - \mu| + \epsilon}} \quad (3)$$

Where $w_i(u, v)$ is the weight relative to aspect i for the pair of users u and v , $sim_j(u, v)$ is the similarity corresponding to the aspect j for the same pair of users, μ

denotes the average of the three similarity scores and ϵ is a small constant to avoid division by zero.

The global similarity score between u and v is subsequently computed based on dynamic weights and as expressed by Formula 4.

$$Sim_{global}(u, v) = \sum_{j \in \{demo, emo, tempo\}} w_j(u, v) \cdot sim_j(u, v) \quad (4)$$

Where $Sim_{global}(u, v)$ represents the global similarity between user u and user v . $w_j(u, v)$ denotes the weight assigned to the aspect j for the user pair u and v , and $sim_j(u, v)$ corresponds to the similarity related to the same aspect j for the same pair of users.

The User-User weighted similarity matrix is generated from these global similarity scores between each pair of users. The system at the end applies a normalization to the User-User weighted similarity matrix to build the normalized User-User weighted similarity matrix which ensures that similarities are on a uniform scale and consistent across users. Algorithm 2 describes the successive steps required to build the normalized User-User weighted similarity matrix.

3.3 Similarity Based Collaborative Filtering

To recommend items to user u , the system first uses the K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) to identify his K most similar users based on the normalized User-User similarity. Then, it uses the ratings of the K-Neighbors to estimate the relevance of items to the

Data: Users probabilities distribution
Result: Normalized User-User weighted similarity matrix
Initialize User-User weighted similarity matrix;
Initialize $i = 0$;
Initialize
 $contextual_aspects = [demo, tempo, emo]$;
Initialize $number_of_users$;
while $i < size(contextual_aspects)$ **do**
 Initialize $u = 0$;
 while $u < number_of_users$ **do**
 Initialize $v = u + 1$;
 while $v < number_of_users$ **do**
 Calculate $sim_i(u, v)$;
 Add $sim_{contextual_aspects[i]}(u, v)$ to $contextual_aspects[i]$ user-user similarity matrix;
 Increment v by 1;
 end
 Increment u by 1;
 end
 Increment i by 1;
end
Initialize $u = 0$;
while $u < number_of_users$ **do**
 Initialize $v = u + 1$;
 while $v < number_of_users$ **do**
 Initialize $i = 0$;
 while $i < size(contextual_aspects)$ **do**
 Calculate weight
 $w_{contextual_aspects[i]}(u, v)$;
 Add $Sim_{global}(u, v)$ to $contextual_aspects[i]$ user-user weighted similarity matrix;
 Increment i by 1;
 end
 Compute $Sim_{global}(u, v)$;
 Increment v by 1;
 end
 Increment u by 1;
end
Normalize User-User weighted similarity matrix;
Return normalized User-User weighted similarity matrix.

Algorithm 2: Weighted contextual similarity assessment stage.

target user u . It collects the ratings of u 's K Neighbors for each item j that user u has not yet evaluated and computes an estimation score $\hat{r}_{u,j}$ based on these ratings as expressed by Formula 5.

$$\hat{r}_{u,j} = \frac{\sum_{v \in Neighbors(u)} (Sim_{global}(u, v) \cdot r_{v,j})}{\sum_{v \in Neighbors(u)} (Sim_{global}(u, v))} \quad (5)$$

Where $r_{u,j}$ denotes the predicted rating of the item j for the user u , $r_{v,j}$ is the rating of item j by neighboring user v , $Neighbors(u)$ is the identified set of K most similar users and $Sim(u, v)$ is the similarity between u and v extracted from the similarity matrix. This estimate gives greater weight to user ratings more similar to user u and reflects contextual influence.

Once the predicted scores are calculated for the items that user u has not yet rated, the system sorts these unseen items by their scores $\hat{r}_{u,j}$ in descending order, then recommends the N highest-rated items to user u . Algorithm 3 details various steps of the similarity based collaborative filtering task.

Data: Users' data, items' data, ratings' data, normalized User-User similarity matrix, K : the number of similar users

Result: Recommendations

Initialize $j = 0$;

Use KNN algorithm to identify the K nearest neighbors of user u ;

Identify $unrated_items$;

while $j < size(unrated_items)$ **do**

 Predict $\hat{r}_{u,j}$;

 Increment j by 1;

end

Sort predicted ratings in descending order;

Recommend N first items.

Algorithm 3: Similarity based collaborative filtering stage

4 EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

To evaluate our recommendation system, we carried out experiments on the LDOS-CoMoDa, LDOS Context Movie Dataset (Kořir et al., 2011). This dataset includes 121 users who provided 2296 ratings for 1232 movies. It includes 13 contextual attributes: mood, dominantEmo, endEmo, age, sex, country, location, time, daytype, season, weather, and city.

We carried out several pre-processing steps to prepare the data for integration into the clustering models. The contextual user data was divided into three aspects: emotional, demographic and temporal. For each aspect, categorical variables are encoded using a LabelEncoder, which converts textual values into numerical values. Next, all features are standardized using StandardScaler, which normalizes the data, giving it a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1.

4.1 Users Contextual Clustering Stage Implementation

After several experiments, we found that the integration of features age, sex, country, and location in the demographic aspect, combined with the use of the MeanShift algorithm (Fukunaga and Hostetler, 1975), gave better results in terms of user segmentation. Similarly, for the emotional aspect, using the K-Means algorithm (Lloyd, 1982) with dominantEmo, endEmo features enabled us to capture variations in users' emotional states more accurately. Finally, for the temporal aspect, the MeanShift algorithm (Fukunaga and Hostetler, 1975) also proved effective to identify evolutive behaviors according to temporal variations based on time and daytype attributes. Table 1 presents the optimal number of clusters identified for each aspect, along with the used evaluation metrics Silhouette Score (Palacio-Niño and Berzal, 2019), Calinski-Harabasz Index (Calinski and Harabasz, 1974), and Davies-Bouldin Index (Wijaya et al., 2021), that we used to assess the quality of the clustering task of our model.

As detailed in Table 1 and visualized in Figures 2, 3 and 4, clustering of the demographic aspect, using MeanShift and 12 clusters, shows good cohesion, with a silhouette score of 0.7119. The low Davies-Bouldin index (0.5563) indicates well-separated clusters, while the high Calinski-Harabasz index (2132.8108) confirms a marked separation between clusters. This suggests that the demographic data fall into clear clusters.

With K-Means and 7 clusters, emotional aspect achieves the best results compared to demographic and temporal aspects. The silhouette score of 0.7199 and the lowest Davies-Bouldin index (0.5187) indicate very compact, well-separated clusters. The high Calinski-Harabasz score (5696.8659) reinforces this distinction. Emotional data thus lend themselves well to clustering, offering distinct groups.

Temporal clustering, performed with MeanShift and 8 clusters, shows moderate results compared to emotional and demographic aspects. The silhouette score of 0.5256 and the Calinski-Harabasz index of 1521.1331 signal weaker cohesion and separation. However, the Davies-Bouldin index of 0.5344 indicates clusters that are still distinct, albeit less marked.

These results emphasize that temporal behaviors are more complex to segment into homogeneous groups and that the emotional data show the most distinct and cohesive clusters, with demographic data a close second. The temporal aspect is more difficult to separate into well-defined clusters, which reveals a complexity in temporal patterns.

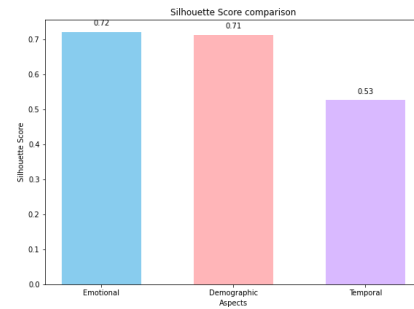


Figure 2: Silhouette Score.

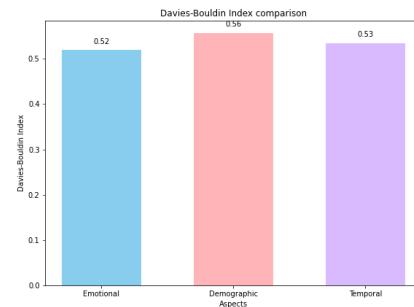


Figure 3: Davies-Bouldin Index.

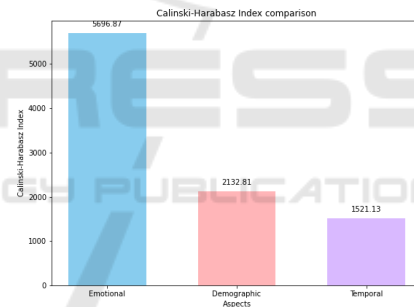


Figure 4: Calinski-Harabasz Index.

4.2 Contextual Based Collaborative Filtering Stage Implementation

To highlight the robustness and performance of our recommendation model, we implemented cross-validation with various values of K-Folds and K-Neighbors. This procedure enabled us to assess the model's stability and accuracy by dividing the data into several subsets for alternate training and testing phases.

We used RMSE (Root Mean Squared Error) and MAE (Mean Absolute Error) as metrics to measure the accuracy of the recommendations, RMSE being more sensitive to large errors, while MAE provides a measure of absolute deviations (Latrech et al., 2024).

As shown in Table 2 and Figure 5, the best performance for K-Folds = 5 is achieved with 5 neigh-

Table 1: Silhouette, Calinski-Harabasz and Davies-Bouldin metrics values for demographic, emotional and temporal contextual aspects.

Aspect	Algorithm	Optimal Number of Clusters	Silhouette Score	Davies-Bouldin Index	Calinski-Harabasz Index
Demographic	MeanShift	12	0.7119	0.5563	2132.8108
Emotional	K-Means	7	0.7199	0.5187	5696.8659
Temporal	MeanShift	8	0.5256	0.5344	1521.1331

bors (RMSE: 0.9354, MAE: 0.6250), indicating good accuracy. Beyond 5 neighbors, errors progressively increase, with performance stabilizing at acceptable rates, RMSE of 1.1438 and MAE of 0.6833, between 20 and 30 neighbors. Thus, a low number of neighbors (5) offers the best accuracy for this configuration.

With K-Folds set to 10, as indicated in Table 2 and visualized in Figure 6, optimal performance is achieved with only 3 neighbors, where the RMSE is particularly low (0.7071) and the MAE also low (0.5000). However, as we move to 5 neighbors, the RMSE increases slightly to 0.8165 and the MAE to 0.6667, which remains acceptable. A further increase in the number of neighbors (to 10) results in a moderate increase in RMSE (0.8975), while MAE decreases slightly. At 15 neighbors, the model shows slightly larger errors, but as it increases to 20 and then 30 neighbors, performance improves slightly, even reaching an RMSE of 0.8137 with 30 neighbors. For K-Folds = 10, although the best results are obtained with a low number of neighbors (3), configurations with 20 and 30 neighbors also produce good performance.

As described in Table 2 and depicted in Figure 7, when the K-Folds = 15, the algorithm’s best performance is obtained with 15 neighbors, for which the RMSE reaches 0.8607 and the MAE is 0.5185. With 3 and 5 neighbors, RMSE and MAE remain constant at high values (1.0000), which reflects less favorable performance. With 10 neighbors, the MAE decreases to 0.6667, but the RMSE remains high, while for 20 and 30 neighbors, the RMSE and MAE increase, even to reach a performance degradation at 30 neighbors with an RMSE of 1.0871. In this context of K-Folds = 15, the optimum configuration is around 15 neighbors.

At K-Folds = 20, as highlighted in Table 2 and illustrated by Figure 8, the algorithm performs optimally with 10 neighbors, achieving a particularly low RMSE of 0.5774 and a MAE of 0.3333, which makes it the most accurate configuration. At 3 and 5 neighbors, the model maintains an RMSE of 0.7071 and a MAE of 0.5000, but the 10-neighbor configuration performs better. Beyond 10 neighbors, RMSE and MAE increase progressively, with values of 0.8034 for RMSE and 0.4636 for MAE at 15 neighbors. At

20 and 30 neighbors, the errors continue to increase, with RMSE even reaching 1.0853 for 30 neighbors. For K-Folds = 20, optimal performance is therefore obtained with 10 neighbors, a configuration that minimizes prediction errors.

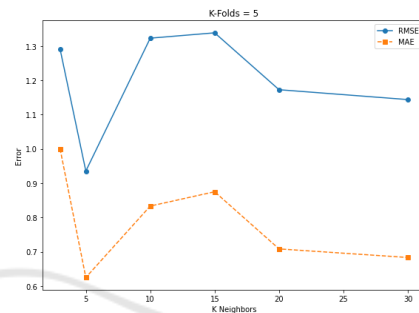


Figure 5: RMSE and MAE by K-Neighbors for K-Folds=5.

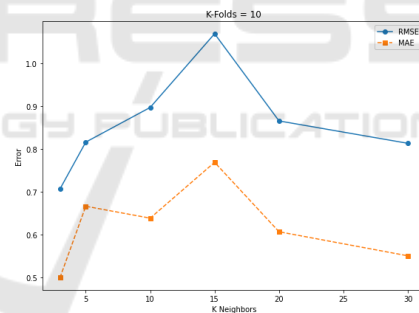


Figure 6: RMSE and MAE by K-Neighbors for K-Folds=10.

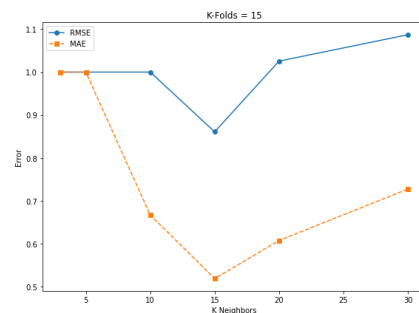


Figure 7: RMSE and MAE by K-Neighbors for K-Folds=15.

Overall, the algorithm’s performance varies significantly as a function of K-Folds values and the

Table 2: RMSE and MAE comparison for different values of K-Folds and K-Neighbors.

K-Neighbors	K-Folds=5		K-Folds=10		K-Folds=15		K-Folds=20	
	RMSE	MAE	RMSE	MAE	RMSE	MAE	RMSE	MAE
3	1.2910	1.0000	0.7071	0.5000	1.0000	1.0000	0.7071	0.5000
5	0.9354	0.6250	0.8165	0.6667	1.0000	1.0000	0.7071	0.5000
10	1.3229	0.8333	0.8975	0.6389	1.0000	0.6667	0.5774	0.3333
15	1.3385	0.8750	1.0697	0.7693	0.8607	0.5185	0.8034	0.4636
20	1.1726	0.7083	0.8660	0.6071	1.0256	0.6074	0.8975	0.4722
30	1.1438	0.6833	0.8137	0.5509	1.0871	0.7273	1.0853	0.6778

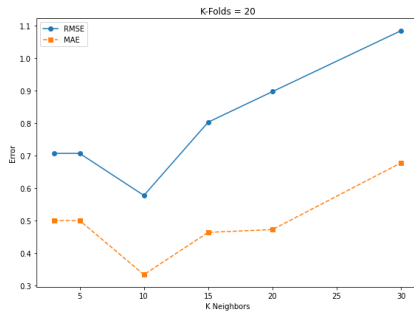


Figure 8: RMSE and MAE by K-Neighbors for K-Folds=20.

K-Neighbors selected for collaborative filtering task. For lower K-Folds values (5 and 10), the algorithm achieves optimal performance with a reduced number of neighbors (3 to 5), which minimizes both RMSE and MAE. This indicates that a small neighborhood size is sufficient for accurate predictions in these configurations, because the model focuses more efficiently on the closest relationships without overfitting. On the other hand, for higher values of K-Folds (15 and 20), the model performs better with an intermediate number of neighbors, around 10 to 15 neighbors, before the errors (RMSE and MAE) increase for higher values of K-Neighbors. This behavior suggests that with more detailed tests (i.e. more K-Folds), a slightly larger set of neighbors can capture subtle variations in user preferences, while retaining good generalization.

• Baseline Methods

To highlight the performance of our model, we compared it to other recommendation approaches implemented on LDOS-CoMoDa dataset. Table 3 summarizes the results achieved by the presented approaches.

- **KCAMF** (Patil et al., 2022): In this research, the authors proposed an innovative kernel-based loss function to enhance matrix factorization optimization in a non-linear projection rating space, with optimal handling of context multiplicity.
- **CBMF** (Casillo et al., 2022): In this paper, the authors developed a contextual recommendation

system based on the concept of integrated context. This system optimizes recommendation personalization by directly incorporating relevant contextual data into the recommendation generation process.

- **Hybrid-IHSR** (Unger and Tuzhilin, 2020): The authors introduced an innovative hierarchical representation method to capture latent contextual information, and understand users' specific situations as they personalize recommendations. They proposed a transformation process to structure unstructured contextual information into hierarchical representations.
- **SVD++** (Kumar et al., 2014): This approach enriches the SVD++ factorization model with a social popularity factor based on implicit user feedback. This mechanism permits the capture of users' direct preferences and also the effect of an item's popularity within the community.

Table 3: RMSE and MAE comparison between models implemented on LDOS-CoMoDa dataset.

Method	RMSE	MAE
KCAMF (Patil et al., 2022)	0.9136	0.7177
CBMF (Casillo et al., 2022)	1.0680	0.8386
Hybrid-IHSR (Unger and Tuzhilin, 2020)	1.2300	0.9700
SVD++ (Kumar et al., 2014)	1.0571	0.8468
Our model	0.5774	0.3333

As shown in Table 3, our model achieved the lowest RMSE and MAE values, confirming its effectiveness to integrate emotional, demographic, and temporal contexts to deliver more context-driven recommendations and accurately capture user preferences.

5 CONCLUSION

We introduced a machine learning-based context-driven collaborative filtering approach structured in

three steps. First, a multi-aspect clustering analysis is performed on the dataset, focusing on emotional, demographic, and temporal aspects. Specific clustering algorithms are applied to identify clusters and generate probability distributions of users' membership, enabling a nuanced analysis of user profiles. Second, the system constructs a normalized User-User contextual weighted similarity matrix by calculating similarity scores using the Jensen-Shannon divergence method. These scores are dynamically weighted to reflect the importance of each contextual aspect, aggregated to compute global similarity scores, and used to build the normalized matrix. The final step applies collaborative filtering based on the normalized matrix, identifying the N contextually closest users to predict ratings for unrated items and generate recommendations. Experiments conducted on the LDOS-CoMoDa dataset demonstrated good performance, with RMSE and MAE rates of 0.5774 and 0.3333, respectively. These results highlight the model's ability to deliver contextually personalized suggestions tailored to variations in user preferences.

To enhance this approach, we aim to explore alternative divergence metrics beyond the Jensen-Shannon divergence and apply the method to various datasets. This comparative analysis will provide insights into optimizing contextual recommendations and adapting them to the specific characteristics of user profiles.

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